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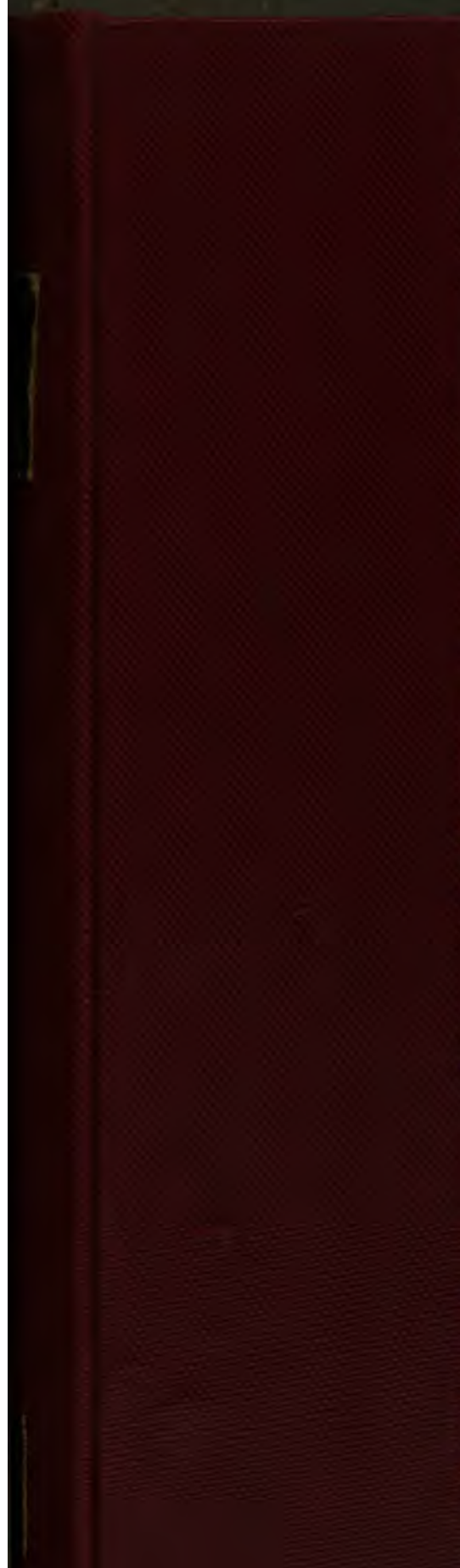
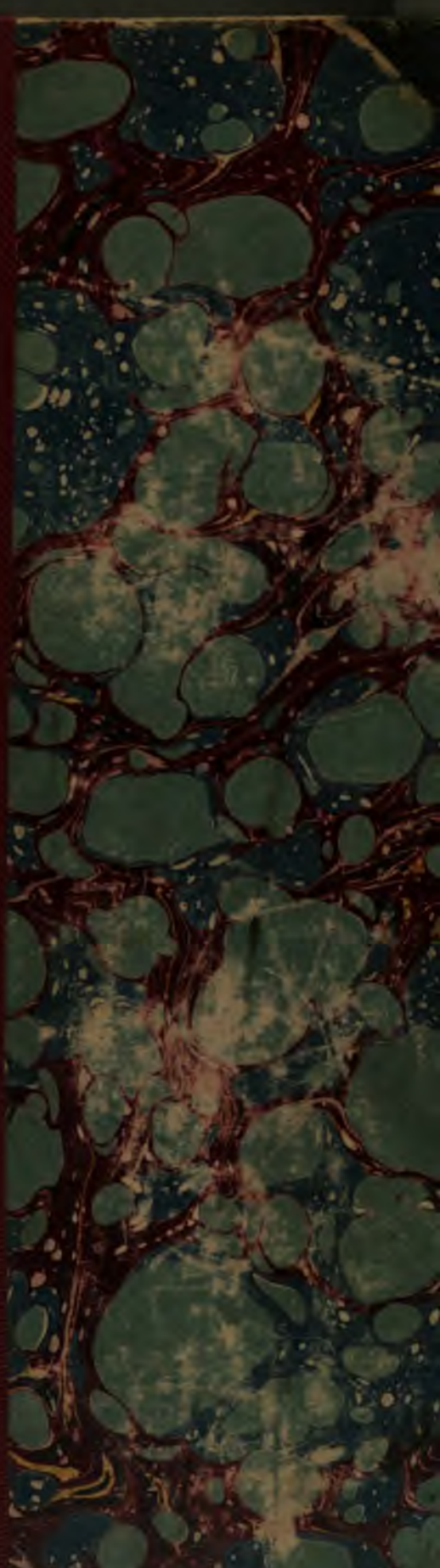
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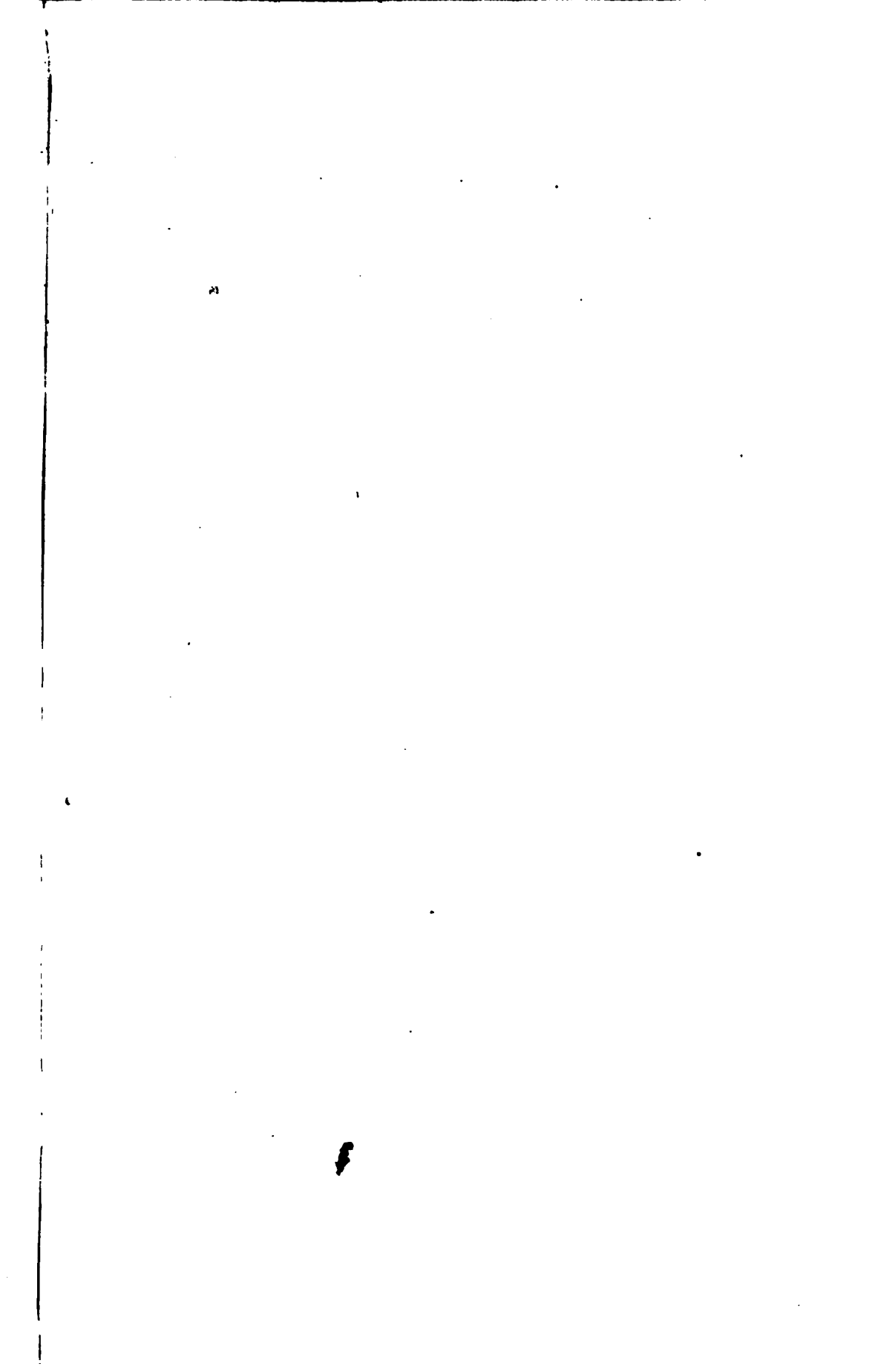
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NEW YORK: 1864.

THE
AMERICAN
ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA
AND
REGISTER OF IMPORTANT EVENTS
OF THE YEAR
1865.

EMBRACING POLITICAL, CIVIL, MILITARY, AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS; PUBLIC DOCUMENTS; BIOGRAPHY, STATISTICS, COMMERCE, FINANCE, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AGRICULTURE, AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRY.

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P R E F A C E .

THE present volume of the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for the year 1865 embraces the final military operations of the war in the United States, the disbandment of the armies, the reduction of the fleets, and the peaceful occupation of the Southern States. The change in the administration of the Federal Government by the shocking death of President Lincoln, and the accession of Vice-President Johnson, are described in its pages, together with the various measures to re-establish the State governments and to restore the authority of the Federal Government in all parts of the Union.

The debates in Congress during the year on the relations of the Southern States to the Union, the recognition of the Louisiana government, the admission of a Senator from Virginia, etc., present the preliminary views of that body on one of the most important questions of the time. The views of Presidents Lincoln and Johnson, as expressed in their public addresses, have been included, as also their messages to Congress, the report of the Lieutenant-General, and the public documents of the Government.

The achievement of emancipation by the almost universal assent of the country; the measures taken by the Federal Government relative to the freedmen; those adopted by the Conventions and Legislatures of the Southern States to raise them to a position of civil rights; and the successful adaptation of the former master and servant to the new mode of life—forming one of the most interesting chapters of human history—are presented in this volume. No less interesting was the sudden change in the aspect of the country on the disappearance of military lines; the unobstructed passage back and forth to the North and South; the reunion of belligerents as “one people, one country, one destiny.” This has not been overlooked in these pages.

The details of the internal affairs of the country embrace the disappearance of the armies among the citizens; the resumption of commercial inter-

course ; the commerce of the country ; the finances of the Federal Government and its banking system ; the acts of State Legislatures ; the results of elections ; the progress of educational and charitable institutions under the care of the State governments ; the debts and resources of the States ; and all those political movements, the results of which are to transfer the public power from one to another portion of its citizens.

The relations of the United States to foreign nations, as developed in its Diplomatic Intercourse, are fully presented ; and also the civil, military, and commercial history of all the States of Europe and South America, and the more important kingdoms of Asia, with some countries of Africa, is fully brought up.

The progress and peculiar features and mode of treatment of those scourges known as the Asiatic Cholera, the Cattle Disease, and the disease of Swine, with the latest investigations, have been carefully described.

The advance in Astronomy, Chemistry, and many other branches of science, with the new applications to useful purposes which have been developed, have not been overlooked.

Geographical explorations have been earnestly continued in all quarters of the globe, and the discoveries which have followed have been fully presented.

The record of Literature is not less interesting than that of any previous year. The titles of all important works of the various classes to which they belong, are stated in detail.

A notice of the principal religious denominations of the country states their branches, membership, views on civil affairs, and the progress of their distinctive opinions.

The number of distinguished men who closed their career has been large. A brief tribute is paid to their memory.

All important documents, messages, orders, despatches, and letters from official persons, have been inserted entire.

THE ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA.

A

AFRICA. The French Government were disappointed in their expectation that the insurrection of some of the native tribes in Algeria was effectually subdued at the close of the year 1864. New outbreaks occurred during the year 1865, and at its close the most formidable of the insurgent chiefs, Si Lala, was still in the field. Very alarming rumors that Si Lala, at the head of 50,000 men, held the whole south of Algeria, circulated in Paris, in November; but the *Moniteur* denied their correctness, and asserted that, on October 19th, he had only made his appearance in the southern districts of Algeria with 2,000 horsemen and 1,400 soldiers on foot. According to the *Moniteur de l'Algérie* of November 12, Si Lala, finding his efforts to be fruitless, his resources exhausted, and his cavalry fatiguing themselves in vain, decided upon retreating rapidly toward the southwest, and was actively pursued by the French forces. Gen. Lacroix, marching from Daya, overtook and defeated, on November 8th, at Oud-bon-Lerdjem, to the west of Maïa-Chott, the Hamian tribes and the fractions of the Djembas and Chafas who had joined Si Lala. Official news from Algeria reached Paris on December 15th, which stated that Col. Colomb, reinforced by the tribes recently subjected, had on several occasions beaten the tribes still in insurrection, who were seeking refuge in the desert of Sahara, that the tribes who had been defeated had asked for pardon, and Col. Sonis had cut off the retreat toward the east of Si Lala. In May the Emperor Louis Napoleon visited Algeria, where he received an enthusiastic reception on the part of many chiefs and tribes, and was met by special ambassadors from Tunis and Morocco. On his return to France, it became known that the Emperor was preparing a pamphlet on French colonization in Algeria, but its issue was delayed until November 3d,

when it appeared in the form of a letter to Marshal McMahon. It concluded as follows: "I would turn to account the valor of the Arabs rather than bear hardly upon their poverty; render the colonists rich and prosperous rather than establish settlements of emigrants, and maintain our soldiers in healthy situations rather than to expose them to the wasting climate of the desert. By the realization of this programme we shall appease passions and satisfy interests; then Algeria will be to us no longer a burden, but a new element of strength. The Arabs, restrained and conciliated, will give us what they can best give, namely, soldiers, and the colony, become flourishing by the development of its territorial riches, will create a commercial movement eminently favorable to the mother country."

In accordance with the views of the Emperor, the French Government, on June 22d, brought forward the draft of a decree respecting Algeria. It provides that the native Mussulman be considered a Frenchman. He will, nevertheless, continue subject to the Mussulman laws of the country, but can, on application, be admitted to the rights of French citizenship. The native Israelite also is to be considered a Frenchman. He will continue to be governed according to the peculiar statutes of the Hebrew race, but, on application, can enjoy the rights of a French citizen. Foreigners, upon proving three years' residence in the country, are entitled to the rights of citizenship. An administrative regulation will determine the conditions of admission to the public service and of advancement in the army for native Mussulmans and Israelites, and also the offices to which they can attain. This draft was adopted by the Senate without important modifications. In July, Mr. P. H. Rathbone, the President of the Liverpool Chamber of

Commerce, on returning from a visit to North Africa, presented an interesting report on the commerce of Algeria. Mr. Rathbone is of opinion that Algeria might rapidly be developed into a "paying" colony if ruled by France on more sound economic principles, and if the colonists were not, as at present, subordinate to the army, and the colony to Marseilles. Mr. Rathbone also advocates the opening of the ports and the establishment of regular steam communication with Great Britain. The Arabs he denounces as dishonest and lazy, and encouraged by the laxity of the Bureau Arabe to cheat Europeans, particularly in the sale of wool. The Kabyles, he says, are both industrious and honest. With more business freedom, Algeria, he thinks, would easily produce immense quantities of good wool, cotton, wine, oil, and corn, as well as useful grass, called *crin végétal*, much used by upholsterers in place of horse-hair.

In Morocco, a fresh insurrection broke out in the neighborhood of Rabat, in May, but it was soon quelled. In July, the Emperor of Morocco issued an important edict commanding that no person, poor or rich, should be punished contrary to law, and prohibiting the exaction of any fines except as prescribed by law. It also forbids people to present money or other gifts to any governor or employé; and if any governor imposes fines contrary to imperial decrees, the people have the liberty of appeal to his Majesty, who promises complete satisfaction. The Emperor also appointed a day in each week for receiving, and determining the complaints of his poor subjects.

The Suez Canal has made sufficient progress to enable light boats to pass from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea. The completion of the work, and its opening for navigation, the company expects to take place by the 1st of July, 1868. (See SUEZ, CANAL OF.)

The English Government had not, at the close of the year, obtained from the Emperor of Abyssinia the release of Consul Cameron and other British subjects who have been kept in prison nearly two years. A parliamentary paper issued by the Government on June 20th, contains full and interesting information respecting the relations of the Emperor Theodore of Abyssinia with England and France.

The Island of Madagascar continued to be agitated by internal convulsions. In October, the French Government received despatches stating that Raharia, governor of Tamatava, persisted in his refusal to pay to the commander of the French squadron on the station the sum due to the French Government as an indemnity. His refusal was approved by the Queen, and a reinforcement of 1,000 men was sent to him to guard the house where the money was deposited, thus raising the force stationed there to 3,000 men. The Government of the Hovas moreover resolved to burn the treaties in the public square of Tamatava between King Radama and the agent of the French Government.

The accounts given by the Rev. Mr. Ellis, the pioneer missionary, were more favorable. He stated in a public address delivered in England, that the Government of Madagascar upheld religious toleration, that Christianity was spreading very rapidly, not only in the capital, but in the most remote parts of the country, and that there was reason to hope that the next generation would be predominantly Christian, and witness the extinction of Paganism.

South Africa was throughout the year the scene of hostilities between the Orange Free State and the Basutos, which sometimes threatened the peace of the frontier of the English Colony of Natal. In reply to representations from the Governor of the Cape Colony, Moshesh, the chief of the Basutos, stated that he had met the demand of the Natal Government for invading their frontier. He also urged the governor to take possession of his country and people, alleging that they were desirous of becoming British subjects. The governor declined to take steps at the present juncture, and doubted the sincerity of Moshesh, but lamented the war, which, he said, if continued much longer, would cause much misery and destitution among the Basutos, and largely increase their cattle thieving.

The Government of the Cape Colony proposed to the Colonial Parliament the annexation of British Kaffraria to the colony, and carried the measure, although considerable opposition was made to it.

AGRICULTURE. The year 1865 was, on the whole, a favorable one for agricultural products, though the extreme moisture of May and June in some sections affected the earlier grain crops, and the extraordinary drought of the autumn in New England and portions of New York, affected the late crops, and especially the fruits, unfavorably. So vast is the extent of the country, however, and so varied its climate, that with our abundant and constantly multiplying means of communication, a deficiency of a particular crop in one section is readily made up by its excess, or at least abundance, in another.

Of the cereal grains, the *wheat* crop is smaller both in the number of bushels and the weight of the grain than in any year since 1860. The following are the crops of this grain, according to the estimates of the Agricultural Department during six years past, omitting the crop of 1861.

1860.....	182,984,782 bushels.
1862.....	181,158,089 "
1863.....	179,404,086 "
1864.....	160,695,328 "
1865.....	148,522,329 "

By this table it appears that there has been a decrease in the amount of the wheat crop each year since 1862, when it attained its maximum, and that this decrease in 1865, as compared with the crop of 1862, was nearly 33 millions of bushels, being a little more than 12 millions of bushels less than the crop of 1864.

This reduction in the amount of this important crop was not, however, uniform throughout the wheat-growing States; Vermont, Connecticut, Michigan, Iowa, Minnesota, and Nebraska produced larger crops than in any previous year since 1860, and Maine, New Hampshire, New York, and Wisconsin, reported a larger yield than in 1864. The principal falling off was in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and the loss in these three States as compared with 1862 and 1864, will appear from the following table :

	1862. Bushels.	1864. Bushels.	1865. Bushels.
Ohio.....	80,796,082	20,407,508	17,601,472
Indiana.....	20,292,160	22,821,876	18,020,808
Illinois.....	82,218,500	88,871,173	25,266,745
Totals of three States	83,801,692	76,100,052	55,589,020

The reduction it will be observed in these three States is about 27,500,000 bushels from the crop of 1862, and of over 20,000,000 from the crop of 1864. Illinois is still the leading wheat-growing State, but Wisconsin has passed all its other competitors and ranks second in the list, while Ohio ranks third, and Michigan fourth.

The *Rye* crop, a far less important one than the wheat, is a trifle and but a trifle below that of last year. Its range during the past six years has been limited, as the following table will show :

Rye crop in 1860.....	18,793,198 bushels.
" 1862.....	91,239,451 "
" 1863.....	20,792,732 "
" 1864.....	19,873,975 "
" 1865.....	19,548,905 "

The principal rye-growing States, in the order of their production, are, Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, Wisconsin, Illinois, Connecticut, and Ohio. No other States produced in 1865 a half million of bushels.

The *Barley* crop is not a large one, but compares favorably with that of former years, having been exceeded only in 1862, and then only about 1,100,000 bushels. The following table shows the production of the past few years :

Barley crop in 1860.....	10,926,765 bushels.
" 1862.....	12,458,022 "
" 1863.....	11,868,155 "
" 1864.....	10,682,178 "
" 1865.....	11,391,286 "

Nearly two-fifths of the whole barley crop is produced in the State of New York, while the greater part of the remainder is raised in Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, Maine, Pennsylvania, and Iowa.

The *Oat* crop of 1865 was largely in excess of any former year, as will appear from the following table :

Oats produced in 1860.....	151,290,980 bushels.
" 1862.....	171,468,405 "
" 1863.....	173,500,575 "
" 1864.....	176,600,064 "
" 1865.....	233,252,295 "

The excess over the crop 1864, it will be seen, is about 48,500,000 bushels, and over

that of 1862, nearly 54,000,000 bushels. In this crop New York takes the lead, its production being 48,675,090 bushels, and Pennsylvania follows with 46,571,661 bushels. The other principal oat-growing States are, in the order of their production, Illinois, Ohio, Wisconsin, Iowa, Indiana, Michigan, New Jersey, Maryland, Kentucky, Vermont, Minnesota, Missouri, Connecticut, and Maine.

The *Hay* crop was also very large, exceeding by nearly 5,500,000 tons the crop of 1864, and by more than 3,000,000 that of any preceding year, as the following table will show :

Hay crop of 1860.....	18,793,029 tons.
" 1862.....	20,257,963 "
" 1863.....	19,786,847 "
" 1864.....	18,116,731 "
" 1865.....	23,588,740 "

In this crop New York leads largely, producing considerably more than one-fifth of the entire crop. Illinois, Pennsylvania, and Ohio come next, and Maine, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Vermont, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Missouri, and New Jersey, follow in order. The production of hay by the other States is comparatively small.

The *Corn* crop of the Northern States was a very large one, 22.7 per cent above the average. The amount raised in the Southern States was also large, but its amount is not readily ascertained. The following statistics show the amount of this crop in twenty-two States and territories, the States lately in rebellion and those on the Pacific coast not being given for want of complete statistics. The crop of 1865 is estimated from the returns to the Agricultural Department :

Corn crop in 1862...	536,226,805 bushels.
" 1863.....	451,947,959 "
" 1864.....	530,581,408 "
" 1865.....	642,730,247 "

In this crop Illinois takes the lead, producing nearly one-fourth of the entire crop; Indiana follows, and then in their order, Ohio, Iowa, Kentucky, Missouri, Pennsylvania, New York, Michigan, Maryland, Wisconsin, and New Jersey. Adding the crop in the Southern States, and the aggregate production of corn for the year cannot fall much, if at all, short of 900,000,000 bushels.

The *Cotton* crop of 1865 was larger than that of 1863 or 1864, though in some sections it was materially affected by the rain and worms, and much of it was planted very late owing to the continuance of the war in the early months of the year, and the necessity of the corn crop for the subsistence of the people. The amount given can as yet be only approximately ascertained, but probably falls but little short of one million bales. Eleven or twelve hundred thousand bales of the crops of former years also remained over, so that the supply of cotton in the country at the beginning of 1866, was about one-half the amount of the crops of 1860, or of 1859.

The *Tobacco* crop was a fair average, except

in Kentucky, where there was a falling off of about 13 per cent. The amount planted was not quite as large as usual in some of the tobacco-producing States, in consequence of the apprehension of a tax upon the unmanufactured leaf.

The *Potato* crop is slightly above the yield of the preceding year. The rot prevailed to some extent, but not sufficiently to excite serious fears in regard to the crop.

The *Sorghum* crop, now becoming a very important product in the West and South, where the syrup or molasses has, to a large extent, taken the place of the molasses from the sugar cane, was, owing to the lateness of the frosts, gathered in excellent condition, and the yield was, as a whole, very satisfactory.

The *Buckwheat* crop was also a trifle larger than the crop of 1864, and of excellent quality. The crop of *Hops* was poor, being in many districts, especially in Central New York (which produces about nine-tenths of the entire amount raised), seriously injured by the lice, which for the last three years have made great havoc with the hop yards. The ravages of these insects during the year 1865, were singular in their character. Yards which the previous season had been so thoroughly ruined by them that the hop-growers had been tempted to root up the plants and cultivate other crops, were this year entirely free from the pest, and those which had escaped the previous year were subjected to its ravages. The crop of 1865 was probably about 7,000,000 pounds against 10,991,996, in 1864.

The *Root* crops were never better than in 1865. The yield was more than ten per cent. in advance of 1864, though that had been a remarkable year.

The larger autumnal fruits, apples, pears, quinces, &c., were very abundant in the States bordering upon the great lakes in Central and Western New York, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Northern Indiana and Illinois; but in New England, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and the region bordering on the Ohio River, the crop was almost a total failure. In New England, the drought, severe and long continued, prevented their coming to maturity; in the central district, especially along the Ohio River and its tributaries, the severe frosts of the winter of 1863-'64 had killed the taproot of the apple trees, and probably rendered them permanently barren.

Peaches were very abundant in Delaware, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, but there were very few in the region bordering on the lakes.

Of the *small fruits*, strawberries of the later varieties were abundant, while the early sorts were in small quantity and not of the usual quality. The other summer fruits were in about the same quantity.

The *Grape* crop suffered severely in the States on the Atlantic coast, and those bordering on the Ohio River, from rot, the result of the very

wet weather of June and July. In the region lying in the vicinity of the lakes and in the belt visited by the trade winds, as California, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, Kansas, and Nebraska, the crop was excellent both in quality and quantity.

The *Wool* crop has been constantly increasing in magnitude during the last five years. The attention of many agriculturists has been turned toward the raising of sheep, which has been rendered extraordinarily profitable both by the large demand for wool and its consequent high price, and the increasing use of mutton for the table. In 1860, the whole number of sheep in the United States, according to the census, was 22,471,275, and in the twenty-three States and territories, from which alone during the war returns could be obtained, 15,104,272. In 1864, the number of sheep in these States had risen to 24,846,391, and in 1865, to 28,647,269. In 1860, the wool-clip of the whole United States was 60,264,913 pounds, and of the twenty-three States already named, 47,900,862 pounds. In 1864, owing not only to the great increase in the number of sheep, but to the improvement in the breeds, it was 97,385,564 pounds, or more than double the yield of 1860; in 1865, it had further increased to 114,589,076 pounds, and is still rapidly on the increase, as it should be, for the demand for wool still causes a considerable importation from Great Britain and Canada as well as from Germany, the South of Europe, South Africa, and South America. California will probably soon supply the grade of wool hitherto imported from South America. The importation of 1864 was in round numbers 75,000,000 pounds. Owing to the increased tariff on foreign wools the importation of 1865 would probably not much exceed 30,000,000 pounds, but there is very little of this which might not be grown to advantage on our own territory.

The *Pork* crop was, in the number of hogs slaughtered, about ten per cent. below that of 1864, but the hogs were much better fattened though generally of smaller size than the previous year. The number of hogs packed in the winter of 1863-'64, is stated by the *Cincinnati Price Current* as 3,328,884; in the winter of 1864-'65, as 2,422,779; while the number for the winter of 1865-'66 is estimated at 2,180,000.

With the exception of sheep, and milch cows,* all classes of live stock have materially diminished during the war. The following tables show this conclusively, while they also give the present valuation and the average price of each description of stock. The diminution of number, is of course due to the extraordinary demand for horses and mules for army purposes, and for beef and pork for commissary supplies.

* Taking the whole country through, these, too, have probably diminished, though they have nearly or quite held their own in the loyal States east of the Rocky Mountains.

TABLE, showing the total numbers of Live Stock for 1864 and 1865, the increase and decrease thereof, the general average price of each kind, the value of each, and the total value, in twenty-three loyal States and Territories east of the Rocky Mountains.

	1860.	1864.	1865.	Increase from 1864.	Decrease from 1864.
Horses.....	4,297,428	4,049,143	8,740,983		80,209
Mules.....	811,864	890,847	247,538		83,294
Cattle and Oxen.....	8,028,815	7,946,439	7,072,091		892,548
Cows.....	5,530,459	6,066,743	5,768,150		298,618
Sheep.....	15,104,223	24,846,591	8,647,209	4,300,578	
Hogs.....	17,888,429	16,148,713	18,070,387		8,077,823
Total.....	50,682,260	53,857,279	55,547,868	4,300,579	4,610,794

Number, average price, and total value for January, 1865.

	Number.	Av. Price.	Total Value.
Horses.....	8,740,983	\$80 84	\$302,425,499
Mules.....	247,538	102 03	25,041,488
Cattle and Oxen.....	7,072,091	26 17	185,080,087
Cows.....	5,768,150	36 70	211,713,270
Sheep.....	28,647,209	5 40	154,907,466
Hogs.....	18,070,387	8 55	111,796,818
			\$990,879,128

The following table, extracted from the monthly reports of the Agricultural Department, is of importance, as giving the comparative exports of farm produce in 1864 and 1865, and the prices ruling at New York and Chicago at the beginning and close of the year.

It will be observed that in most articles there was a decided falling off in prices, though not to an extent commensurate with the fall of gold.

Exports from New York of the leading agricultural products from January 1, 1865, to December 19, compared with those for the same time in 1864, and their prices in New York and Chicago.

ARTICLES.	1864.	1865.	At New York, Jan. 25, 1865.	At Chicago, Jan. 25, 1865.	Prices, December 19, New York.	Prices, December 19, Chicago.
Wheat Flour, bbls.....	1,374,508	1,399,988	\$9 20 a \$11 80	\$7 00 a \$10 00	\$7 00 a \$9 85	\$9 75 a \$11 00
Eye Flour, bbls.....	2,618	2,840	8 00 a 9 00	6 85 a 7 00		4 50 a 5 00
Corn Meal, bbls.....	125,549	108,446	8 80 a 9 00		4 65	
Wheat, bush.....	2,860,460	12,165,848	2 05 a 2 38	1 20 a 1 47	1 63 a 2 40	87½ a 1 43
Oats, bush.....	4,821,674	841,297	1 77 a 1 87	78 a 88	95 a 95½	43 a 45
Barley, bush.....	184,495	588	1 00 a 1 65	98½ a 1 01		40 a 58
Rye, bush.....		150		1 80 a 1 40	1 00	40 a 1 80
Peas, bush.....	71,894	41,775	1 01 a 1 04	58 a 62	60 a 62	22½ a 27
Cotton, bales.....	86,089	164,438	2 30 a 2 35			
Hay, bales.....	200,432	26,744	5 85 a 6 00		50 a 52	
Hops, bales.....	35,280	89,257	1 70 a 1 85	85 a 1 00	70 a 85	50 a 60
Leaf Tobacco, hds.....	18,608	28,073	29 a 50	88 a 55	20 a 65	45 a 60
Leaf Tobacco, pkgs.....	54,517	69,639	9 a 85		8 a 22½	
Manuf. Tobacco, lbs.....	78,542	60,774		65 a 1 85		
Petroleum, galls.....	8,968,289	4,948,476			65 a 67	
Port, mess, bbls.....	115,728	129,421	85 50 a 88 00	81 00 a 84 00	28 00 a 28 00	26 50 a 27 00
Beef, mess, bbls.....	88,552	86,081	19 00 a 24 00	14 00 a 19 00	14 00 a 17 00	12 00 a 17 00
Beef, mess, tes.....	49,064	49,299				
Cut Meats, lbs.....	83,843,574	98,578,135	17 a 20	15 a 18	11 a 16	10 a 16
Butter, lbs.....	9,628,635	14,151,875	82½ a 80		28 a 47	20 a 33
Cheese, lbs.....	40,517,198	49,490,381	14 a 28½		15 a 18½	20 a 28
Lard, lbs.....	22,463,241	58,070,467	15½ a 22½	20 a 21	15 a 19	19 a 19½
Tallow, lbs.....	15,593,745	81,988,576	15½ a 16	14 a 15½	18½ a 14	12 a 18
Wool, fleece, lbs.....					55 a 68	43 a 50
Sorghum Molasses, gals.....						50 a 60

In the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864, the culture of the grape was discussed at considerable length, and the various wine districts of the country described. The experience of 1865 indicates that in the districts near the Atlantic coast, or on the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, the frequent occurrence of wet seasons makes the wine crop an uncertain one, both as to quality and quantity. The same difficulty is experienced in most of the wine districts of Europe, where of late years hardly one year in five proves a "good wine year." In the region lying on Lake Erie, and embracing the southern islands of that lake in Western Missouri and Kansas, and probably also in Texas, there is less difficulty experienced in making wine. But California is preëminently the wine region of the United States. Its dry climate, semi-tropical in its character, its deep, rich, and aromatic soil, and the fact that all the tenderest

varieties of grapes of the South of Europe grow freely in the open air there and are readily acclimated, render it the future wine-producing region of the continent. There are probably not less than 10,000,000 vines which have been set within the past ten years, of which one-half were set in 1864 and 1865. The wine product of 1864 exceeded 4,000,000 gallons, although the extreme drought diminished it somewhat. While the production of wine in that State is still comparatively in its infancy, and every year increases the amount and improves the quality, we may ere long expect to receive from thence wines which shall compete successfully with the best products of the best vintages of Europe, for with the choicest varieties of wine grapes they have also the most skillful wine makers of Europe.

The culture of the hop though restricted to comparatively small tracts of country, and more

largely produced in the central counties of the State of New York than elsewhere, is deserving of attention from the thorough cultivation necessary to produce the crop, and its importance as an article of export. There were a few hops grown in every State in the Union except Florida in 1859, and in every territory except Dacotah and New Mexico, but the only States which reported over 100 bales=20,000 pounds, were Indiana, Maine, Michigan, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Vermont, and Wisconsin. Of these New York was by far the largest producer, its yield being 9,671,931 pounds, while the aggregate production of the country was only 10,991,996 pounds. Vermont which came next had 638,677 pounds, and Wisconsin, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Maine were the only other States which produced 100,000 pounds or anywhere near the quantity. In New York, Otsego County has taken the lead in hop culture, reporting in 1859, 3,507,069 pounds, Madison following with 1,520,657 pounds, and Schoharie, with 1,441,648. Oneida, Herkimer, Montgomery, Chenango, Ontario, Franklin, and St. Lawrence, were the only other counties which produced any considerable quantity of hops in that year.

The New England Hop District, which produced in 1859 about 1,000,000 pounds, includes those counties of Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, and Massachusetts, lying on or near the upper waters of the Connecticut River and its affluents. The hops from this source, distinguished in the New York market as "Eastern" Hops, while those from central New York and elsewhere rank as "Western," ripen earlier, are smaller, and of milder flavor than the Western, and do not command so high a price as the latter. The advance in the production of this crop has been remarkable. It was first enumerated in the census of 1840, when the quantity produced was stated at 6,000 bales, or about 1,200,000 pounds. In 1850 the product had increased to 17,000 bales, or about 3,400,000 pounds; in 1860, as we have seen, it was 55,000 bales, or about 11,000,000 pounds. In 1862 it reached 80,000 bales, or 16,000,000 pounds, a figure which, owing to the diseases to which it has been subject, it has never since attained. In 1863 it fell off to 65,000 bales, or 13,000,000 pounds, much of the crop being of inferior quality. In 1864 it was affected by the aphid or plant louse, and to some extent by the mould also, and not more than 45,000 bales came to market. The product of 1865 was good, except in the Hop District of New York, where it was again and still more seriously affected by the aphid.

The crop is quite as variable and uncertain in Great Britain as in the United States; and when the crop fails there either partially or wholly, the brewers import largely from other countries whatever the price, while in favorable years their importation is very small. In 1859 only 248,640 pounds were imported into Great

Britain, while in 1861 the importation was 16,707,712 pounds, or almost seventy times as much, and in 1863 about the same amount. There is a home demand for from 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 pounds in the United States, yet in 1861, 8,835,837 pounds were exported, at about twenty cents per pound, while the preceding year exports were only 273,257 pounds. The prices have fluctuated from four to ten cents a pound in 1855-1858, to thirty-five to sixty cents in 1865. The hop can be grown in ordinary times and at the usual price of labor for from twelve to fifteen cents per pound.

The hop requires a deep, well-pulverized, and highly fertile soil for its successful cultivation. If the subsoil is clay it should be thoroughly underdrained. Good wheat lands are generally good hop lands, though the hop requires more silica, lime, and sulphuric acid and less magnesia and phosphoric acid than wheat. It is an exhausting crop, and in most sections requires frequent and liberal administration of manures, especially plaster of Paris, guano, and the like. The plants are usually set about seven feet apart each way, giving not far from 900 plants to the acre. Two poles, if they are sixteen or eighteen feet in height, are set for each hill, and three if they are not more than twelve or fourteen feet. These are usually spread apart somewhat at the top. Two vines or plants are usually left to grow for each pole, though if there is danger from the wire worm it is better to reserve more till this danger is past. They are usually propagated from cuttings, as the hops grown from the seed are of uncertain quality. The plants should be selected about one male to fifty female plants. The crop is usually best in the third or fourth year after planting, though it yields moderately before that time. It requires careful and thorough tillage, the weeds being removed and the soil kept well pulverized. The hop yard must be so located as to be protected from high and violent winds, yet should be open to the sun and a free circulation of air. The cost of a hop yard which will bear freely for ten years, is from \$400 to \$500 per acre, including plants, poles, manure, etc. The processes of picking, drying, and packing the hops are very accurately described by Mr. Rouse, of Oneida County, N. Y., in the Patent Office Report for 1853:

"The hops having reached maturity, or nearly so, the operation of picking commences. This, to have the fruit in full perfection, should not be done until it is ripe; at which time the seed will be found to have changed from a bright straw color to a pale brown, and will emit a fragrant smell. With us hops are usually ripe about the 5th of September; but as it is better they should be harvested rather green than be permitted to stand till over-ripe, liable to be injured by the early frosts, as they cannot all be gathered at once, it is necessary in large fields to commence somewhat earlier—usually about the first of September—in order that the work may be completed in season. The pick-

ing is usually done by females. For this purpose girls are frequently engaged several months, and even a whole year, in advance.

"The hops are commonly picked in large boxes, containing from twenty-four to forty bushels. These boxes are divided lengthwise by a thin partition, and then subdivided into quarters. They are raised a little from the ground, and have handles at the ends to facilitate their removal from place to place, as may be desirable. One man and four girls are allowed to each box. Each girl deposits the hops she picks in her own division of the box. An industrious hand can pick twenty bushels in a day without difficulty. It is the business of the man to supply the boxes with poles, which he raises from the ground as needed, cutting the vines about a foot high; to see that the picking is properly done, to remove the empty poles, clear them of the vines, and stack them in a systematic manner. In picking, the hops should be kept free from stems and leaves, and all blasted or immature ones should be rejected. The boxes should be emptied at least once a day; at all events, no hops should be left in them over night. It is of great consequence that they should be dried as soon as possible after they are picked, as they are quite liable, if left together in any quantity, to heat and spoil in a few hours. They may be most conveniently conveyed from the field to the dry-house in large sacks.

"*Drying.*—The hop-house, or kiln, should be of a size proportionate to the quantity of hops to be cured, so that they may not accumulate on hand. To avoid this, it will generally be necessary to keep the kiln heated both day and night. It is commonly built of an oblong form, and two stories, the lower part being occupied by the kiln and the press-room, and the upper part by the drying-floor over the kiln, and by a room of about equal size for storing the dried hops, which will of course be over the press-room. Kilns are sometimes built of bricks or stone, of a circular form, with a round opening in the apex of the roof, surmounted by a movable cowl, or swinging ventilator, to enable the vapor of the drying hops to escape easily. If the building is of wood, the sides of the kiln should be lined with brickwork, or thoroughly lathed and plastered. It is found to be most convenient and economical to heat it with stoves, from two to four of which will be necessary, according to the size of the kiln. The drying-floor should be ten feet from the ground, that there may be no danger of scorching the hops in drying. This floor is formed of slats about one and a half inch in width, and the same distance from each other. These are covered with a strong coarse cloth, of open texture, so as to admit a free transmission of the heated air from the kiln below. The drying-room should be of comfortable height for a person to work in it, and the sides should be lathed and plastered, that there may be no irregularity of the heat in different portions of the room dur-

ing high winds. A good ventilator should be provided in the roof, as described above. Openings should be left in the walls near the bottom of the kiln to admit fresh air from without, the draught to be regulated by means of flues, or sliding doors. The cloth for the drying-floor should be well stretched over the slats and firmly nailed. On this floor the hops are spread to the depth of six or eight inches. The proper thickness will depend somewhat on the condition of the hops; if they are very full of moisture, they should be laid on quite thin; but if gathered when fully ripe, and in fine weather, a depth of ten inches will be allowed.

"The hops being spread as evenly as possible, the fires are immediately kindled in the kiln, and the temperature regulated to one uniform degree of heat. This, however, may be quite high at first, as there will be at that time but little danger of scorching the hops if the floor is sufficiently high. If the hops are rusty, or discolored from any other cause, it is usual to burn a little sulphur under them, which will bring them to a uniform appearance. This is done as soon as the hops are well warmed through, and feel somewhat moist. Great prejudice formerly existed against the use of sulphur in drying hops; but no objection is now made to it by the brewers, and it is generally thought that the use of it improves the appearance of all hops, and that it also facilitates the drying.

"During the drying process the fires should be kept up, and there should be a free supply of fresh air below, sufficient to keep up a regular succession of heated air from the kiln, passing through the hops and out at the ventilator, carrying with it the vapor expelled from the drying hops. This will be found far preferable to a still, dead heat. As soon as the upper part of the hops appears to have felt the fire, the lower part may be considered as nearly dry, and will rattle a little. The heap may then be turned. Before this is done the heat should be suffered to abate a little, and increased again after the turning is finished. I am aware that many do not turn their hops while drying, nor suffer them to be disturbed at all until they are ready to be removed from the floor. Still, the better opinion, I think, is in favor of turning as tending to facilitate the drying and render it more perfect by the more effectually exposing every portion of the mass to the action of the heated current of air, than would be case were they allowed to remain as first deposited on the floor, containing many inequalities in density even when the utmost care is exercised in their distribution. If turned at the right time, and in a careful manner, there need be no injury done to the hops. When sufficiently dried they should be allowed to cool off a little, if time can be afforded, otherwise there will be great danger that they will break in moving, or a portion of them shell off and waste. Ten or twelve hours are required to dry a kiln of hops. Two kilns may be dried in twenty-four hours

by keeping the heat up through the night. A twenty-foot kiln will thus dry 400 bushels in a day, as they come from the vines, making about 750 pounds of hops when dry.

"*Baling*.—The hops being dried, the next process is to bale them. This should not be done immediately after they are taken from the kiln, but they should be allowed to lie a few days in the store-room till they become a little softened, otherwise their extreme brittleness will cause them to be much broken in baling and the sample be thereby greatly injured. The bales should be of symmetrical and convenient form, and should contain about 200 pounds. They are formed in a box or bin prepared for the purpose, in the press-room, of such shape as will give the desired size and form. Across the bottom and sides of this box the baling cloth is first laid, and the hops are then let down into it from above, and trodden down as they are dropped in until it is filled. Another cloth is then carried over the top, a follower applied, and the screws of the press turned down upon it until the whole is brought into a compact mass. The box is then taken apart, the cloth neatly secured round the bale, the screws are run up, the bale taken out and the ends cased, when it may be considered finished, and the same process is repeated in forming another."

We have referred to the diseases and injuries to which the hop is liable. These are numerous, more so in England, perhaps, than in the United States, but the most destructive here are the *aphis* or hop-louse and the *mould*.

Dr. Harris, in his "*Insects Injurious to Vegetation*," thus describes the *aphis*, a genus which commit serious ravages on many of our deciduous plants and trees, but on none, perhaps, are more destructive than on the hop:

"The winged plant-lice provide for a succession of their race by stocking the plants with eggs in the autumn. These are hatched in the spring, and the young lice immediately begin to pump up the sap from the tender leaves and shoots, increase rapidly in size, and in a short time come to maturity. In this state it is found that the brood, without a single exception, consists wholly of *females* which are wingless, but are in a condition immediately to continue their kind. Their young, however, are not hatched from eggs, but are produced alive, and each female may be the mother of fifteen or twenty young lice in the course of a single day. The plant-lice of this second generation are also wingless females, which grow up and have their young in due time; and thus brood after brood is produced, even to the seventh generation or more, without the appearance or intermixture, throughout the whole season, of a single male. This extraordinary propagation ends in the autumn with the birth of a brood of males, which in due time acquire wings, and pair; eggs are then laid by the females, and with the death of these winged individuals, which soon follows, the race becomes extinct for the season."

The eggs of these insects are not destroyed by

cold or wet, and only multiply more rapidly in drought. Wet weather, long continued, does somewhat hinder their development, but exposes the plant to injury from mould. Morton, in his "*Cyclopædia of Agriculture*," thus describes the effect of their attacks upon the hop vine:

"When the first attack of these upon the hops is severe, and early in the season, the growth of the plant is commonly stopped in the course of three or four weeks. If the attack be late—that is, about midsummer, or afterwards—the bine has then attained so much strength that it struggles on against the blight to its disadvantage, and the result is a total failure of the crop at last; for the leaves fall off, and the fruit-branches being already formed, there is no chance of recovery. At this time and in this condition the stench from the hop plantation is most offensive. In an early blight, however, we may have many instances recorded of extraordinary recoveries; for these insects are remarkably susceptible of atmospherical and electrical changes, and on a sudden alteration of the weather we have known them perish by myriads in a night. The condition of a plant is never hopeless, however severe the attack may be, provided there is time for it to put forth its lateral or fructifying branches.

"Their multiplication is so rapid that the leaves become so thickly covered as scarcely to allow a pin to be thrust between them. They quickly abstract the juices of the bine, so that the leaves assume a sickly brown hue, and curl up, and the bine itself ceases to grow, and falls from the pole, the lice continuing till they perish for want of food; and thus, without the intervention of a favorable change, the crop is destroyed, and the grower may often consider himself fortunate if the plant recover a due amount of vitality to produce a crop in the following year.

"When atmospherical change occurs, the lice die off by thousands in a day. As they die they turn a brown color. The first indication of a favorable change is the clustering of the lice to the extremities of the bines and branches. This fact is well worthy of notice, since to all but close and accurate observers of the hop plant, the outward appearance is the reverse of a favorable change; for the small leaves and heads of the bines are densely covered with lice. But while the lice are thus gathering in countless myriads at the extremities, apparently threatening the utter destruction of the plant, the large leaves at the bottom of the bine and the leaves of the branches next the stem are becoming clean. At this *clustering* period the lice evidently cease to suck the juices of the plant; for the attentive observer will perceive the bine resuming its erect position, and recommencing its upward growth, though still covered with lice. At this crisis they usually disappear altogether in the course of a week or ten days, and then the plants should be liberally rewarded, if not lavishly stimulated, with manure,

there being no danger of over-manuring under such circumstances.

"The best manure to be employed in these cases is guano, at the rate of 450 to 900 pounds per acre. The ground should be continually stirred, but this stimulus should not be given until it is certain the lice are disappearing."

Injurious insects are much lessened in number by natural enemies. That which is most destructive of these lice is the lady-bug, or, as called in England, the lady-bird. Of these the work just quoted from says:

"They, in the first instance, destroy multitudes of lice, a single one killing eight or ten in as many minutes; and where the lice are not too numerous, the lady-birds will clean the hop plantations. But, generally, the lice have time to deposit some of their young on the under side of the leaves before their enemies attack them, especially if the weather be clouded, when the lady-birds are sluggish and inactive. The lice are seldom devoured at this time, but the lady-birds lay their eggs also on the under side of the leaves, usually in clusters of about twenty each. These eggs adhere to the leaves, are yellow in color, and of a long, oval shape; they are soon hatched, and the progeny which creeps forth is the 'black nigger' or 'serpent,' as they are called in the districts. They are ferocious-looking creatures, greatly resembling in shape, though not in size, the lizards of the olden time. As soon as they are hatched they commence the work of destruction upon the lice-eggs, which are their peculiar food, as the lice are of their parents, the lady-birds; and if the lice are not extremely numerous, they often succeed in clearing the plant of the vermin, otherwise they devour them until they are literally gorged with food, and then, attaching themselves to the leaves of the hop, after remaining dormant in the larva state, they cast off their outer cuticle, and are transformed into the perfect lady-birds, when they again pursue their good work of destroying the enemies of the hop—consuming about thirty lice daily."

We have described the depredations of the lice, and the good work of the lady-bugs, at some length, that the hop-grower might see the necessity of two things: 1, having the ground in the highest condition as to richness and tillage, that the plant may be enabled to overcome the attack of the lice; and 2, the very great importance of preserving the lady-bug, one of the most useful of the beneficial insects. The lice could be destroyed by syringing the vines with whale-oil-soapsuds, but this remedy is too tedious for hop cultivation.

2. *The mould.*—There are various diseases to which common parlance has given this name, but the one now described is the most fatal to the hop. These diseases, like the lice, are parasitic, that is, both exist upon the juices of the hop-plant, which, being deprived of them, are blighted. Hence the term *blight* does not designate the cause, but the result of the attack of the disease or insect. Morton's "Cyclopæ-

dia of Agriculture" thus speaks of the disease now under consideration:

"The mould is a disease rather than a blight. We believe it to be a parasitical vegetable fungus, usually generated in wet seasons and in damp situations. It is of all diseases the most dreaded by the hop-grower, inasmuch as there is no known remedy for it, and as it steadily progresses in its attack, with more or less rapidity, according to the character of the season, till the crop is gathered. It often originates from the negligence and inattention of the cultivator, and thus prevention is better than cure. It is intimately allied to, if it be not precisely the same, as the white mildew which we see in hawthorn hedges and on rose-bushes, especially if the latter grow in shady situations. When the mould appears to any considerable extent upon the hops so early as the end of June or beginning of July, however luxuriant the vine may then appear, there is no hope of a crop worth picking. Dampness and a want of a free circulation of air and light seem to be the predisposing cause of mould, and thus we often see it emanate from wild hops, which are carelessly allowed to grow in neighboring hedges. As soon as this violent disease appears, it spreads in every direction with astonishing rapidity, diminishing in intensity as the distance increases from the centre of mischief. It is first noticeable upon the upper side of the leaf as a white speck, not larger than a small pin's head, the spot increasing in size till it attains the diameter of about one-eighth of an inch; below this white spot, on the under side of the leaf, there is a corresponding indentation, which renders this incipient indication of mould unmistakable. From the spots on the surface of the leaf the seeds of this parasitical fungus, as we imagine it to be, are blown in all directions, and the minutest particle of this white dust when it settles on another leaf in a few days becomes a minute speck of mould. Each new spot then propagates the disease, and thus we perceive this vegetable pestilence advances with fearful rapidity of geometrical progression, and if the season be damp, acre after acre falls a victim to the attack, which often originates from sheer inattention."

Mould spreads fastest in warm, damp weather. It commences near the ground, and therefore great attention ought to be paid to the frequent pulling off of the suckers, as they sprout through the hill in the summer months. Every spotted leaf should be destroyed. And here we now see the necessity of making such selection of the site of the hop plantation as will secure a free access of air and sunlight, for dryness is a check to this disease.*

ALABAMA. At the commencement of the year 1865, the determination to prosecute the war with all the resources at command, had not been

* The meteorological returns for 1864 were not received in season to be used in this article, but will be given, with those for 1865, in the next volume.

weakened in the minds of the people of southern Alabama. Their views of the measures demanded at the time, to promote the success of their cause, were expressed in a series of resolutions adopted at a large and enthusiastic meeting assembled in the theatre at Mobile, on Feb. 19th. These resolutions declared an unalterable purpose to sustain the civil and military authorities in their efforts to achieve independence of the United States; that the battle-cry henceforth should be, "Victory or death;" that there was no middle ground between treachery and patriotism; that they still had an abiding confidence in their ability to achieve independence; that the government should immediately place one hundred thousand negroes in the field; that reconstruction was no longer an open question; that an order reinstating General Joseph E. Johnston in command of the Army of the Tennessee would effect more to restore confidence, increase the army, and secure the successful defence of the State, than any other order that could be issued from the war department.

Meanwhile the preparation of the Federal Government for an irresistible attack upon the important places yet remaining unoccupied in the State, were pushed forward. A combined military and naval expedition against Mobile was in progress at New Orleans, to be commanded by Maj.-Gen. Edward R. S. Canby and Rear-Admiral Henry K. Thatcher; and a cavalry expedition, under Maj.-Gen. J. H. Wilson, was ready to cooperate by a southern march from Eastport, Tennessee, the headquarters of Maj.-Gen. Thomas. As early as March 3d, the Governor of the State, T. H. Watts, appealed to the people by proclamation, to come forward voluntarily to the conflict, or the State could not be successfully defended against the impending dangers. The militia of the State, under an act of the Congress at Richmond, had been divided into two classes. The first class was composed of boys between sixteen and seventeen years of age, and men between fifty and sixty years. The second class consisted of those of intervening ages, and had, by the acts of Congress, been reduced to a very few, so that united with the Confederate troops they were insufficient for defence. The first class was estimated at thirty thousand in number, of whom about four thousand were boys; under the operation of the State laws this class could not, without their consent, be ordered beyond the limits of their respective counties. To them the Governor now made an appeal. He urged as motives for action, the rejection of all peace propositions by the authorities of the United States. He said: "We must either become the slaves of Yankee masters, degrading us to equality with the negroes, subjecting us and our children and our children's children to a slavery worse than Egyptian bondage, or we must, with the help of God and our own strong arms and brave hearts, establish our freedom and independence."

He also urged that a common fortune would

befall all alike, if they were overcome, saying: "It matters not now what were your opinions at the time Alabama seceded from the United States. We are all now placed on the same footing. All have, in some form, participated in the war. We have sent to the bloody field of battle our sons, our fathers, or our brothers; we have equipped them for the conflict; we have sustained them by our acts; we have encouraged them by all the powers of language, by our smiles and our tears, to fight for all that freemen prize or freemen hope. We have all taken part in electing to the presidency, to the governorship, to Congress, and to our State Legislatures, those who have sworn to support the Constitution and the cause of the Confederate States. In every form in which mankind can be bound in law and morals, we have all been, and are still, involved in maintaining the Confederate States as 'free, sovereign, and independent.' Our lives, our property, protection to our wives and children, our liberty and honor are staked on the result of the war. Common weal or common woe awaits us all. The fate of the traitor and the tory ever will be, as it ever has been, to deserve and receive the execration of the living and the curses of posterity."

The Federal military movements portended nothing less than the complete subjugation of the State. On the 20th of March Gen. Canby and Admiral Thatcher were below Mobile with an irresistible force, and on the same day the advance of General Wilson began, and the whole force was on the way from Chickasaw on the 22d. The success of these expeditions has been described elsewhere (*see* ARMY OPERATIONS), but the desolations of war which followed the footsteps of the cavalry, were thus subsequently related by the Provisional Governor Parsons, to an audience in New York city.

It will be in your recollection, ladies and gentlemen, that during the last of March and in April, the rebellion suddenly collapsed. At that time public attention in the North was doubtless turned mainly to the operations around Richmond, and to those which attended the movements of the vast armies of General Sherman. But it also happened that General Wilson, with a large force of cavalry, some seventeen thousand, I believe, in number, commenced a movement from the Tennessee River and a point in the northwest of the State of Alabama, diagonally across the State. He penetrated to the centre, and then radiated from Selma in every direction, through one of the most productive regions of the South.

That little city of about ten thousand inhabitants—its defences were carried by assault on one of the first Sunday evenings in last April, sun about an hour high. Before another sun rose, every house in the city was sacked, except two; every woman was robbed of her watch, her ear-rings, her finger-rings, her jewelry of all descriptions, and the whole city given up for the time to the possession of the soldiers. It was a severe discipline to this people. It was thought necessary by the commanding General to subdue the spirit of the rebellion.

For one week the forces under General Wilson occupied the little town, and night after night, and day after day, one public building after another—first the arsenal, then the foundry, each of which covered eight or nine acres of ground, and was con-

ducted upon a scale commensurate with the demand that the military supplies for the war created—rail-road depots, machine shops connected with them—every thing of that description which had been in any degree subservient to the cause of the rebellion, was laid in ashes. Out of some sixty odd brick stores in the city, forty-nine, I think, were consumed. On the line of march, you were scarcely out of sight of some indication of its terrible consequences.

Indeed, after three weeks had elapsed, it was with difficulty you could travel the road from Plantersville to that city, so offensive was the atmosphere in consequence of decaying horses and mules that lay along the roadside. Every description of ruin, except the interred dead of the human family, met the eye. I witnessed it myself. The fact is, that no description can equal the reality. When the Federal forces left the little town—which is built on a bluff on the Alabama River—they crossed at night on a pontoon bridge, and their way was lighted by burning warehouses standing on the shore.

The expedition of Gen. Wilson which terminated in the interior of Georgia, was in many respects a most remarkable one. Consisting entirely of cavalry, it captured during its progress no less than six strongly fortified towns. The surrender of the armies of Lee and Johnston was followed by that of Gen. Taylor, by which all opposition to the Federal forces ceased, and the State became entirely subject to their military control. The war suddenly ended, the authority of the United States was again recognized, and a restoration to their position of citizens became the object of the people.

On May 29th the proclamation of President Johnston was issued, granting amnesty and pardon to all citizens of the Southern States who had been engaged in the rebellion, with certain exceptions. This amnesty and pardon was accompanied with the restoration of all rights of property except as to slaves, and in cases where loyal proceedings for confiscation had been commenced, but on the condition of taking an amnesty oath. (*See UNITED STATES.*) This measure restored a large mass of the people to peaceful citizenship in the United States. None of the political institutions of Alabama were recognized as existing until they had been changed to suit the views of the conquerors. To accomplish this object a person was selected in each Southern State, and authorized by the President to set on foot a series of measures which should result in a reconstructed State Government. On June 21st, the President issued his proclamation appointing Lewis E. Parsons a Provisional Governor for the State of Alabama, and recognizing a portion of the previous institutions of the State. The authority by which this appointment was made and the plan of proceedings were thus stated in the Proclamation:

Whereas, The fourth section of the fourth article of the Constitution of the United States declares that the United States shall guarantee to every State in the Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion and domestic violence; *and, whereas*, the President of the United States is, by the Constitution, made Commander-in-chief of the army and navy, as well as chief civil executive officer of the United States, and

is bound by solemn oath faithfully to execute the office of President of the United States, and to take care that the laws be faithfully executed; *and, whereas*, the rebellion which has been waged by a portion of the people of the United States against the properly constituted authorities of the Government thereof in the most violent and revolting form, but whose organized and armed forces have now been almost entirely overcome, has, in its revolutionary progress, deprived the people of the State of Alabama of all civil government; *and, whereas*, it becomes necessary and proper to carry out and enforce the obligations of the United States to the people of Alabama in securing them in the enjoyment of a republican form of government:

Now, therefore, in obedience to the high and solemn duties imposed upon me by the Constitution of the United States, and for the purpose of enabling the loyal people of said State to organize a State government, whereby justice may be established, domestic tranquillity restored, and loyal citizens protected in all their rights of life, liberty, and property, I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States and Commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, do hereby appoint Lewis E. Parsons, of Alabama, Provisional Governor of the State of Alabama, whose duty it shall be, at the earliest practicable period, to prescribe such rules and regulations as may be necessary and proper for convening a convention composed of delegates to be chosen by that portion of the people of said State who are loyal to the United States, and no others, for the purpose of altering and amending the Constitution thereof; and with authority to exercise within the limits of said State, all the powers necessary and proper to enable such loyal people of the State of Alabama to restore said State to its constitutional relations to the Federal Government, and to present such a republican form of State government as will entitle the State to the guarantee of the United States therefor, and its people to protection by the United States against invasion, insurrection, and domestic violence. Provided, that in any election that may be held hereafter for choosing delegates to any State Convention, as aforesaid, no person shall be qualified as an elector or shall be eligible as a member of such convention, unless he shall have previously taken and subscribed the oath of amnesty, as set forth in the President's proclamation of May 29, A. D. 1865, and is a voter qualified as prescribed by the Constitution and laws of the State of Alabama, in force immediately before the 11th of January, A. D. 1861, the date of the so-called ordinance of secession. And the said convention, when convened, or the legislature that may be thereafter assembled, will prescribe the qualification of electors and the eligibility of persons to hold office under the Constitution and laws of the State—a power the people of the several States composing the Federal Union have rightfully exercised from the origin of the Government to the present time. And I do hereby direct:

First. That the military commander of the department, and all officers and persons in the military and naval service, aid and assist the said Provisional Government in carrying into effect this proclamation; and they are enjoined to abstain from in any way hindering, impeding, or discouraging loyal people from the organization of a State Government as herein authorized.

Second. That the Secretary of State proceed to put in force all laws of the United States, the administration whereof belongs to the State department, applicable to the geographical limits aforesaid.

Third. That the Secretary of the Treasury proceed to nominate for appointment assessors of taxes and collectors of customs and of internal revenue, and such other officers of the Treasury Department as are authorized by law, and put in execution the revenue laws of the United States within the geographical limits aforesaid. In making appointments the pref-

erence shall be given to qualified loyal persons residing within the districts where their respective duties are to be performed. But if suitable residents of districts shall not be found, then persons residing in other States or districts shall be appointed.

Fourth. That the Postmaster-General proceed to establish post-offices and post-routes, and put into execution the postal laws of the United States within said State, giving to loyal residents the preference of appointment; but, if suitable residents are not found, then to appoint agents, etc., from other States.

Fifth. That the district judge for the judicial district in which Alabama is included, proceed to hold courts within said State, in accordance with the provisions of the act of Congress, and the Attorney-General will instruct the proper officers to libel and bring to judgment, confiscation, and sale property subject to confiscation, and enforce the administration of justice within said State in all matters within the cognizance and jurisdiction of the Federal courts.

Sixth. That the Secretary of the Navy take possession of all public property belonging to the Navy Department within said geographical limits, and put in operation all acts of Congress in relation to naval affairs having application to said State.

Seventh. That the Secretary of the Interior put in force the laws relating to the Interior Department applicable to the geographical limits aforesaid.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the Seal of the United States to be affixed. Done at the city of Washington, this 21st day of June, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five, and of the independence of the United States the eighty-ninth.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President :

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, Secretary of State.

The Governor thus appointed immediately entered upon his duties. After an investigation of the condition and views of the people, he issued a proclamation stating the plan of proceedings for the reorganization of the State. He described the condition of the State before the war, its population, wealth, and improvements, and said :

"In the prosecution of the war, for the last four years, into which Alabama was precipitated, about 122,000 of her sons have been carried to the field of battle, 85,000 of whom will never return; and it is probable an equal or larger number are permanently injured by wounds or disease while in the service. A very large proportion of our material wealth has been exhausted. Our fields are laid waste, our towns and cities, our railroads and bridges, our schools and colleges, many of our private dwellings and public edifices are in ruins. Silence and desolation reign where once stood the comfortable home which resounded with the joyous laugh of childhood and innocence.

"The State has contracted a large war debt during this period, and has on hand as near as can now be ascertained about \$—— in Confederate Treasury notes, which are utterly worthless, and about \$—— in good funds.

"Untold sufferings have been, and are still endured by thousands of our women and children, and the aged and helpless of our land.

"There is no longer a slave in Alabama. It is thus made manifest to the world that the right of secession for the purpose of establishing

a separate Confederacy, based on the idea of African slavery, has been fully and effectually tried, and is a failure.

"Yet, amid all the ruin, suffering, and death which have resulted from it, every political right which the State possessed under the Federal Constitution is hers to-day, with the single exception relating to slavery."

He then urged the importance of sustaining the measures proposed by President Johnson, and ordained the following regulations for that purpose :

Now, for the purpose of carrying into execution the commands of the President, and to enable the loyal people of Alabama to secure to themselves the benefits of civil government, I do hereby declare and ordain :

1. That the Justices of the Peace and Constables in each county of this State, the members of the Commissioners Court (except the Judges of Probate), the County Treasurer, the Tax Collector and Assessor, the Coroner and the several municipal officers of each incorporated city or town in this State, who were respectively in office and ready to discharge the duties thereof, on the 22d of May, 1865, are hereby appointed to fill those offices during the continuance of this provisional government. And as it is necessary that the persons who fill these several offices should be loyal to the United States, the power is hereby reserved to remove any person for disloyalty or for improper conduct in office, or neglect of its duties; and I earnestly request all loyal citizens to give me prompt information in regard to any officer who is objectionable on any of these grounds.

The Judges of Probate and Sheriffs, who were in office on the 22d of May, 1865, will take the oath as herein required of other officers, and continue to discharge the duties of their respective offices until others are appointed.

2. Each of these persons thus appointed to office must take and subscribe the oath of Amnesty, as prescribed by the President's proclamation, of the 29th day of May, 1865, and immediately transmit the same to this office. At the end of said oath, and after the word "slave," he must add these words, "and I will faithfully discharge the duties of my office to the best of my ability." Each of these officers must also give bond and security payable to the State of Alabama, as required by the laws of Alabama on the 11th day of January, 1861. If any person acts in the discharge of the duties of any of the aforesaid offices without having complied with the foregoing regulations on his part, he will be punished. This oath of amnesty and of office may be taken before any commissioned officer in the civil, military, or naval service of the United States; and the Judge of Probate in each county in this State, on the 22d of May, 1865, may also administer it, unless another Judge of Probate shall have been appointed by me in the mean time, and approve and file the bond which is hereby required to be given. But no one can hold any of these offices who is exempted by the proclamation of the President from the benefit of amnesty, unless he has been specially pardoned.

3. The appointment of Judge of Probate and Sheriff in each county will be made specially, as soon as suitable persons are properly recommended, and when appointed they will take the oath of amnesty prescribed in the foregoing section, and give bond and security as required by the law of Alabama on the 11th of January, 1861. And vacancies in any of the county offices will be promptly filled when it is made known and a proper person recommended.

4. If the loyal citizens of the State find it necessary to have other officers appointed, viz. : Clerks of the Circuit Courts, Solicitors, Judges of the Circuit Courts, Chancellors and Judges of the Supreme

Court, when that necessity is satisfactorily established, the appointments will be made.

5. An election for delegates to a convention of the loyal citizens of Alabama, will be held in each county in the State on Monday, the 31st day of August next, in the manner provided by the laws of Alabama on the 11th day of January, 1861; but no person can vote in said election, or be a candidate for election, who is not a legal voter as the law was on that day; and if he is excepted from the benefit of amnesty, under the President's Proclamation of the 29th of May, 1865, he must have obtained a pardon.

6. Every person must vote in the county of his residence, and before he is allowed to do so, must take and subscribe the oath of amnesty prescribed in the President's Proclamation of the 29th of May, 1865, before some one of the officers hereinafter appointed for that purpose in the county where he offers to vote; and any person offering to vote in violation of these rules or the laws of Alabama on the 11th of January, 1861, will be punished.

7. There will be elected in each county of the State, on said day, as many delegates to said Convention as said county was entitled to representatives in the House of Representatives on the 11th day of January, 1861; and the delegates so elected will receive a certificate of election from the sheriff of the county, and will assemble in Convention at the Capitol in Montgomery, on the 10th day of September, 1865, at 12 M.

8. From and after this day, the civil and criminal laws of Alabama, as they stood on the 11th day of January, 1861, except that portion which relates to slaves, are hereby declared to be in full force and operation; and all proceedings for the punishment of offences against them, will be turned over to the proper civil officers, together with the custody of the person charged, and the civil authorities will proceed in all cases according to law. Suits in civil cases now pending, whether an original measure, or final process, before any officer acting under military authority, will also be turned over to the proper civil officer, and will be governed in all things by the laws of the State aforesaid.

9. All unlawful means to punish offenders are hereby strictly prohibited. No "vigilance committee" or other organization, for the punishment of supposed offenders, not authorized by the laws of the State, will be permitted, and if any such are attempted, the person or persons so offending, will be promptly arrested and punished. The lovers of law and order throughout the State are appealed to and solemnly urged to aid, by all lawful means, in sustaining the cause of law and order. If the people of the State will do this willingly and promptly, we shall be able to restore peace and security to every home in our beloved State; but if offenders become too strong, the military power of the United States will aid us. Henceforth that power will act in aid of, and in subordination to the civil authority of the State.

10. The oath which is required to be taken by those who desire to vote for Delegates to the Convention, may be administered by the Judge of Probate of the county where the voter lives, or by any Justice of the Peace in said county and by officers specially thereunto appointed. Blanks will be furnished these officers by the Judge of Probate, to whom they will be sent on application, where they cannot be printed. One copy of said oath will be given to the voter and another will be kept by the officer before whom it is taken, which must be filed with the Judge of Probate and endorsed by the Judge of Probate, with affiant's name, and numbered from one up, and preserved by him as a part of the records of his office. The Judge of Probate must make out a certified list of names numbered to correspond with the affidavit, and transmit it to this office by some one of the Delegates to the Convention. It is important the lists should all be here on the 10th day of September next, when the Convention meets.

The several officers will also transmit their accounts for these services at the same time, and if the list of voters, made in a proper manner, accompanies them, the accounts will be promptly laid before the Convention for adjustment.

11. There are no slaves now in Alabama. The slave code is a dead letter. They who were once slaves are now free, and must be governed by the laws of Alabama as free men. It is the dictate of wisdom, and we owe it to ourselves and them, to produce the best possible results for both races, from the new order of things.

12. All good citizens are respectfully and earnestly urged to set the example of engaging cheerfully, hopefully, and energetically, in the prosecution of industrial pursuits. In so doing, they will exert a good influence upon those who are despondent and cast down by the calamities which have befallen us.

13. The idle, the evil-disposed, and the vicious, if any such there be within the limits of our State, must distinctly understand that all violations of law will be promptly punished. The Sheriffs of the several counties are hereby required to keep in readiness a sufficient force of deputies or assistants to enable them to execute all legal process and arrest all offenders promptly, and they will be held strictly accountable for any neglect of duty in this respect. Rights of person and property must be respected—law and order must be preserved. If seriously impeded in the execution of these orders, Sheriffs will immediately report to me, that prompt and effectual measures may be taken to repress violence and assert the supremacy of the laws.

Done at Montgomery, Alabama, on the 20th day of July, A. D., 1865. LEWIS E. PARSONS,

Provisional Governor of Alabama.

This proclamation renewed the powers of the persons holding the township offices in the State; called a State Constitutional Convention to assemble on September 10th, and reordained the civil and criminal laws, except those relating to slaves as they existed previous to the adoption of the Secession Ordinance of 1861, and prescribed other incidental regulations.

These measures were well received by the people of the State, and a disposition was promptly and generally manifested to cooperate with the Provisional Governor. Candidates for members of the Convention were soon nominated, and in a quiet and orderly manner elected on the appointed day. The vote given was large, but many who were qualified electors did not act.

The Convention duly assembled at Montgomery on September 10, and after the roll was called Provisional Governor Parsons administered the oath to support the Constitution of the United States and the union thereof, and to support all proclamations relative to the emancipation of slaves. He then declared the Convention authorized to make a permanent organization. This was done by the election of ex-Governor Benjamin Fitzpatrick unanimously as chairman, and W. H. Ogbourne as secretary. A resolution was then adopted that a committee of one member from each judicial district should be appointed by the President to report such amendments to the Constitution as might restore the State to her proper relations with the Federal Government; and also a similar committee to report relative to the act of secession, and further relative to the manner

in which certain acts adopted during the war might be ratified without infringing upon the Constitution of the United States. Other committees were appointed relative to the State debt, &c.

On the 19th the Convention passed an ordinance providing for an election on the first Monday of November, of a Governor, members of the Legislature, and all county officers except Judges of Probate, and for an election of municipal officers in the cities of Mobile and Montgomery on subsequent days. It also authorized and requested the Provisional Governor to issue writs of election for members of Congress, and further provided that the General Assembly so elected should meet at the capital on the third Monday of November. An interesting debate arose on this ordinance relative to the power of the Convention to fix the time of electing members of Congress. The Constitution of the United States requires the Senators to be elected by the Legislature of a State. The day of election for members of the House is also to be fixed by the Legislature and not by a Convention. Three opinions prevailed in the Convention; one, that the Convention was a legislative body within the meaning of the Constitution, and authorized to act as a Legislature in this instance; another, that only the Legislature, *i. e.*, the General Assembly, could appoint the time, and a third opinion that the office of Representative being vacant, the Governor, under the code of Alabama, should order a special election.

The question was one of importance, and was strongly debated, because it was apparent that there was hardly sufficient time to obtain a Legislature to fix the time and get the representatives elected and in Washington on the day of the meeting in Congress, the first Monday in December.

It was finally disposed of by authorizing and requesting the Governor to issue writs as above stated.

In relation to the institution of slavery, a majority of the committee to whom the subject was referred, reported the following ordinance:

Be it ordained by the people of the State of Alabama, in Convention assembled, That as the institution of slavery has been destroyed in the State of Alabama, hereafter there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in this State, otherwise than for the punishment of crime, whereof the party shall be duly convicted.

And be it further ordained, That the Constitution be amended by striking out all provisions in relation to slaves and slavery.

And be it further ordained, That it shall be the duty of the Legislature, at its next session, to pass such laws as will protect the freedmen of this State in the full enjoyment of all their rights of person and property, and guard them and the State against any evils that may arise from their sudden emancipation.

To this ordinance a substitute was reported by the minority of the committee, consisting of an ordinance in favor of supporting the President's proclamation and the laws of Congress

abolishing slavery until they were declared void by the Supreme Court of the United States. The debate which ensued is thus summarily reported:

Mr. Coleman, of Choctaw County, contended that on our action depended the right of the property of the people. The proclamation of the President and the act of Congress had destroyed slavery, but to make it complete required our ratification, and, before doing so, the validity and constitutionality of the proclamation and act of Congress should be tested before the Supreme Court of the United States. He recognized the right of the United States to pass laws for the punishment of crime, but as a State could not commit treason—the commission of that offence being confined to individuals, who were alone responsible—and they could not be deprived of their property except on trial and conviction, those who had not been guilty of treason, could not be deprived of their property, although in slaves. Congress had no right to seize the property of an offender, after death, when it should revert to his heirs. He believed that the acts of some men in their haste to get back into the Union, would cause us to lose the respect of the conservative men of the North. To admit the right of the Federal head by proclamation to nullify the Constitution of a State, was to concede the loss of a republic and the sovereignty of the States. The present course proposed by the majority report was one of expediency, and he was not prepared to sacrifice rights, honor, and property to it, although there was a great anxiety to get members elected to Congress. He denied that the President's Proclamation demanded of the State the abolition of slavery as a test of loyalty, although the bayonet had done its work; that a State could not forfeit its rights, but citizens might. This was the loyal State of Alabama, and must be so regarded, yet were it not through force no member would vote to abolish slavery. We had no guarantee that the sacrifice would be accepted or that our members of Congress would be admitted; nothing would satisfy the Radicals of the North. He contended that on this great principle of State rights the North was as deeply interested as the South, and that the precedent of yielding as proposed by the majority report was too dangerous. We should accept the freeing of the slaves by the act of the Federal Executive and the bayonet, and it was not the free and voluntary act of the people of Alabama. He believed that when the country returned to its reason, those who had lost their property and who had not participated in the rebellion, would be compensated, but the ordinance proposed put an estoppel on all reclamations.

Judge Foster, of Calhoun County, replied as follows: The war had settled two questions forever, one that of secession, the other of slavery. They had been settled by a power whose decision was binding and final, and from which there was no appeal—the power of the sword. Disputes between individuals could be settled by events, but they have no power to adjust differences between States and nations. They must be adjusted by compromise and negotiation or submitted to the arbitrament of the sword. The decisions of the Supreme Court were not respected or obeyed even by political parties. In *McEndrick's* case the court decided the United States Bank to be constitutional, yet the United States Bank was destroyed mainly on the ground of its unconstitutionality. The decision had no power to preserve the Constitution. So in the *Dred Scott* case, the decision gave the South all they claimed on the slavery question. It had no practical effect, only to exasperate the Republican party. The State of Georgia, at an earlier period, set at defiance the mandate of the Supreme Court.

The substitute offered by Mr. White proposed to await the action of the Supreme Court. It was immaterial what that action was, so far as it secured us

any practical benefit. If we went no further than this substitute proposed, the convention have assembled prematurely, and we ought to adjourn.

The first ordinance reported by the committee asserted a fact, apparent to every one, that the institution of slavery had been destroyed, not deciding when or how, whether constitutionally or unconstitutionally. Gentlemen could select their own ground. First, the act of Congress and the President's Proclamation; second, by the military power of the Government of the United States—the occupation of our country by armed soldiers—the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau, and the practical severing of the tie between master and slave. The ordinance also asserted the proposition that we would not revive slavery. This was an impossibility. The Government of the United States in every department was unalterably determined that slavery should no longer exist. The edict had gone forth, and we were powerless to resist it. We were a subjugated people, and our conquerors could dictate their own terms. We could not resist the power of the Government. The overpowering force of public opinion at the North, backed by a million of bayonets, and the universal sentiments of the civilized world, were against us. We had tried this in the way of our strength and failed.

We could not reduce the negroes to slavery if the United States would withdraw their forces and stand aloof. We were exhausted, and the attempt would lead to a reenactment of the bloody scenes of St. Domingo. The Assembly of France abolished slavery in that island—no insurrection followed. Afterwards the Assembly repealed the law, the planters attempted to subject the negro again to slavery, and then the insurrection broke out in all its force. Such would be the case now, and after scenes of horror, and carnage, and blood, one race or the other would be exterminated and Alabama a desert.

The country needed repose. The people had made up their minds that slavery was gone, and were accommodating themselves to the new order of things. It was wrong to awaken delusive hopes that could never be satisfied. Our wisest course was in good faith to accept the situation and restore our relations with the Federal Union—reorganize our State Government, that law and order might again prevail in the land. By industry and energy our national prosperity may be restored, our fields ripen again with the richest harvest, commerce and manufactures revive; our cities rebuilt and schools crowded with scholars; peace, and order, and happiness over our land, and Alabama again become a great State in this great nation.

The substitute was rejected by a vote of yeas 66; nays 17. The ordinance reported by the majority of the committee was then adopted, yeas 89; nays 8.

On September 22d the Convention adopted the following ordinance relative to the acts of the State Legislature during the war:

AN ORDINANCE ratifying certain laws of the State passed since the 11th day of January, 1861.

Be it ordained by the people of the State of Alabama, in Convention assembled, That all the laws enacted by any Legislature since the 11th of January, 1861, that have not since been repealed, and which are not in conflict with the Constitution of the United States and laws made in pursuance thereof, or of the Constitution of this State, be and the same are hereby ratified, and declared to be valid from their respective dates; and shall remain in full force and effect until repealed according to law: except, however, all such laws as authorized the issue of Bonds, Treasury Notes, and Change Bills by the State; and all laws which authorized the payment of all debts to the State, for moneys loaned to individuals or corporations in Confederate money or bonds, and

the payment of dues and taxes to the State in Confederate Bonds and State Treasury Notes, and all laws in relation to taxation.

Be it further ordained, That in computing the time necessary to create the bar of the statutes of limitations and non-claims, the time elapsing between the 11th day of January, 1861, and the passage of this ordinance, shall not be estimated.

This ordinance excepts from ratification all laws authorizing the creation of any debt by bond, or treasury note, or change bills, or authorizing payment to be made to the State of taxes and other dues in Confederate or State Treasury notes or change bills passed since January 11th, 1861.

During its consideration a motion was made to except from such ratification all laws authorizing executors, guardians, and trustees to make sale of property, and receive Confederate notes or other currency issued during the war for the same, and all laws authorizing persons acting in such fiduciary capacity to invest funds in Confederate or State securities. The ground taken was that the estate of the orphan had been lost by such investments, and that the guardian or executor should not have invested the estate in such uncertain and doubtful security, and one dependent not only upon success in the war, but upon the popular will to pay so large a debt, even if successful, and because it enabled the guardian or other trustee to retain the funds for speculative purposes while money was good, and at last to invest in these securities when they had become of little value. The answer was that the guardian, executor, or trustee, was invited or encouraged to make such investment by the State law, under which he held his appointment; that the whole property of the country and every thing it contained was dependent upon the successful maintenance of the struggle; that there was often a necessity to sell such property in order to support those who were dependent upon it for means to live upon, having often no other resource; that, besides, to disturb the laws on that subject would be to ruin many persons who had acted fairly and in good faith, and that in many cases innocent persons who were security for such trustees, executors, or guardians would be impoverished by it, and in order to protect one set of persons another class must be injured. The latter argument prevailed, and those laws were not excepted from the general ratification.

A still more earnest discussion arose upon an amendment to except from the ratification laws authorizing payment to be made to the State in the currency existing during the war, of loans made by the State to corporations and individuals prior to the war. The object of this was to invalidate a payment of \$225,000 due to the State from the Alabama and Tennessee River Railroad Company, for money loaned to them out of funds in the possession of the State for purposes of internal improvement, and of which the State was trustee for such purposes. This loan was made in specie funds before the war, and the debt is not yet due, but in 1864 the Com-

pany by some arrangement between it and the then Governor paid the debt in Confederate notes.

As the State was only a trustee as to this fund and bound to act in good faith, and as the debt was paid in currency nearly worthless at the time and before the debt was, in fact, due, it was considered inequitable and unjust to ratify it, and the amendment was adopted.

There was also a discussion on the general policy as affecting the whole ordinance. It was shown to be necessary in order to prevent a flood of litigation, uncertainty as to rights and property, and consequent derangement and trouble in every department of business.

On the same day the Provisional Governor, in answer to a request of the Convention, sent in a message, calling their attention to the importance of making some provision for the payment of the interest due on the State debt; also for the support of the destitute poor, etc. He stated, that when the war closed the State was furnishing meal and salt to 88,772, the individual members of which numbered in the aggregate 189,042. Forty thousand rations had been given by the Federal Government for the inhabitants of Cherokee County alone.

The condition of the State finances on Sept. 1st, he thus reported :

Balance in the Treasury 30th September, 1864.	\$3,713,950 71
Receipts from 20th Sept., 1864, to 24th May, 1865 (including \$964, 760 93 transferred from Military Department).....	8,776,188 57
	<hr/>
	7,490,148 28
	6,698,358 78
Disbursements to 24th May, 1865.....	<hr/>
	791,294 50
Balance in the Treasury, 24th May, 1865.	
This balance is in the following described funds, to wit:	
Check on Bank of Mobile, payable in Confederate Treasury Notes.....	11,440 00
Certificate of Deposit, same Bank, payable in Confederate Notes.....	1,830 00
Confederate and State Treasury Notes in Treasury.....	517,890 60
State Treasury Note Change Bills.....	239,004 05
Notes of State Bank and Branches.....	353 00
Bank Notes.....	424 00
Silver.....	387 45
Gold on hand.....	\$497 84
On deposit in Northern Bank.....	582 89
	<hr/>
	\$791,345 89
Excess in Confederate Treasury Notes.....	20 89
	<hr/>
	\$791,294 00
PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT.	
Receipts from 20th of July to date.....	\$1,766 00
Disbursements to date..	\$1,512 86
	<hr/>
Balance in Treasury of Prov. Government...	253 14

The committee to whom was referred the ordinance of secession, to consider what action was necessary for its abrogation, made a majority and minority report, as follows:

An ORDINANCE to be entitled an ordinance declaring the Ordinance of Secession null and void.

Be it ordained by the people of the State of Alabama, in Convention assembled, That an ordinance adopted by a former Convention of the State of Alabama, of the 11th day of January, A. D. 1861, entitled "An ordinance to dissolve the Union between the State of Alabama and other States united under the compact styled the Constitution of the United

States of America," be and the same is hereby declared null and void.

The minority made the following report :

The minority of the second special committee to whom were referred sundry ordinances and resolutions declaring the so-called ordinance of secession null and void, not being able to agree with the majority, respectfully report the following ordinance, viz.:

Be it ordained by the people of the State of Alabama, in Convention assembled, That the so-called ordinance passed by a former Convention of the people of Alabama on the 11th day of January, 1861, entitled "An ordinance to dissolve the Union between the State of Alabama and other States united under the compact styled the Constitution of the United States of America," was unauthorized, and is hereby declared to have been and is null and void; and ask that the same may be adopted in lieu of the ordinance reported by the majority.

The report of the majority was, that the ordinance of secession should be declared "null and void." That of the minority was, that the ordinance of secession was "unauthorized, and is hereby declared to have been and is null and void."

The 25th was devoted to the consideration of the reports.

Mr. Clarke, of Lawrence County, urged that the Convention of 1861 represented only a minority of the people as shown by the popular vote in the election of delegates; that a majority of several thousand voted for the Union and for coöperation; that the Convention refused to submit the question to the people, by whom it would have been voted down; and, therefore, that the people were misrepresented, and that the ordinance of secession was not authorized by them.

He further contended that the report of the majority of the committee left the question of the right of secession without final disposition. That report admitted only that the ordinance of secession was now void, but not that it was unconstitutional and void from the beginning; that if the majority so intended by their report, then they should so state it, fully and fairly, as it is stated in the minority report.

In favor of the majority report, the general scope of the argument was, that there was no real difference between the two reports other than in the use of the term "unauthorized" by the minority of the committee. The majority declare the ordinance of secession null and void; this satisfied the most ultra Union men in Mississippi and was understood to be satisfactory at Washington; it can mean nothing less than that the ordinance was and is void from the beginning. The words null and void mean of no effect, empty, having no force or validity. If a deed is pronounced null and void, it is the same as to declare that it never had any legal validity, and no rights accrued or duties were imposed by or under it.

In reference to the authority of the Convention, it was shown that as early as the session of the Legislature of 1859-'60 joint resolutions were adopted requiring the Governor, in the

event of the success of the Republican party in the fall of 1860, to appoint a day for election of delegates to a Convention, which body it was provided, should "consider, determine, and do what the interest, honor, and dignity of the State should require." It was shown that the Convention met under the most regular sanction of law, and were unrestricted in the power conferred: the people voted with the understanding that the Convention might and probably would determine on secession at once as the proper remedy; and the authority conferred under the question submitted to the people in its resolution by the Legislature was ample to do what a Convention as a body should determine to be wise and expedient.

The term "unauthorized" was further objected to as implying, first, that the wrongs of the South were not such as to warrant the action of the Convention, whereas that question was submitted distinctly to that Convention; and secondly, that it seemed to deny the right of the people to secede as a revolutionary right—a right inalienable, and that belongs to all people, everywhere, and often the only remedy of those who deem themselves oppressed, a right vindicated by our ancestors in the revolution of 1776. It was said the term might imply an assent to the doctrine of passive obedience, which held no place in this country, and had no sympathy in the Convention. That word was further objected to as implying a usurpation of power by the Convention of 1861, and those who supported the action of that body. It was said, "we thereby impliedly should leave the memory of our dead, who died for their country, or as they deemed for their country, to be branded as traitors and rebels, and turn over the living survivors, so far as we are concerned, to the gibbet."

The minority report was rejected by a vote of 69 to 21. After this a variety of amendments were offered, and much spirited discussion ensued upon the majority report. The amendments were, one after another, voted down, and the majority report finally adopted unanimously.

The following ordinance was also adopted on the same day:

AN ORDINANCE, to be entitled, "An Ordinance declaring null and void certain ordinances and proceedings of a Convention of the State of Alabama, adopted in January and March, A. D. 1861."

Be it ordained by the people of the State of Alabama, in Convention assembled, That all ordinances, resolutions, and other proceedings of a Convention of the people of the State of Alabama, begun and held on the 7th of January, 1861, and on the 4th of March, 1861, together with so much of the Constitution adopted by said Convention for the State of Alabama as conflicts with the Constitution of the United States, are hereby null and void.

An ordinance was also passed authorizing the Provisional Governor to act until a successor had been duly elected by the people and installed.

The following ordinance relative to the State

debt contracted during the war was adopted—
yeas, 60; nays, 19:

AN ORDINANCE declaring the War Debt void, and for other purposes.

Be it ordained, etc., That all debts created by the State of Alabama in aid of the late war, directly or indirectly, are hereby declared void, and the General Assembly of the State shall have no authority, and are hereby forbidden to ratify the same, or to assume, or to provide for the payment of the same or any part thereof.

And be it further ordained, That the General Assembly of the State shall have no authority, and they are hereby forbidden to assume, or make any provision, for the payment of any portion of the debt contracted or incurred, directly or indirectly, by the Confederate States or by its agents, or by its authority.

Ordinances were passed declaring void the laws of the State forbidding free colored mariners to leave their ship on arriving within the State; requiring judicial officers to act as agents of the Freedmen's Bureau as to negro cases; legalizing former marriages of freedmen where they live together, making the children legitimate, and requiring the father to support the family; requiring a license to marry; authorizing county commissioners to make provision for indigent, infirm, and helpless freedmen; also an ordinance confirming decrees in courts of record during the war, and judicial sales; and confirming private contracts, but allowing parole proof as to the real value of the consideration; authorizing executors and administrators to compromise for property sold upon the real value, etc. The entire Constitution of the State was revised and amended by the Convention, and many important ordinances of a local nature adopted. The Governor was also requested to reorganize and call out one or more companies of militia to repress disorder and preserve the public peace.

On September 30th the Convention adjourned. The submission of their proceedings to a vote of the people was refused in consequence of the delay such an election would cause. The number of persons who had taken the registration oath previous to September 22d, was 65,825.

The election for Governor, Members of Congress, and the State Legislature, took place immediately. For Governor, Robert M. Patton was elected. The vote was as follows: Patton, 21,422; M. J. Bulger, 15,234; W. R. Smith, 8,194. Total, 44,850. The total vote of the State at the Presidential election in 1860 was 89,572.

The Legislature assembled on November 20th, and was organized by the choice of Walter H. Crenshaw President of the Senate, and T. B. Cooper Speaker of the House. A message from the Provisional Governor was delivered on the 23d. He called the attention of the members to the Constitutional amendment proposed by the Congress of the United States, and to their duty respecting the freedmen, as prescribed in the State Constitution adopted by the Convention, in these words: "To pass such laws as will protect the freedmen of this

State in the full enjoyment of all their rights of person and property, and to guard them and the State against any evil that may arise from their sudden emancipation."

Respecting the proceedings of the Convention he said :

Recognizing the fact that slavery and the right of secession had been destroyed by the result of the war, without consuming precious time in useless regrets, or worse than useless criminations, they declared the one forever prohibited, except as a punishment for crime, and quietly yielded the other, notwithstanding one-half of the entire property of the State was invested in the former, and many of them had been educated in the belief that "State Rights" included the latter.

Let us indulge the hope that the wisdom of their action may be more and more apparent as each successive year rolls round, and that our children's children for many generations to come will sit in this pleasant land of ours beneath their own roof trees, around their own firesides, in the midst of unnumbered blessings, and call them blessed who had the wisdom and firmness under such trying circumstances, while surrounded by the ruin which attends, and the exhaustion which follows four years of fierce and relentless war, to lay anew the foundations of government, and upon the broadest principles of liberty to all consistent with public good.

He stated that the corn and small grain crops throughout the State were not more than one-fifth of the usual amount, and that by his estimates there were 250,000 inhabitants in the State who must be furnished with food until they could raise it for themselves. The causes of the small crop were a want of the necessary labor and a severe drouth which prevailed over most of the productive lands.

The entire debt of the State is as follows, except the interest on the University and Common School funds. This the State has assumed in perpetuity, and the annual interest is \$134,367.80 :

Outstanding State Bonds issued for the capital of the State Bank and branches, viz.:	
Due in New York in 1863.....	\$1,889,000 00
Five per cent. interest payable May 1st and November 1st, due in New York in 1865....	52,000 00
Five per cent. interest payable May 1st and November 1st, due in New York in 1872....	168,000 00
Five per cent. interest payable May 1st and November 1st, due in London in 1866.....	648,000 00
Five per cent. interest payable January 1st and July 1st, due in London in 1870.....	688,000 00
Six per cent. interest payable June 1st.....	
Total.....	\$3,445,000 00
The annual interest on the bonds payable in New York is.....	
The annual interest on the bonds payable in London is.....	\$105,450 00
The interest on the bonds due in New York was paid up to and including the dividend due November 1st, 1861; and there has since accrued instalments of interest, in all amounting to...	80,870 18
Of which there has been paid at Bank of Mobile,	121,800 00
	58,400 00
Leaving due and unpaid....	\$368,400 00

The bonds due in New York in 1863 were authorized to be extended by an act passed at the called session of 1861. The new bonds were issued, and some of them given in exchange for those in 1863.

The interest on the bonds due in London was paid up to and including the dividend due

January 1, 1865, and there has since accrued as follows :

On June 1, 1865.....	\$45,023 24
On July 1, 1866.....	17,670 96
Due and unpaid in London.....	\$26,699 17
And there will be due on January 1, 1866.....	17,670 96
RECAPITULATION.	
Due and unpaid on bonds in New York.....	\$368,400 00
Due and unpaid on bonds in London.....	62,699 17
	\$431,099 17
Due in London on January 1, 1866.....	17,670 96
Total amount.....	\$448,770 18

Measures to preserve and increase the efficiency of the school system were recommended. The institutions for deaf mutes and the insane have continued in successful operation. The battle flags of the volunteer regiments were deposited in the capitol, and when Montgomery was occupied by Federal troops they were undisturbed. The Governor recommended their preservation, saying :

"We should preserve these sacred souvenirs of the courage and endurance of those who went forth to battle under their folds, and who manfully upheld them with their life-blood. They were our sons and brothers. Alas! that so many of them shall never return to us again. Shall we ever forget them? We cannot. We must be more or less than men if we could.

"The brave and generous people with whom they fought do not expect it. They do not wish us to return to the Union emasculated, divested of all manhood and natural feeling. They are proud to know that the survivors of the bloody fields on which they fought are willing, as true knights and brave men, to accept the result of the battle, and to rally once more round the Flag of our Fathers. They feel it will not be less secure in the future because our hands and hearts are united with theirs in its support."

Among the officers chosen by the Legislature at this session, were three judges of the Supreme Court, A. J. Walker, Wm. M. Byrd, and Thomas J. Judge; John W. A. Sanford, Attorney-General; S. K. McSpadden, Chancellor Northern Division; N. W. Cocke, Southern Division; J. Q. Loomis, Middle Division. The Provisional Governor, Lewis E. Parsons, and George S. Houston were elected Senators to the Federal Congress.

The amendment to the Federal Constitution prohibiting the existence of slavery was adopted in the House by a large vote. The principal resolution was as follows :

Resolved, By the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Alabama in General Assembly convened, That the foregoing amendment to the Constitution of the United States be, and the same is hereby ratified, to all intents and purposes, as a part of the Constitution of the United States.

To this joint resolution, Mr. Williams, of Jackson County, offered the following amendment :

Resolved further, That any attempt by Congress to legislate upon the political status of the former slaves or their civil relations, would be contrary to the Con-

stitution of the United States, as it now is or as it would be by the proposed amendment, and the exercise of such power is protested against by the State of Alabama.

Mr. Bethea introduced the following as a substitute for the amendment offered by Mr. Williams, which was accepted:

Be it further Resolved, That this amendment to the Constitution of the United States is adopted by the Legislature of Alabama, with the understanding that it does not confer upon Congress the power to legislate upon the political status of freedmen in this State.

The propriety of adopting this amendment was discussed by several members, and the question being taken, by yeas and nays, it was adopted—yeas, 75; nays, 15.

An act was passed to provide for the more effectual distribution of food to the destitute families in the State, and also the following act to protect freedmen in their rights of person and property:

Be it enacted, &c., That all freedmen, free negroes and mulattoes, shall have the right to sue and be sued, plead and be impleaded, in all the different and various courts of this State, to the same extent that white persons now have by law; and they shall be competent to testify only in open court, and only in cases in which freedmen, free negroes and mulattoes are parties, either plaintiff or defendant, and in civil and criminal cases for injuries to the persons and property of freedmen, free negroes and mulattoes, and in all cases, civil or criminal, in which under this act a freedman, free negro or mulatto is a witness against a white person, or a white person against a freedman, free negro or mulatto, the parties shall be competent witnesses, and neither interest in the question in suit, nor marriage, shall disqualify any witness from testifying in open court.

An act concerning apprentices was adopted, which authorizes the probate courts of each county to apprentice all freedmen, free negroes and mulattoes under the age of eighteen years, who were orphans, or whose parent or parents have not the means, or who refuse to provide for and support such minors. The act contains provisions for the protection of both master and apprentice, and allows any freedman, free negro or mulatto having a minor child or children to apprentice the same. An act was also passed to regulate contracts with freedmen, and to enforce the same. It grants the right to contract to all freedmen; requires all contracts for a longer period than one month to be in writing and subscribed in presence of two white citizens. It prescribes penalties in damages for the non-performance of the contract, and makes every freedman who runs away or abandons the service he agreed to perform, without good cause, guilty of a misdemeanor, and liable on conviction, to forfeit his wages and become subject to the vagrant laws. A large number of acts respecting local affairs were introduced and considered or adopted, and about the 15th of December the Legislature took a recess to January 15th, 1866.

On December 13th, the newly elected Governor, Robert Patton, was inaugurated. In his address he traced the progress of Alabama from

1819 to 1861, to show, "that as a peaceful and quiet member of the Federal Union, we had grown from an infant State, to one of greatness, wealth, and power. Our growth was gradual, healthful, vigorous, and substantial." On the 11th of January, 1861, "we were brought to a sudden and violent halt in our proud and rapid march on the high road to prosperity and happiness." "My judgment did not approve of either the doctrine or act of secession." "But while firmly entertaining this opinion, I deemed it a duty as a citizen of Alabama, to yield a peaceful obedience to what had been done." The act of secession, he states, caused from 35,000 to 45,000 of her brave sons to perish in the service, and the "loss in actual and substantial wealth of at least \$500,000,000!" "I think we may all profit much by contrasting the prosperity and happiness which our country enjoyed at the beginning of the recent war, with its present crippled and almost ruined condition."

The Governor then reviews and commends the President's policy, which has been unhesitatingly accepted by the people of Alabama. He says: "We may rightfully claim, therefore, that our State is fully entitled to be placed in that position in the Union where she will stand as the political equal of any other State under the Federal Constitution."

With reference to emancipation, he said: "The extinction of slavery is one of the inevitable results of the war." "We will not only extend to the freedman all his legitimate rights, but will throw around him such effective safeguards as will secure him in their full and complete enjoyment." "At the same time it must be understood that, politically and socially, ours is a white man's government. In the future, as has been the case in the past, the State affairs of Alabama must be guided and controlled by the superior intelligence of the white man. The negro must also be made to realize that freedom does not mean idleness or vagrancy. Emancipation has not left him where he can live without work."

On December 18th the Secretary of State, at Washington, sent the following despatch to the Provisional Governor, Parsons:

SIR:—The time has arrived, in the judgment of the President of the United States, when the care and conduct of the proper affairs of the State of Alabama may be remitted to the constitutional authorities chosen by the people thereof, without danger to the peace and safety of the United States.

By direction of the President of the United States, therefore, you are relieved from the trust which was heretofore reposed in you as Provisional Governor of the State of Alabama, whenever the Governor elect shall have accepted and become qualified to discharge the duties of the executive office. You will transfer the papers and property of the State now in your custody to his Excellency the Governor elect.

It gives me especial pleasure to convey to you the President's acknowledgment of the fidelity, the loyalty, and the discretion which have marked your administration.

You will please give me a reply, specifying the day on which this communication is received.

I have the honor to be, your Excellency's most obedient servant,
WM. H. SEWARD.

On the same day the Secretary addressed the following despatch to the newly inaugurated Governor, Patton:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, Dec. 18, 1865.

SIR:—By direction of the President, I have the honor herewith to transmit to you a copy of a communication which has been addressed to his Excellency Lewis E. Parsons, late Provisional Governor of Alabama, whereby he has been relieved of the trust heretofore reposed in him, and directed to deliver into your Excellency's possession the papers and property relating to that trust.

I have the honor to tender you the coöperation of the Government of the United States whenever it may be found necessary in effecting the early restoration and the permanent prosperity and welfare of the State over which you have been called to preside.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, your obedient servant,
WM. H. SEWARD.

At the close of hostilities and the recognition of emancipation by the white inhabitants, the freedmen, in large numbers, left the plantations and resorted to the cities. Of this class a meeting was held in the neighborhood of Mobile, on Sunday, August 13th, of which the "Advertiser" of that city gave the following report:

Nine hundred of them assembled to consider their condition, their rights and duties under the new state of existence upon which they have been so suddenly launched. Our informant was surprised at the hard, practical sense and moderation of tone with which the spokesmen of the meeting urged their views. After long talk and careful deliberation, this meeting resolved, by a vote of seven hundred voices to two hundred, that they had made a practical trial for three months of the freedom which the war has bequeathed to them; that its realities were far from being so flattering as their imagination had painted it; that they had discovered that the prejudices of color were by no means confined to the people of the South, but, on the contrary, that it was stronger and more marked against them in the strangers from the North, than in the home people of the South, among whom they had been reared; that negroes, no more than white men, can live without work, or be comfortable without homes; that their northern deliverers from bondage had not, as they had expected and been taught to expect, undertaken to provide for their happy existence in their new state of freedom, and that their old masters had ceased to take any interest in them or have a care for them; and finally, that their "last state was worse than the first," and it was their deliberate conclusion that their true happiness and well-being required them to return to the homes which they had abandoned in a moment of excitement, and go to work again under their old masters. And so the resolutions were passed, and at last accounts the wanderers were packing up their little stock of movable goods, preparatory to the execution of their sensible purposes.

Near the close of the year, on November 22d, a Convention of colored persons was held at Mobile, at which the following series of resolutions was adopted:

Whereas, Under the providence of a gracious God, the colored people of the United States are permitted to enjoy the inestimable boon of liberty, and now have the privilege of demonstrating what they can do as a people; and

Whereas, The unprecedented privilege is now granted us of peaceably assembling in convention in this city of Mobile, and conferring and deliberating

upon matters involving our common interests; therefore

Resolved, That we shall ever inculcate the truth that our freedom is the gift of God, and that we are under the highest obligations to Him so to improve our new privilege as that His gift shall not be in vain.

Resolved, That we shall labor to foster in the hearts of our people sentiments of peace, friendship, and good will toward all men—especially toward our white fellow-citizens, among whom our lot is cast; and while we would relinquish none of the rights of our common manhood, we will studiously, according to our best knowledge and ability, so conduct ourselves as to be profitable to them and to ourselves.

Resolved, That we know and admit the fact, that labor, faithfully and judiciously performed, is the only just foundation of wealth, and that it will continue to be our purpose and effort to work industriously and honestly for the support of our families and the prosperity of the community in which we live.

Resolved, That we will perform faithful labor for every man who will pay us just wages; nor do we either expect or desire to receive any man's property without giving him a just equivalent.

Resolved, That we feel that our new condition of freedom not only presents new motives to industry, but also imposes new obligations upon us to cultivate all the virtues of good citizenship, and that, therefore, it is our purpose to fulfil all the duties of our new positions according to the ability which God has given us.

Resolved, That we recognize civil government as an ordinance of God, and that it shall be a matter of conscience with us to obey the laws, and to discountenance in every way all violation and all contemplated violation of law.

Resolved, That the assertion made in certain quarters, that there is a plot among our people to rise in insurrection, is utterly without foundation, inconsistent with our history as a people, and the farthest from our desires and possible intentions.

Resolved, That we feel in our hearts the glow of gratitude and the purpose of unfaltering fidelity to the Government of the United States, and shall ever regard as pledged to its support our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

Resolved, That we regard the education of our children and youth as vital to the preservation of our liberties, and true religion as the foundation of all real virtue, and shall use our utmost endeavors to promote these blessings in our common country.

The principles upon which the Freedmen's Bureau was organized are stated under the proceedings of Congress. The plan of its operations in each State is described under the title FREEDMEN.

During the existence of the Confederate Government, the Protestant Episcopal Church South was organized, and the prayer for the President of the United States and all in Civil Authority in the Book of Common Prayer was changed to one for the Confederate authorities. Upon the restoration of the United States authorities, the prayer for the President was omitted altogether by the recommendation of Bishop Wilmer. Whereupon Maj.-Gen. Woods issued an order, of which the following is an extract:

It is therefore ordered, pursuant to the directions of Maj.-Gen. Thomas, commanding the Military Division of the Tennessee, that said Richard Wilmer, Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, of the diocese of Alabama, and the Protestant Episcopal Clergy of said diocese be, and they are hereby suspended from their functions, and forbidden to preach or perform divine service.

Bishop Wilmer urged the following reason for his recommendation to the clergy:

Now the Church in this country has established a form of prayer for the President and all in Civil Authority, the language of that prayer was selected with careful reference to the subject of the prayer—all in *Civil Authority*—and she desires for that authority, prosperity and long continuance. No one can reasonably be expected to desire a long continuance of *military rule*. Therefore the prayer is altogether inappropriate and inapplicable to the present condition of things, when no civil authority exists in the exercise of its functions. Hence, as I remarked in the circular, we may yield a true allegiance to, and sincerely pray for grace, wisdom, and understanding, in behalf of a government founded on force, while at the same time we could not, in good conscience, ask for its continuance, prosperity, &c.

In reply to this the order stated, that at the time when the recommendation was issued, there was a President of the United States, a Cabinet, Judges of the Supreme Court, etc., and that since then a civil government and other civil officers for the State of Alabama had been appointed, but the prayer had not been restored. The prayer, it was further stated, was not a prayer for the continuance of military rule, but simply for the temporal and spiritual weal of the persons in whose behalf it was offered.

One of the closing paragraphs of the order was the following:

The advice of the bishop to omit this prayer, and its omission by the clergy, is not only a violation of the canons of the Church, but shows a factious and disloyal spirit, and is a marked insult to every loyal citizen within the department. Such men are unsafe public teachers, and not to be trusted in places of power and influence over public opinion.

The order was subsequently set aside by President Johnson.

Immediately upon the cessation of hostilities the work of repairing the railroads was begun with much energy. All public institutions prepared to meet the changed order of affairs.

ALLEN, Hon. PHILIP, formerly U. S. Senator and Governor of Rhode Island, born in Providence, R. I., September 1st, 1785, died there December 16, 1865. His rudimentary education was completed in his native town, but he subsequently studied at the Taunton Academy, and was for three years a pupil in the celebrated school of Robert Rogers, of Newport. He graduated in 1803 at the Rhode Island College, now Brown University, and having lost his father in 1801, became actively engaged in the mercantile business and foreign commerce, and particularly in the West India trade, which his father had carried on. As early as 1812, foreign commerce being suspended by the war with Great Britain, Mr. Allen was manufacturing cotton in Smithfield, and soon became one of the foremost manufacturers in the State. Gifted by nature with unusual mechanical ingenuity, he had by careful study acquainted himself with the sciences which facilitated manufacturing processes, and possessed remarkable skill in the wisest applications of his scientific knowledge. He was the first importer of the improved bobbin and fly frames, now in general use, and the

lapping machines for cotton cards. Having been successful in this early enterprise, he extended his business to *printing* the cotton goods made by himself and other manufacturers. He began printing calicos in 1831, at the large establishment, still known by his name, situated on the river north of Providence. The perfection of the styles of prints made at these works has justly given them a celebrity all over the Continent. He was an ardent advocate of a protective tariff, and by his ultimate knowledge of all the statistical and scientific facts bearing upon the question, was most influential in procuring the passage of laws which fostered home manufacturing interests. In 1819 Mr. Allen entered upon political life, serving that year and the two succeeding years as representative from Providence in the General Assembly, and was also one of the Commissioners of the fund appropriated for the settlement of the old State debt. In 1851 he was elected, as the candidate of the Democratic party, Governor of Rhode Island, and was reelected in 1852 and 1853. At the May session in 1853, he was elected United States Senator for six years from the 4th of March preceding, when he resigned the gubernatorial office to accept that of Senator. He served his full term at Washington, and was a member of the Committees on Commerce and Naval Affairs. Since the close of his Senatorial career Mr. Allen had retired from public life.

AMERICA. The civil war which had convulsed the United States since 1861, drew rapidly to a close after the beginning of the year 1865. The armed resistance to the Federal authority virtually ceased after the surrender of General Lee (April 9), and the work of reconstruction began in all the seceded States, not, however, through President Lincoln, who was assassinated on April 14th, but through his successor, Andrew Johnson. Provisional governors were appointed in all the States that had formed part of the Southern Confederacy. The subsequent measures are stated elsewhere in these pages. On January 31st, the House of Representatives at Washington, adopted, by a two-thirds majority, the Constitutional Amendment abolishing slavery throughout the United States, which had been adopted by the Senate, on April 8, 1864. The Amendment was sent by the Secretary of State, in accordance with the provision of the Constitution, to the legislatures of the several States for ratification. (*See UNITED STATES.*)

The scheme of a British American Confederation did not make, during the year 1865, the progress which its friends expected. The plan agreed upon by the conference of Quebec was adopted by the Canadian Parliament, but some of the Lower Provinces continued to oppose it. The Home Government favored the adoption of the scheme. (*See BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.*)

The war of the Republicans of Mexico against the establishment of the Empire continued throughout the year. The Mexicans were too feeble to meet the combined forces of

the French, Austrians, Belgians, and the native adherents of the empire in pitched battles, and their main army, under Porfirio Diaz, was compelled to surrender at Oaxaca. But no considerable part of the empire remained free from the guerrilla war in which the Republican forces, from time to time, gained considerable successes. President Juarez had, on the approach of a French army, for a time to leave Chihuahua, which was the seat of his Government, on January 1, 1865, and to retreat to El Paso. He returned to Chihuahua in November, but had to retreat again to El Paso in December. The Presidential term of Juarez expired in November, but as the continuance of war made it impossible to hold a general election, he continued in office with the general consent of the Republican party until it would be possible to hold another election. Maximilian, strongly endorsed by the Government of France, made several attempts to obtain the recognition of the United States; and France intimated that, in case of such recognition, she would begin to make preparations for the withdrawal of her troops from Mexico; but the Government of Washington refused to enter into negotiations with Maximilian, and declared to France, that the United States were deeply concerned about the continuance of a foreign army in Mexico, and strongly desired its speedy withdrawal. (*See MEXICO.*)

The war of independence which the people of San Domingo had for several years sustained against the Spanish rule, ended, in 1865, in the complete success of the Dominicans. The Government of Spain determined to abandon the island, and the Cortes in April enacted a bill brought in by the Government to that effect. (*See SPAIN.*) The republican form of Government was consequently restored in San Domingo, but the island remained subject to internal disturbances. (*See SAN DOMINGO.*)

The island of Jamaica was, in October, the scene of serious disturbances. The black population of the parish of St. Thomas, in the east, rescued some prisoners, who, as their friends said, had been convicted wrongfully, and when the resistance to the authorities became general, the conduct of the Colonial Government as well as of the military authorities on this occasion gave rise to the most intense indignation throughout England. In compliance with an almost universal demand, the Home Government suspended the Governor of Jamaica from his functions, and appointed a commission of inquiry, which repaired to Jamaica to investigate the whole affair. (*See JAMAICA.*)

The difficulties between Spain and Peru culminated on January 25, 1865, in an ultimatum presented by the Spanish Admiral Pareja. The Government of Peru submitted (January 28th) to all the essential demands of Spain, and the Spanish admiral restored the Chincha Islands. The dissatisfaction of the majority of the Peruvian people with the conduct of their Government called forth imme-

diately a revolution, which continued through the greater part of the year, and ended in the overthrow of the administration of President Pezet, and the establishment of a new Government decidedly hostile to Spain. (*See PERU.*)

The sympathy shown by the Government and people of Chili with Peru against Spain, led to difficulties between Spain and Chili. In May, the Spanish Minister in Chili, Tavora, stated that he was satisfied with the declarations of the Chilean Secretary of War. The Spanish Government, however, disapproved the conduct of Tavora, recalled him (July 25th), and sent Admiral Pareja to Valparaiso to demand immediate reparation for offences given. On the refusal of the Chilean Government to comply with this demand, Pareja declared a blockade of the Chilean ports (September 24th), to which the Chilean Congress answered by a declaration of war. Hostilities at once commenced and continued until the close of the year. (*See CHILI.*)

On the Atlantic coast of South America, the insurrection in Uruguay, aided by the Brazilian Government, ended in the overthrow of the existing government. Paraguay followed up its protest against the interference of Brazil in the civil war of Uruguay, by a declaration of war (November, 1864) against Brazil. In April, 1865, the Argentine Republic was also invaded by the troops of Paraguay, and joined Brazil and Uruguay in their war against the latter power. The war was still progressing, according to the last advices (December 1865). (*See ARGENTINE REPUBLIC, BRAZIL, PARAGUAY, URUGUAY.*)

The United States of Colombia, Ecuador, Bolivia, Hayti, and San Salvador, were all disturbed by civil wars. In Bolivia, the chief of the insurrection, Melgarejo, was successful, while in the three other States the existing Governments succeeded in quelling the rebellion. (*See BOLIVIA, COLOMBIA, ECUADOR, HAYTI, SAN SALVADOR.*)

The "American Congress" of the representatives of Chili, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, Guatemala, San Salvador, the Argentine Republic, the United States of Colombia, and Venezuela, which had assembled in November, 1864, at Lima, for the purpose of forming a defensive alliance against aggressions of monarchical powers, closed its sessions on March 13, 1865. The main object of the alliance is fully defined in the following official document:

Alliance of the American States for Common Defence.—In the name of God:—The States of America, which are hereinafter mentioned, desiring to unite in order to provide for their exterior security, to strengthen their relations, to maintain peace among themselves, and to promote other common interests, have determined to secure these objects by means of international compacts of which the present is the first and fundamental one.

To that effect, they have conferred full powers as follows: By Salvador, to Don Pedro Alcantara Herran; by Bolivia, to Don Juan de la Cruz Benavente; by the United States of Colombia, to Don Justo Arosemena; by Chili, to Don Manuel Montt; by Ecuador, to Don Vincente Piedrahita; by Peru, to Don

Jose Gregorio Paz Soldan, and by the United States of Venezuela, to Don Antonio Leocadio Guzman.

And the Plenipotentiaries having exchanged their powers, which they found sufficient and in due form, have agreed herein to the following stipulations:

ART. 1. The high contracting parties unite and bind themselves to each other for the objects above expressed, and guarantee to each other mutually their independence, their sovereignty, and the integrity of their respective territories, binding themselves in the terms of the present treaty, to defend each other against any aggression which may have for its object the depriving any one of them of any of the rights herein expressed, whether the aggression shall come from a foreign power, whether from any of those leagued by this compact, or from foreign forces which do not obey a recognized government.

ART. 2. The alliance herein stipulated will produce its effects when there shall be a violation of the rights expressed in article 1, and especially in the cases of offences which shall consist—

First—In acts directed to deprive any one of the contracting nations of a part of its territory, with the intention of appropriating its dominion or of ceding it to another power.

Second—In acts directed to annul or alter the form of government, the political constitution or the laws which any one of the contracting parties may give or may have given itself in the exercise of its sovereignty, or which may have for their object to change forcibly its internal system, or to impose upon it authorities in the like manner.

Third—In acts directed to compel any one of the high contracting parties to a protectorate, sale, or session of territory, or to establish over it any superiority, right, or preëminence whatever, which may impair or offend the ample and complete exercise of its sovereignty and independence.

ART. 3. The allied parties shall decide, each one for itself, whether the offence which may have been given to any one of them is embraced among those enumerated in the foregoing articles.

ART. 4. The *causa fœderis* being declared, the contracting parties compromise themselves to immediately suspend their relations with the aggressive Power, to give passports to its public ministers, to cancel the commissions of its consular agents, to prohibit the importation of its natural and manufactured products, and to close their ports to its vessels.

ART. 5. The same parties shall also appoint plenipotentiaries to conclude the arguments necessary to determine the contingents of the force, and the land and naval supplies, or of any other kind, which the allies must give to the nation which is attacked, the manner in which the forces must act, and the other auxiliary means be realized, and every thing else which may be proper to the best success of the defence. The plenipotentiaries shall meet at the place designated by the appended party.

ART. 6. The high contracting parties bind themselves in furnishing to the one which may be attacked the means of defence which one of them may think itself able to dispose of, even though the stipulations to which the foregoing articles refer, should not have preceded, provided the case should, in their judgment, be an urgent one.

ART. 7. The *causa fœderis* having been declared, the party offended will not have authority to conclude conventions for peace or for the cessation of hostilities without including in them the allies who may have taken part in the war and should desire to accept them.

ART. 8. If (which may God avert) one of the contracting parties should offend the rights of another one of them, guaranteed by this alliance, the others will proceed in the same manner as though the offence had been committed by a foreign Power.

ART. 9. The high contracting parties bind themselves not to concede to, nor to accept from, any nation or government a protectorate or preëminence

which impairs their independence and sovereignty; and they likewise compromise themselves not to transfer to another nation or government any part of their territory. These stipulations do not hinder, however, those parties which are conterminous to make the cessions of territory which they may deem proper for the better demarcation of their boundaries or frontiers.

ART. 10. The high contracting parties bind themselves to appoint plenipotentiaries, who shall meet every three years, as nearly as possible, to adjust the conventions proper to strengthen and perfect the union established by the present treaty. A special provision of the present Congress shall determine the day and the place at which the first assembly of the plenipotentiaries shall meet, which assembly shall designate the following one, and thus thereafter until the expiration of the present treaty.

ART. 11. The high contracting parties will solicit, collectively or separately, that the other American States which have been invited to the present Congress shall enter into this treaty; and from the moment the said States shall have made known their formal acceptance thereof, they shall have the rights and obligations which emanate from it.

ART. 12. This treaty shall continue in full force for the period of fifteen years, to be reckoned from the day of this date; and at the end of this period any one of the contracting parties shall have authority to terminate it on its part by announcing it to the others twelve months previously thereto.

ART. 13. The exchange of the ratifications shall take place in the city of Lima within the period of two years, or sooner if it be possible.

In testimony whereof, we, the undersigned, Ministers Plenipotentiary, sign the present and seal it with our respective seals, in Lima, this 23d day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five.

P. A. HERRAN.

JUAN DE LA CRUZ BENAVENTE.

MANUEL MONTT.

JUSTO AROSEMANA.

VICENTE PIEDRAHITA.

JOSE G. PAZ SOLDAN.

ANTONIO L. GUZMAN.

ANGLICAN CHURCHES. The general statistics of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States, in 1865, were, according to the "Church Almanac" for 1866, as follows:

Dioceses.....	84
Bishops.....	41
Priests and Deacons.....	2,396
Whole number of Clergy.....	2,467
Parishes.....	2,322
Ordinations—Deacons.....	94
“ Priests.....	91
Candidates for Orders.....	220
Churches Consecrated.....	40
Baptisms—Infants.....	24,639
“ Adults.....	5,297
“ Not stated.....	91
Confirmations.....	15,880
Communicants—added.....	12,943
“ Present number.....	154,118
Marriages.....	7,487
Burials.....	15,650
Sunday School Teachers.....	17,583
“ Scholars.....	150,400
Contributions.....	\$2,700,004 08

A comparison of the following table, which presents the statistics of the Church by dioceses, with the one in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864, giving the statistics of that year, will show an increase in every diocese save Missouri and Minnesota, in which there was a small decrease. The statistics from the Southern dioceses are still imperfect, but more full than in the previous years.

DIOCESES AND MISSIONS.	Clergy.	Parishes.	COMMUNICANTS.		SUNDAY SCHOOLS.		Missionary and Charitable Contributions.
			Adm.	Present Number.	Teachers.	Scholars.	
Maine.....	20	18	156	1,589	137	1,861	\$11,689 21
New Hampshire.....	23	21	77	1,085	100	787	5,722 60
Vermont.....	80	87	9	2,110	173	1,885	6,793 85
Massachusetts.....	118	78	717	9,619	655	7,794	150,928 86
Rhode Island.....	88	82	868	8,928	519	4,217	45,612 55
Connecticut.....	150	129	989	12,596	1,698	9,592	216,909 02
New York.....	895	811	2,880	88,818	8,768	84,727	848,456 96
Western New York.....	149	167	1,866	14,061	1,548	12,658	288,094 27
New Jersey.....	113	102	622	7,980	1,188	9,855	162,844 81
Pennsylvania.....	268	220	1,551	22,041	2,765	29,058	285,739 58
Delaware.....	13	25	188	1,172	241	2,384	14,886 16
Maryland.....	160	135	1,215	10,059	974	7,458	180,627 53
Virginia.....	112	169		6,500			
North Carolina.....	52	68					
South Carolina.....		67					
Ohio.....	100	101	509	6,984	982	7,876	185,131 98
Georgia.....		27					
Kentucky.....	28	84	168	2,045	173	1,446	82,545 66
Tennessee.....		26					
Mississippi.....		42					
Louisiana.....		35					
Michigan.....	62	70	465	4,247	614	4,219	58,544 28
Alabama.....		87					
Illinois.....	89	82	442	3,854	598	4,809	131,332 06
Florida.....	6	14					
Indiana.....	82	86	142	1,510	247	2,017	18,741 87
Missouri.....	22	82	181	1,162	118	1,047	62,568 92
Wisconsin.....	61	45	626	8,378	414	3,846	59,263 73
Texas.....	13	28	60	1,205	75	472	14,479 00
Iowa.....	85	44	199	1,208	238	1,748	24,629 88
California.....	23	29	149	1,245	185	1,427	28,775 68
Minnesota.....	87	25	78	1,106	180	1,577	21,839 25
Kansas.....	10	11		171	24	190	
Arkansas Mission.....	5	4					
Oregon and Washington Mission.....	11	9					
Northwestern Mission.....	17	12					
Western Africa Mission.....							
China, Japan, and Greek Missions.....							

The Triennial General Convention of the Church, which is composed of the House of Bishops (consisting of all the Diocesan and Missionary Bishops in the American Church), and of the House of Clerical and Lay Deputies (consisting of four clergymen and four laymen from every diocese), met at Philadelphia on October 4, 1865. Long before the meeting of the General Convention, the question of a reunion of those Southern dioceses which, in consequence of the political separation of the Southern States from the Union, had withdrawn from the general convention and organized a Southern "General Council," had prominently engaged the attention of the Church. After the close of the war, and the disappearance of the Southern Confederacy, several of the Southern Bishops, and a considerable number of the Southern ministers and laymen, declared in favor of an immediate and unconditional reunion. The diocesan convention of Texas passed resolutions declaring its connection with the Southern General Council terminated, and its reacknowledgment of the authority of the General Convention of the United States. They accordingly elected delegates to the General Convention to meet in Philadelphia, but none to the meeting of the Southern General Council. The Bishops of Virginia, North Carolina, and Arkansas, likewise expressed themselves in favor of an immediate return, and of an attendance at the Convention in Philadelphia. The

diocesan convention of North Carolina so far agreed with its bishop, as to elect delegates to both the National and the Southern Conventions, and to make the attendance at either, or both of the Conventions, dependent upon the option of the bishop, who decided in favor of the Philadelphia Convention. The diocesan convention of Virginia, while also desirous of reunion, yet declared against attendance at Philadelphia, and in favor of common action on the part of the Southern bishops and dioceses. The diocesan convention of Georgia had also authorized the delegates chosen for the General Conventions, to go to Philadelphia if the bishop should deem this course proper; but Bishop Elliot (the Presiding Bishop of the Southern General Council), while strongly advocating the reunion of the two churches, thought it better to act in common with the Southern dioceses. When the General Conventions met in Philadelphia, the bishops of North Carolina, Arkansas, and the Bishop Elect of Tennessee, and delegations from Tennessee, North Carolina, and Texas were present. No objection was made to their unconditional readmission as members of the General Convention. Some opposition was, however, made to the recognition of Bishop Quintard, of Tennessee, on account of his having been involved in the late rebellion, and still more to that of Bishop Wilmer, of Alabama, as having not only been "disloyal," but as having been elected

and consecrated since the formal separation of the diocese of Alabama from the National Convention. The General Convention, by an overwhelming majority, recognized both bishops, but with regard to Bishop Wilmer, the House of Bishops waived the examination of "certain canonical irregularities in the election and consecration," and expressly declared that its present action should never be construed or accepted as a precedent. The House also passed the following resolution in regard to a pastoral letter of the Bishop of Alabama, instructing the clergy of his diocese not to use the prayer for the President of the United States until the removal of martial law in the State of Alabama:

Resolved, That we do hereby express to the Bishop of Alabama our fraternal regrets at the issue of his late pastoral letter, and assured confidence that no further occasions for such regrets will occur.

This resolution was, however, not entered on the Journal of the Convention. An animated discussion arose in the House of Delegates on the following resolution introduced by the Hon. Horace Binney, a lay delegate of the diocese of Philadelphia.

Resolved, That this house in most cordially concurring, as it has done, in the resolution of the House of Bishops, appointing a day of thanksgiving for the return of peace to the country, and union to the Church, most respectfully express to the House of Bishops its most earnest desire that, in the religious services to be appointed for the day, especial thanks be offered to Almighty God for the reestablishment of the national authority over the whole country, and for the removal of that great occasion of national dissension and estrangement, to which our late troubles were due.

This resolution was defeated, as was also a motion to reconsider the vote of the Convention by dioceses. The question to lay the motion to reconsider on the table (the effect of the passage of this motion being to prevent the question from coming up again during the meeting of this Convention), stood thus: Clerical—20 yeas, 6 nays; Lay—15 yeas, 7 nays. Seven of the Bishops (the Bishops of Maine, Massachusetts, Ohio, Iowa, Kansas, Delaware, and the Assistant Bishop of Ohio) published a declaration to the effect that they had been in favor of the adoption of a resolution touching the restoration of the national authority and the abolition of slavery by the House of Bishops. With regard to the Provincial System, the following canon was adopted by the General Convention:

It is hereby declared to be lawful for the dioceses now existing or hereafter to exist within the limits of States or commonwealths, to establish for themselves a federate convention or council representing such dioceses, which may deliberate and decide upon the common interests of the Church within that State, and exercise any delegated powers not inconsistent with the constitution and canons of this Church.

The General Convention also gave its consent to the division of the diocese of Pennsylvania. The Primary Convention of the new diocese, containing twenty-five counties of Western Pennsylvania, met at Pittsburg, on November

15, and, after debate, adopted the name of "Diocese of Pittsburg." The Rev. Dr. John Barrett Kerfoot, President of Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut, was elected the first bishop.

With regard to Home Missions, it was resolved to increase the number of missionary bishops to five, appointing, in addition to the missionary bishops of Arkansas and Oregon, others for Nebraska, Colorado, and Ne-

The expectation entertained by many members of the Church, that the course pursued by the General Convention of Philadelphia would induce all the Southern dioceses to consummate the reunion without further delay, was not realized. The Second General Council of the Southern dioceses met at Augusta, Georgia, on November 8th. It was composed of the Bishops of Georgia, Virginia, Mississippi, and Alabama, and delegates from the same dioceses, and from South Carolina. The Council did not take decided action on the reunion question. The resolutions adopted by it, commend "the spirit of charity" exhibited by the Convention in Philadelphia, and declare it proper for any of the Southern dioceses to decide for herself whether she shall any longer continue in union with the General Council, or reconnect herself with the General Convention. They change the term "Confederate States," in the standards of the Church, into that of the United States, and adopt for their organization the name "General Council of the Associated Dioceses in the United States." Charleston was appointed as the place for the next meeting of the General Council. But a few weeks after the meeting of the council, the Bishop of Mississippi issued an address to the clergy and laity of his diocese, in favor of the diocesan return to the normal relations with the General Convention. Bishop Elliot, of Georgia, the Presiding Bishop of the Southern General Council, in a letter dated Jan. 3, 1866, notified Bishop Hopkins, the Presiding Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, that, on that day, he had given official notice to the bishops who were for a time united with him in the confederation of the Southern dioceses, of his withdrawal from that confederation, and of the return of Georgia to the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States.

The 30th annual meeting of the Board of Missions was held at Philadelphia on October 5th. The receipts of the Domestic Committee were larger than in any former year, and amounted to \$72,514, against \$66,581 in 1864, \$37,458 in 1863, and \$35,223 in 1862. The expenditures were \$70,126. The receipts of the Foreign Committee were \$78,504.

In November, 1864, the Rev. Dr. Nicholson, who had for nine years been connected with missionary work in Mexico and New Mexico, started on a tour of exploration through Mexico, and on his return, reported that a reform party in the Roman Catholic Church of that country was favorably disposed toward the adoption

of the distinctive principles of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and that under his advice and supervision a society had been organized in Mexico for assisting the reform party.

The Episcopal Mission to Western Africa, reported seven permanent church buildings, one Hospital, Orphan Asylum, High School, and seven Mission Houses, erected at an expense of over \$100,000. There are 21 mission stations; and 816 communicants; 182 boarding scholars; 760 day scholars.

In the Church of England, the case of Bishop Colenso continued to excite a deep interest. On March 29, 1865, his appeal from the decree of the South African Bishops, by which he was, on account of heresy, deposed from his See of Natal, to the Queen's Privy Council, was acted upon. The decision of this court, which is final, was delivered by the Lord Chancellor. The Court on the part of the counsel of Bishop Colenso, had been requested to admit the appeal, and on the part of the counsel of the Bishop of Capetown to "advise Her Majesty to pronounce for protest and against the said pretended complaint and appeal." On these points the Lord Chancellor decided as follows: "As the question can be decided only by the Sovereign as head of the Established Church and depositary of ultimate appellate jurisdiction, their lordships will humbly report to Her Majesty their judgment and opinion that the proceedings taken by the Bishop of Capetown, and the judgment or sentence pronounced by him against the Bishop of Natal, are null and void in law." It was allowed by the Court that the letters patent to Bishop Gray, of Capetown, gave him the rights of Metropolitan, but it was also denied that the Queen's letters patent had in themselves any authority whatever, not having been authorized by any statute of the Imperial Parliament, nor confirmed by any act of the Legislature of the Cape of Good Hope, or of the Legislative Council of Natal. As in England or Ireland the Queen has no power to create a new diocese, or to appoint a bishop to such, without an act of Parliament, so it was ruled that in a crown colony an act of Parliament is necessary; and in colonies which have their own legislatures, the sanction of those legislatures must be obtained to give validity to the establishment of a diocese. The Queen has the prerogative right to command the consecration of a bishop, but no power to assign him any diocese not constitutionally created. Therefore the colonial bishoprics already founded, with the exception of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras, sanctioned by acts of Imperial Parliament, and Jamaica, sanctioned by the local legislation, have no position in the eyes of the English law. The judgment is most sweeping in its consequences, since it renders all jurisdiction in such unsanctioned bishoprics, not only of metropolitans over bishops, but of bishops over the inferior clergy, invalid. While it, therefore, denied the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan of Capetown over Colenso, it also

denied the jurisdiction of Colenso over the clergy of his diocese. In accordance with this judgment, Colenso resolved to return to his diocese, while on the other hand a large portion of the diocesan clergy pledged themselves not to recognize his spiritual authority, and the Bishop of Capetown declared in favor of appointing another bishop in place of Colenso. In the latter part of the year Colenso returned to his diocese, which was greatly agitated at the new aspect of this important controversy.

The English Order of St. Benedict, in June, 1865, was shaken by a revolt of a majority of the monks against their Superior, Father Ignatius. The latter restored his authority, but his health was so completely prostrated in consequence of the excitement, that he was obliged to retire in September from the monastery of Norwich. In December, 1865, he had not yet been able to resume the direction of the order. The "third order" of St. Benedict made a considerable progress in England, and was also established in the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States.

The endeavors to bring on a closer union of the Church of England with all those churches which hold to the doctrine of the Apostolical Succession of the Bishops, were eagerly continued during the year, and seemed to call forth a greater attention and a livelier interest than in previous years. An important meeting for the special purpose of establishing a regular and formal intercommunion between the Church of England and the Russian Church was held in London on November 15th, under the presidency of the Bishop of London. Among those present were the Bishop of Lincoln, the Bishops-Coadjutor of Edinburgh, Dr. Pusey, Dr. Williams, Canon Wordsworth, and letters of sympathy were read from two archbishops, ten bishops, and a number of eminent men, among whom was Mr. Gladstone. The Bishops of Oxford and Edinburgh urged that, in their opinion, the churches should not content themselves with preparing the ground, leaving the harvest to be reaped by future generations, but, deferring all dogmatical debates, proceed to celebrate the Lord's Supper by intercommunion, if such were the wish of the chiefs of the Russian Church. It was stated, and confirmed by the bishops present, that orthodox Christians might receive the communion in Anglican churches even now. The representatives of the Russian Church at this meeting expressed full sympathy with the movement, but were unable to say how far the heads of their Church were willing to go, and, in general, advised great caution in taking any decisive steps. The Archbishop of Canterbury expressed to Prince Orloff, one of the representatives of Russia at the above meeting, a desire to send two bishops to Russia; but hearing what the Prince had to say against the plans, put it off. (See GREEK CHURCH.) As regards the union with Rome, a great sensation was produced by the appearance of several letters from Dr. Pusey, stating that, in his convic-

tion, there was no "insurmountable obstacle to the union of the Roman, Greek and Anglican communions," that he had long been convinced that "there is nothing in the Council of Trent which could not be satisfactorily explained to us (the Anglicans), if it were explained authoritatively—namely, by the Romish Church itself, not by individual theologians only," and that, on the other hand, "there is nothing in our Articles which cannot be explained rightly, as not contradicting any thing held to be *bona fide* in the Roman Church." With regard to the supremacy of the Bishop of Rome, Dr. Pusey made this important declaration: "We readily recognize the primacy of the Bishop of Rome; the bearings of that primacy upon the other local churches we believe to be matter of ecclesiastical, not of divine law; but neither is there any supremacy in itself to which we should object." While there appeared to be entire unanimity among the High Church party of the English Church, as to intercommunion with the Eastern Churches, a strong opposition was made to the above declarations of Dr. Pusey, and to a translation of the Book of Common Prayer into Latin, in which the Scriptural passages were taken from the Vulgate and several similar publications.

The number of Colonial Bishoprics of the Church of England was increased, during the year 1865, by the establishment of a See at Dunedin, New Zealand. The agitation for an increase of the Episcopal Sees in England continued, without, however, leading to any result.

ANHALT, a duchy in Germany. Area 1,017 square miles. Population in 1861, 181,824; in 1864, 193,046. At the establishment of the German Confederacy, in 1815, the territory of Anhalt was divided into three duchies: Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, and Anhalt-Koethen. The line of the reigning family in the latter became extinct on November 23, 1847, and the duchy, in virtue of a treaty between the two remaining lines, signed on May 2 and 7, 1853, was united with Anhalt-Dessau. On August 18, 1863, the line of Anhalt-Bernburg became likewise extinct, and thus the whole territory of Anhalt, which since 1603 had been divided into several sovereignties, was reunited. The duchy has twenty-two towns, of which the following have above 10,000 inhabitants: Dessau, 16,806; Bernburg, 12,171; Koethen, 11,935; Zerbst, 11,379. Receipts and expenditures of the year 1865 amounted to 3,815,247 thalers. On January 1, 1865, the public debt of Anhalt-Dessau-Koethen was 1,827,593 thalers; and that of Anhalt-Bernburg, 1,618,634 thalers.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC. President (from October 12, 1862, to October 11, 1868), Bartolomé Mitre; Vice-President, Marcos Paz; President of the Chamber of Deputies, Aristides Villanueva. The Ministry, which was appointed in 1862, is composed as follows: Interior, Dr. W. Rawson; Exterior, Dr. R. de Elizalde; Fi-

nances, L. Gonzales; Justice, Dr. E. Costa; War, Gen. J. A. Gelly y Obes.

Minister of the United States at Buenos Ayres, Robert C. Kirk.

The Federal Constitution of the Argentine Republic was adopted in May, 1853, and revised, in consequence of the reunion of Buenos Ayres with the Republic, on June 6, 1860. According to this Constitution the Legislature consists of two Chambers, a Senate and a House of Representatives, the Senate having twenty-eight, and the House of Representatives fifty-four members.

The area of the Republic is 820,000 square miles. The following table shows the provinces which belong to the Confederation, and the population and capital of each:

Provincia.	Population.	Capital.
Jujuy	88,200	Jujuy.
Salta	66,600	Salta.
Catamarca	50,000	Catamarca.
Tucuman	88,500	Tucuman.
S. Jago del Estero	60,000	San Jago.
Corrientes	65,000	Entre Rios.
La Rioja	84,500	La Rioja.
Cordova	180,000	Cordova.
Santa Fe	40,000	Santa Fe.
Entre Rios	80,000	Concepcion.
San Juan	62,000	San Juan.
San Luis	32,000	San Luis.
Mendoza	60,000	Mendoza.
Buenos Ayres	850,000	Buenos Ayres.
Total	1,171,800	

Of the inhabitants of the province of Buenos Ayres, 126,000 were foreigners (25,000 Spaniards, 25,000 English and Irish, 30,000 French, 80,000 Italians, 3,500 Germans, 3,000 North Americans, 2,500 Portuguese, and 7,000 natives of other countries).

The number of immigrants into the Argentine Republic in 1864, was 11,682 persons (5,435 Italians, 2,737 French, 289 Germans, 329 Swiss, 1,586 Spaniards, 1,051 Englishmen, 291 persons of other countries).

The receipts of the Republic in the year 1865 were estimated at 8,293,800 pesos, and the expenses at 8,595,087 pesos. The paper money in circulation amounted in 1864 to 340,457,656 pesos.

The regular army consists of 10,700 men. For the war against Paraguay, the Government pledged itself to contribute a contingent of 43,250 men. The fleet is composed of seven steamers and ten sailing vessels.

The invasion of the province of Corrientes on April 18th, by a Paraguayan army, without a previous declaration of war, involved the Argentine Republic in the war of Brazil and Uruguay against Paraguay. On April 16th the official declaration of war was issued, and on May 4th the Government concluded, at Buenos Ayres, with Brazil and Uruguay, an aggressive and defensive alliance against Paraguay. The war was chiefly carried on upon the soil of the Argentine Republic, until October 24th, when the last division of the invading army reentered the territory of Paraguay. (See PARAGUAY.) This invasion had continued one hundred and

ninety-two days, and was signalized by an enormous destruction of property. Before the war there was in the invaded provinces much sympathy with Paraguay and hostility to Brazil, which was suspected of a design to annex Uruguay, and thus to obtain absolute control of the rivers Uruguay and Parana. The contingent to the Argentine army from these provinces disbanded on the approach of the Paraguanians, and even its leader, Urquiza, was by many suspected of disloyal intentions. After the occupation of the town of Corrientes by the Paraguayans, a provisional government of three citizens of the province was appointed, and this province, as well as that of Entre Rios, declared to be annexed to Paraguay. On the withdrawal of the Paraguayans the members of the Provisional Government sold their property and left with the invading army.

ARKANSAS. The reorganization of the State of Arkansas took place in 1864. The proceedings were based on the amnesty proclamation issued by President Lincoln (*see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1864—Arkansas*). The reorganization was recognized and sustained by the Executive Department of the Federal Government. The members elected to the 38th Congress were not admitted at the second session which commenced December, 1864. The Legislature, consisting, however, of less than the full number of members, assembled in March, 1865. On April 14th it adopted the amendment to the Constitution of the United States relative to slavery, by a unanimous vote. The State Convention which assembled in 1864, amended the Constitution, thereby abolishing slavery in the State, and repudiating the debt contracted to aid in carrying on the war against the United States. Thus the three most important measures required by the Federal Government for the restoration of the State to the Union, have been adopted.

The Legislature at the same session in April, also passed an act, disfranchising all citizens who had aided the Confederate cause subsequent to April 18th, 1864, at which time the present State Government was reorganized. The law was greatly discussed during the year, especially as the time approached for the Congressional elections in October. Those who opposed the act of the Legislature, urged as objections that it prescribed qualifications for voters different from those required by the State Constitution. They said the Legislature had no power to make such a change. "In our form of government all power is in the people; they meet in *Convention* and make the supreme law, not to be changed, save by a particular mode of procedure, which, it is admitted, has not been done in this instance. The Legislature, as the representative of all the power of the people, may do almost any thing, except that they cannot add to or take from any of the specifications in the Constitution. Any attempt to do this, is null and void; for the people agreed and declared that it so should be, when they formed

and adopted the charter of their rights." It was further urged, that to require every voter to make oath that he had not aided the Confederacy since April, 1864, violated those portions of the letter and spirit of the Federal and State Constitutions, being the supreme law, which declared:

That no person shall be held to answer for a capital or infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury.

Nor be compelled to give evidence against himself.

That no man shall be put to answer any criminal charge but by presentment, indictment, or impeachment.

That no free man shall be deprived of his freehold, liberties, or privileges but by the judgment of his peers or the laws of the land.

Therefore, that the act in question, so far as it attempted to deprive a man of his privileges, without judicial conviction of crime, was contrary to the foregoing provisions; and if the Legislature exceeded its powers in the enactment of the law, it was no part of "the law of the land."

Meanwhile the State Government continued to extend its operations to many counties which had been previously occupied by Southern soldiers until their disappearance on the cessation of active hostilities. The Governor, Murphy, then issued a proclamation to the people, urging them to assemble and renew their local organizations in the counties thus far disaffected. This address was favorably received, and the State Government was soon acquiesced in throughout the State. After the disbanding of the Southern forces outrages soon ceased, and at the end of two months, or early in July, the judicial districts were organized in nearly every county. Some of the courts had been in session, and most of them were prepared to meet regularly. Taxes were as quietly collected as before the war, and civil process could be executed in every part of the State. Hundreds of persons had returned from the South to the places of their former residence, and the pursuits of peace were resumed as rapidly as could be expected. As the time for the election of members of Congress approached, the Governor issued an address to the people, urging them to elect persons who could take the oath required by Congress. Three members were chosen, viz.: William Ryers, G. H. Kyle, and James M. Johnson, who subsequently appeared at Washington and presented their credentials.

In October, the Secretary of State, Robert J. T. White, reported to the President the peaceful and orderly condition of affairs which existed, and the following despatch was sent to the Governor:

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, WASHINGTON, Oct. 30, 1865.

To Gov. Murphy, Little Rock, Ark.:

There will be no interference with your present organization of State government. I have learned from E. W. Gantt, Esq., and other sources, that all is working well, and you will proceed and resume the former relations with the Federal Government, and all the aid in the power of the Government will be given in restoring the State to its former relations.

ANDREW JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

The number of slaves in Arkansas in 1860, was 111,115. They were generally under the supervision of the Freedmen's Bureau, aided by the commander of the Department, Major-Gen. Reynolds. An inspector of that Bureau reported in July, "that in the Little Rock district about four thousand freedmen are employed under orders from the War Department; that first-class men received from twenty-five to fifty dollars per month, and first-class women from fifteen to eighteen, one-half of which was paid every two months, and the balance at the end of the year; that two thousand of them were employed by the forty-three lessees of abandoned plantations at these rates; that very harmonious relations existed between the freedmen and their employers; that the negroes were generally contented; that the lessees complained that the rate of wages was higher than was paid anywhere else in the Mississippi valley, and so high that their cotton would cost them from twenty to twenty-five cents per pound before being ready for market, and that they would not make any thing on the crop; that there were about one thousand freedmen at work for citizens of Little Rock; that large numbers were working for themselves, at remunerative wages; that the colored people are building two school-houses in the place; that there was abundant work for all who were able to labor; that fair wages were generally paid; and finally, that the condition of the freed people in Arkansas was probably better than in any other section of the country."

Great destitution, however, prevailed throughout the State. In the month of May, the Federal Government issued 75,097 rations to refugees, and 46,845 to freedmen. As late as December 9th, the Governor addressed the following letters to two charitable agents, in which he thus stated the extent of the destitution:

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, LITTLE ROCK, December 9, 1865.

Mrs. H. W. Cobb, Sec. A. U. Commission:

DEAR MADAM: Yours of October 27th was received last mail. We feel deeply grateful for the benevolent interest evinced for our suffering population. The desolations of war in our State are beyond description. Suffering and poverty are, perhaps, more general in this than the other rebel States, from the fact that during the entire war an internal and bloody strife existed between the Union element and their rebel neighbors, resulting in the exile of nearly all the loyal families who could escape, stripped of all their property, and thrown helpless on the charity of the benevolent. A great many of these families have returned, others are striving to get back to their old and once happy homes, ignorant or regardless of the destitution that will meet them there. Besides the utter desolation that marked the track of war and battle, guerrilla bands and scouting parties have pillaged almost every neighborhood north of the Arkansas River, also in the country south of the river, lying near the Indian boundary. It would be safe to say that two-thirds of the counties in the State are in destitute circumstances, and many will suffer for food and clothing this winter and spring, unless relieved by the noble kindness of the people of the Northern States.

ISAAC MURPHY, Governor of Arkansas.

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, LITTLE ROCK, December 9, 1865.

Rev. J. H. Leard:

DEAR SIR: Understanding that you leave in the morning on a mission of charity in behalf of the destitute in Arkansas, I feel constrained to throw in my mite of encouragement and approbation of your praiseworthy services.

The confession comes from me with reluctance—but, still, come it must—that there are thousands suffering in Arkansas for want of food and raiment, and who, unless speedily relieved, will, in many instances, during the winter, die from the effects of hunger and cold. These people reside generally in the western part of the State, and are chiefly the widows and orphans of Union soldiers, or the helpless connections and dependents of the aged and infirm, who have been reduced by robbery or exhausted in means and strength while flying from their enemies.

By next harvest, with the blessing of God, I trust our people will be able to spare of the first-fruits for a thank-offering and bless the hands reached out to help them. This is designed to be sent by — who intends to start for your city in the morning. He is acquainted with the wants of the people, and worthy of all confidence. For full particulars I respectfully refer you to him.

With high respects, yours,

ISAAC MURPHY, Governor of Arkansas.

An Emigrant Aid Society was formed at the capital to induce white settlers to occupy lands in the State. Arkansas has an area of 52,198 square miles, and extends in the great valley of the Mississippi from the line of 33 to 36½ degrees of north latitude, and is adapted alike to agriculture, commerce, and manufacturing. The Mississippi, along the eastern boundary, receives the water of six navigable rivers—the land is very fertile and adapted to almost all growths, from the apples and cereals of the Northwest to the cotton which is the great staple in the valleys of the Arkansas, Red, and Ouachita Rivers. Prices range from one to five dollars an acre, many large plantations having been subdivided with a view to sale since the abolition of slavery. There is plenty of wood and timber, oak, cedar, hickory, black walnut and yellow pine; in short, every material element of prosperity.

ARMY, CONFEDERATE. The numbers of the Southern forces in the field were greatly reduced by various causes during the winter of 1864-'65, and their final surrender and disappearance is described under the title ARMY OPERATIONS.

ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES. The year 1865, unlike its immediate predecessors, witnessed no new calls to fill up the depleted ranks of the army, but was distinguished rather by the ease and rapidity with which the immense hosts, assembled for the overthrow of the rebellion, were dispersed and merged into the active, industrial life of the country, so soon as the necessity ceased for their continuance in the service. The commencement of the year found the Government busily engaged in repairing the losses sustained in the recent bloody campaigns in Virginia and the South, and in preparing for the campaigns of the ensuing spring, which, it was rightly judged, would decide the war. The actual available force at

that time must have been below 500,000 men. Fortunately, however, the Government possessed not merely the authority but the machinery to remedy the ravages of war, and was about carrying into operation the President's call of December 20, 1864, for 300,000 men, which, as has been stated in the preceding volume of this work, was in point of fact equivalent to a call for 1865, as the men authorized by it were mostly obtained in the latter year. By the terms of the call all quotas or parts of quotas not filled by February 15, 1865, were to be filled by draft. In previous years, such had been the difficulty of persuading able-bodied men to forsake remunerative occupations and submit to the hardships of military service, that quotas were rarely filled at the appointed time, and in consequence either a draft or a new call became necessary. Fortunately in the present instance several events, happening subsequent to the call, such as the disastrous rout of Hood before Nashville, the triumphant march of Sherman through Georgia and Carolina, and the capture of Fort Fisher, by foreshadowing the speedy collapse of the "Confederacy," and consequently brief and probably not very arduous terms of service, gave a great stimulus to recruiting, and by the end of February the number of men obtained by this means was so large, that the draft lost much of the terror commonly associated with it.

The main features of the enrolment and conscription acts of 1863 or 1864, were given in the volume of this work for 1864 (pp. 39, 40). An additional act was passed at the second session of the Thirty-eighth Congress, which provided that, in case of the revision of any future enrolment, quotas of districts might be adjusted and apportioned to such revised enrolment; that persons mustered into the service should be credited to the place where they belong by actual residence; that substitute brokers, mustering officers, and persons liable to draft or drafted, shall be held to a strict accountability for improper persons admitted into the service through their connivance; and that all deserters from the military or naval service "shall be forever incapable of holding any office of trust or profit under the United States, or of exercising any rights of citizens thereof." Persons leaving the district in which they are enrolled, or going beyond the limits of the United States, with intent to avoid any draft into the military or naval service, duly ordered, are made liable to a similar penalty. The President, in conformity with a special provision of the act, by his proclamation of March 10th, notified deserters that they would be pardoned upon condition of returning within sixty days to their regiments, and serving for a period of time equal to their original term of enlistment. The twenty-third section enacted:

That any person or persons enrolled in any sub-district may, after notice of a draft, and before the same shall have taken place, cause to be mustered into the service of the United States such number of

recruits, not subject to draft, as they may deem expedient, which recruits shall stand to the credit of the persons thus causing them to be mustered in, and shall be taken as substitutes for such persons, so many of them as may be drafted, to the extent of the number of such recruits, and in the order designated by the principals at the time such recruits are thus as aforesaid mustered in.

This provision the Attorney-General, in a elaborate opinion, decided did not conflict with that section of the act of 1864 which enable any enrolled person, before a draft, to furnish "an acceptable substitute who is not liable to draft, nor at the time in the military or naval service of the United States," and provides that the person so furnishing such substitute, "shall be exempt from draft during the time for which such substitute shall not be liable to draft, not exceeding the time for which such substitute shall have been accepted." On the contrary, he was of the opinion that it provided for quite another case than that contemplated in the act of 1864, and was designed to offer inducement and present a stimulus to numbers or associations of individuals to obtain volunteer recruits for the army, and thus to encourage recruiting rather than the purchase of substitutes. The right, however, of the enrolled person, before the draft, to furnish a substitute, with the qualification above stated, and thus secure his exemption during the time for which such substitute shall have been accepted, is not in any respect disturbed. He also held that recruits, obtained in accordance with the section above quoted, are to be considered as other volunteer recruits obtained at the expense of the United States, and not as substitutes, in the ordinary sense of the term, who are furnished at the cost of the principals.

Subsequent to February 15th enlistments increased rather than diminished, and official reports show that on March 1st the aggregate national military force of all arms, officers and men, was 965,591.

This force was augmented on May 1st by enlistments to the number of 1,000,516 of all arms, officers and men, of whom probably about 650,000 were available for active duty. This nearly corresponds with the figures for May 1, 1864, which placed the aggregate national force at 970,710 men, of whom 662,345 were present for duty. The fact that after a year of almost unparalleled fighting and slaughter the army was recruited up to its original standard, speaks volumes in favor of the energy of the Government and the determination of the people.

Of the whole number of troops in the service on May 1, 1865, 194,635 were obtained under the call of December, 1864, for 300,000 men, as will appear by the following table:

Volunteers (white)	180,620
Volunteers (colored)	10,065
Regulars	6,958
Seamen	2,106
Marine Corps	819
Drafted men held to personal service	12,566
Substitutes for drafted men	12,014
Substitutes for enrolled men	12,997

Whole number raised under December call, 194,635

The general suspension of hostilities after the middle of April rendered it unnecessary to proceed with the draft, and the remainder of the 300,000 men required by this call were never put into the service.

The payment of the bounties to recruits authorized in the previous year continued during the early part of 1865, until recruiting was stopped. In reply to a communication from the House Committee on military affairs of the Thirty-ninth Congress, asking for information concerning the amount required to equalize the bounties of volunteers during the rebellion, the Secretary of War presented reports from the Provost-Marshal General and the Paymaster General, showing that 1,722,590 enlisted men received bounties as follows:

1,154,563 at \$100 each	\$115,456,300
10,696 at \$200 each	2,121,200
296,709 at \$300 each	119,012,700
153,599 at \$400 each	63,402,900
1,722,560	\$300,222,800

The number of enlisted men who received no bounties was 738,372. To pay each soldier or his representative enough to bring his bounty up to \$400, the largest bounty paid by the General Government, would require \$684,197,800. To pay each soldier such highest bounty, in proportion to the time of his service, would require \$551,392,900. After reverting to these figures the Provost-Marshal General adds:

I will take the liberty of reminding the Secretary of War that the foregoing inquiries and answers relate only to the expenditure that would result from an attempt to equalize the bounties of the General Government; and if this object were attained, even at the enormous cost shown above, it would be but a partial advance toward equalizing all the bounties, Government, State, and local, which have been paid to men for enlisting during the rebellion. The subject of requiring the General Government to assume all the bounties paid is already discussed, and if affirmatively decided, the present attempt to equalize Government bounties, if carried out, would establish a precedent for a further equalization of the expense of the Government of all bounties, and this would cost probably thousands of millions, instead of hundreds of millions. I feel justified in saying that in either attempt to equalize, but a small fraction of the money will ever reach the soldiers for whom it is intended.

From returns made by the Provost-Marshal General, it appears that the aggregate quotas charged against the several States under all the calls made by the President from April 15, 1861, to April 15, 1865, amounted to 2,759,049; and that the aggregate number of men credited on the several calls and put into the service during the same period was 2,656,553, leaving a deficiency on all calls, when the war closed, of 102,496, which would have been obtained in full if recruiting and drafting had not been discontinued. This number does not embrace the "emergency men" put into the service at various times during the summer of 1863, amounting to upward of 120,000 men, who served periods of two or three weeks. The following tables, furnished to Congress by the Secretary of War, in compliance with a

resolution of the House of Representatives adopted in December, 1865, give the latest official information with respect to the number of volunteers called for by the President at various periods:

Number of troops furnished by States.

STATES.	Aggregate.	Aggregate reduced to three years' standard.
Maine.....	71,745	56,595
New Hampshire.....	84,605	80,837
Vermont.....	86,356	29,002
Massachusetts.....	151,785	123,944
Rhode Island.....	23,711	17,573
Connecticut.....	57,270	50,514
New York.....	455,568	890,980
New Jersey.....	79,511	55,785
Pennsylvania.....	866,826	267,558
Delaware.....	13,651	10,303
Maryland.....	49,780	40,693
West Virginia.....	80,008	27,658
District of Columbia.....	16,873	11,506
Ohio.....	317,183	289,976
Indiana.....	195,147	152,288
Illinois.....	253,217	212,694
Michigan.....	90,119	80,565
Wisconsin.....	96,118	73,935
Minnesota.....	25,064	19,675
Iowa.....	75,860	63,183
Missouri.....	108,778	86,192
Kentucky.....	78,540	70,943
Kansas.....	20,097	19,654
Total.....	2,658,062	2,129,041

Number of troops furnished under different calls.

	Number of men.	Terms of enlistment.
Call of April 15, 1861, for 75,000 men....	98,285	3 months.
	2,715	6 months.
	9,056	1 year.
Call of May 8 and July 23 and 25, 1861, for 500,000 men.....	30,952	2 years.
	657,863	3 years.
Call of July 2, 1862, for 500,000 men....	419,627	3 years.
Call of August 4, 1862, for 300,000 men....	84,860	9 months.
Proclamation of June 15, 1863, for militia, Calls of October 17, 1863, and February 1, 1864, for 500,000 men.....	16,861	6 months.
	874,307	3 years.
Call of March 14, 1864, for 200,000 men.....	234,021	3 years.
Militia mustered into service in spring of 1864.....	68,612	100 days.
	149,256	1 & 2 yrs.
Call of July 18, 1864, for 500,000 men....	234,798	3 years.
	728	1 year.
	151,105	1 year.
Call of December 19, 1864, for 300,000 men.....	5,076	2 years.
	48,063	3 years.
	812	4 years.

In estimating the number of men called into the service, it has been the rule of the War Department to take into account only the whole number of men mustered, without regard to the fact that the same persons may have been previously discharged, after having been accepted and credited on previous calls. Hence, as volunteers have been accepted for terms varying from three months to three years, many thousands of persons were enlisted under two or more calls. A notable instance of this practice was the reenlistment of nearly 150,000 "veteran volunteers" in 1863 and 1864. In order, therefore, to ascertain the number of men entering the service for the first time under the different calls, the number credited should be reduced in the same ratio that the enlistments of the same persons have been repeated. To what extent this reduction must

be made it is not now possible to determine with any degree of accuracy. The only fact at present settled beyond a doubt is, that the tax upon the military resources of the country has been less than would appear by considering simply the number of men embraced in the different calls for troops, or the number of credits allowed upon these calls.

The colored troops continued, during 1865, to form a large and efficient portion of the army, and at the several battles before Nashville, the capture of Fort Fisher, the final operations around Richmond, and numerous minor engagements, sustained their previous well-earned reputation for bravery and soldierly qualities. Such was the popularity of this branch of the service that, in addition to the 101,950 colored soldiers reported in arms in November, 1864, 49,509 were enlisted within the next six months, which, considering the difficulties of recruiting from this class of the population, must be considered a very large number. Of these 4,244 were recruited in the insurrectionary States and credited to the other States under the provisions of the act of July 4, 1864. The whole number enlisted into the service during the war was 178,975, and the losses within the same period from sickness, desertion, or casualties incidental to military life, amounted to 68,178. On July 15, 1865, the number of this class of troops in the service was 123,156, organized as follows:

One hundred and twenty regiments of infantry.....	98,888
Twelve regiments of heavy artillery.....	15,682
Ten batteries of light artillery.....	1,811
Seven regiments of cavalry.....	7,245
Total.....	123,156

This was the largest number of colored soldiers in service at any one time during the war. The following table shows that commissions in these organizations, which at the outset few competent officers were willing to accept, subsequently became in considerable request:

Number of applicants for commissions.....	9,019
Number examined.....	3,790
Number rejected.....	1,472
Number appointed.....	2,818
Total number of appointments and promotions.....	3,578

From the returns made at the bureau for colored troops, it appears that the whole number of claims for compensation on account of the enlistment of slaves from Delaware and Maryland was 3,971, of which twenty-five have been paid, amounting in the aggregate to \$6,900. Two hundred and ninety-four were rejected, and the remainder are under consideration by the local boards, or the commission established by General Orders of October 3, 1863.

The surrender the army under Gen. Lee, on April 9, 1865, gave the death blow to the Southern cause; and although considerable forces under Johnston, Taylor, and Kirby Smith still kept the field, the speedy termination of the war seemed so certain that the Government determined at once to curtail its immense military establishment, and thereby reduce the ex-

penses, which were rapidly eating into the resources of the nation. The immediate release of half a million or more of men was also urgently needed in the agricultural districts, where in the preceding year the want of able-bodied farm laborers had been keenly felt. Accordingly, as an earnest of what was to follow, the Secretary of War issued on April 18th, four days before Lee's surrender, the day before the assassination of President Lincoln, the following notice:

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, April 18—6 P. M.
The Department, after mature consideration and consultation with the Lieutenant-General upon the results of the recent campaigns, has come to the following determinations, which will be carried into effect by appropriate orders to be immediately issued.

First—To stop all drafting and recruiting in the loyal States.

Second—To curtail purchases for arms, ammunition, quartermaster and commissary supplies, and reduce the military establishment in its several branches.

Third—To reduce the number of general and staff officers to the actual necessities of the service.

Fourth—To remove all military restrictions upon trade and commerce, so far as may be consistent with public safety.

As soon as these measures can be put in operation it will be made known by public order.

EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

Before the close of April, the measures contemplated in the foregoing notice began to be carried into effect, with a rapidity surprising to those who could not appreciate the perfection to which the necessary machinery had been brought by four years of experience; and in an almost incredibly short time, the great bulk of the armies scattered over the country was returned to the peaceful pursuits of civil life. The following general order gave the necessary details:

General Orders No. 77.

WAR DEPARTMENT, ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE, }
WASHINGTON, April 28, 1865.

For reducing the expenses of the military establishment, ordered, 1st, that the chiefs of the respective bureaus of this Department proceed immediately to reduce the expenses of their respective departments to what is absolutely necessary in view of an immediate reduction of the forces in the field and in garrison, and the speedy termination of hostilities, and that they severally make out statements of the reductions they deem practicable.

2. That the Quartermaster-General discharge all ocean transports not required to bring home troops in remote departments. All river and inland transportation will be discharged, except that required for the necessary supplies of troops in the field. Purchases of horses, mules, wagons, and other land transportation will be stopped, also purchases of forage, except what is required for immediate consumption. All purchases for railroad construction and transportation also to be stopped.

3. That the Commissary-General of Subsistence discontinue the purchase of supplies in his department, except such as, with what is on hand, be required for the forces in the field to the first of June next.

4. That the Chief of Ordnance stop all purchases of arms, ammunition, and materials therefor, and reduce the manufacture of arms and ordnance stores in Government Arsenals as rapidly as can be done without injury to the service.

5. That the Chief of Engineers stop work on all field fortifications and other works, except those for which specific appropriations have been made by Congress for their completion, or that may be required for the proper protection of works in progress.

6. That all soldiers in hospitals who require no further medical treatment be honorably discharged from service, with immediate payment. All officers and enlisted men who have been prisoners of war and are now on furlough or in parole camps, and all recruits in rendezvous, except those for the Regular Army, will likewise be honorably discharged. Officers whose duty it is under the regulations to make out rolls and other final papers connected with the discharge and payment of soldiers, are directed to make them out without delay, so that this order may be carried into effect immediately.

7. The Adjutant-General of the Army will cause immediate returns to be made by all commanders in the field, garrisons, detachments, and posts of their respective forces, with a view to their immediate reduction.

8. Quartermasters of Subsistence, Engineers, and Provost-Marshal Generals of departments will reduce the number of their clerks and employés to that absolutely required for closing the business of their respective departments, and will without delay report to the Secretary of War the number required of each class or grade. The Surgeon-General will make similar reductions of surgeons, nurses, and attendants in his bureau.

9. The chiefs of the respective bureaus will immediately cause proper returns to be made out of the public property in their charge and statements of property in each that may be sold upon advertisement and publication without prejudice to the service.

10. The Commissary of Prisoners will make out the name, residence, time and place of capture and occupation of all prisoners of war who will take the oath of allegiance to the United States, to the end that such as are disposed to become good and loyal citizens of the United States, and who are proper subjects of Executive clemency, may be released upon terms that the President shall deem fit and consistent with the public safety.

By order of the Secretary of War.

W. A. NICHOLS, Assistant Adjutant-General.

Official: THOMAS W. VINCENT, A. A. G.

In furtherance of this order, regulations were prepared and promulgated for the muster out and discharge of the volunteer troops in the service. Accordingly rendezvous were established in the field as well as in most of the States, at the former of which all surplus property was taken possession of by the staff officers of the respective supply departments, and the muster out rolls and other discharge papers prepared under the direction of the commissaries of musters and their assistants. Corps and department commanders were instructed to see that the work was pushed with energy, using for that end the division and brigade commanders and their respective staff officers to superintend it. As soon as a regiment or other organization had its muster-out papers prepared, it was placed en route to its State for payment and final discharge. At the State rendezvous was stationed the chief mustering officer of the State, or one or more of his assistants, with paymasters, quartermasters, commissaries of subsistence, and ordnance officers, who were charged with the payment and final discharge of the troops; their care while awaiting the same; the reception of the public property surren-

dered by them, and their transportation to their homes after discharge. By these arrangements the disbanding of the troops was conducted with regularity and despatch, and order and discipline were maintained during their progress to their respective States and after arrival therein. The rapidity with which the work was carried on will be apparent from the following statistics:

Troops mustered out to August 7	640,906
Do. do. August 22	719,883
Do. do. September 14	741,107
Do. do. October 15	753,905
Do. do. November 15	800,968

From which it appears that during the quarter succeeding the promulgation of general orders No. 77, troops were disbanded at the rate of nearly 300,000 a month, and that within six months after the complete suspension of hostilities four-fifths of the army had disappeared. Such a speedy and quiet absorption of so large a body of armed men into the industrial life of a nation, with scarce a trace left behind of the influence or evil effects of their recent calling, is probably unexampled in the history of the world. A partial exception to this general disbanding was made with respect to the colored troops, of whom 85,024 remained in the service in November, 33,334 having been mustered out.

Upon the discharge of troops the services of a great number of staff, field, and other officers were no longer required. Many of these at once resigned, many were honorably mustered out, and until the close of the year the Government continued to rid itself of superfluous generals as occasion required. Those who held commissions in the regular army as a general rule resumed them, but many of these, not caring to lapse into the condition of a subaltern of regulars, after having been general officers of volunteers, and dreading, too, the inertness of military life in peaceful times, availed themselves of the opportunity to engage in civil professions or a political career. "No doubt," says the Secretary of War in his annual report, "in many instances it has been painful for gallant and accomplished officers to leave that service to which they have been accustomed, and where they have won honorable distinction. But it is to the credit of the volunteer service that they have recognized the obligation of the Government to reduce the military establishment with the occasion that called it into existence, and that their own wishes or interest have not been importunately urged against the necessities of the service." In another part of the same document, alluding to the rapidity with which troops were raised during the war, he says: "Our experience on this point is significant. When Lee's army surrendered, thousands of recruits were pouring in, and men were discharged from recruiting stations and rendezvous in every State. On several occasions when troops were promptly needed to avert impending disasters, vigorous exertion brought them into the field from remote States with incredible speed. Official reports show that after

the disasters on the Peninsula in 1862, over 80,000 troops were enlisted, organized, armed, equipped, and sent to the field in less than a month. 60,000 troops have repeatedly gone to the field within four weeks. And 90,000 infantry were sent to the armies from the five States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin within twenty days." As a corollary from the above he concludes that our resources in men, arms, and ammunition, clothing, transportation, and subsistence supplies are so extensive as to enable the Government to reduce its standing military force in time of peace to a lower degree than any other nation.

Accordingly the estimates for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1867, are \$33,814,461.83 as against \$516,240,131.70 for the preceding year, and are based upon a standing force of 50,000 men, so organized as to admit of an increase, without additional organizations, to 82,000 troops of all arms. The public mind does not, however, appear to be yet settled with regard to the size or composition of the force to be retained as a standing army in time of peace, and several projects for the reorganization of the army have been initiated at the first session of the thirty-ninth Congress. A bill reported by the Senate Committee on military affairs provides that the army shall consist of—

Five regiments of artillery.....	9,000 men.
Twelve regiments of cavalry.....	12,000 "
Fifty-five regiments of infantry.....	85,000 "
Total.....	50,000 "

to be called the Army of the United States. The artillery regiments are to have the same organization as at present, and the President may at his discretion cause four of the cavalry regiments to be drilled as infantry. The infantry regiments are to consist of the ten regiments of ten companies each now in the service; the remaining nine regiments made into twenty-seven, by adding to each of the three battalions of eight companies each, of which they are composed, two companies; ten regiments of colored men, and eight of disabled men, or men discharged by disability. The officers of the two latter classes of regiments are to be taken from the officers of colored troops, the veteran reserve corps, and other officers of volunteers disabled in the service. No officer below the rank of general officer is to be promoted without passing an examination, and those failing in such examination are to be suspended or dropped. No persons are to be commissioned in any regiment until examined by boards convened by the Secretary of War, which are to ascertain the candidate's attainments in military history, his services during the war, and general qualifications. The infantry regiments can be increased if necessary to fifty-five thousand men, which would make an army corresponding, both on a peace and a war footing, very nearly with the estimate of the Secretary of War. The general officers contemplated by this bill are one lieutenant-general, five major-generals, and ten brigadier-generals.

Another project for the reorganization of the army provides for a force of 160,000 men, composed of regiments ten companies strong each, and commanded by a general-in-chief, three generals, sixteen major-generals, and thirty-two brigadier-generals. A field staff and department staff are also provided for. One-half of the promotions are to be made according to seniority and the other half according to merit, to be determined by boards of examiners. It requires an officer to serve two years in the line before entering the staff of the army, and makes West Point a staff school. Any one who can pass the necessary examination may enter the army as second lieutenant. The plan exempts officers' salaries from taxation, allows officers to be retired after twenty-five years' service, and gives them the right to hold civil office while in retirement. It incorporates the old regular army as a part of the new army, and prescribes rules for uniform, leaves of absence, furloughs, and court-martials.

Pending the adoption of a plan of reorganization, the forces in the service at the close of 1865 comprised the old regular army, viz.: nineteen regiments of infantry, of which ten are of ten companies each, and nine of twenty-four companies each; six regiments of cavalry, and five of artillery, together with somewhat over a hundred thousand troops, white and colored, of all arms, the remains of the veteran reserve corps and old volunteer organizations. The latter are being gradually mustered out as occasion ceases for their services, while active efforts are making to recruit the regular regiments, service in which was never so popular during the war as in the volunteer organizations. From the report of the adjutant-general it appears that the number of regular recruits enlisted for all arms from October 31, 1864, to October 1, 1865, was 19,555. The regular regiments are now distributed over all parts of the country, and have an authorized strength of 952 officers and 41,819 men. Their actual strength in January, 1866, according to a return made by the Secretary of War, was 1,124 officers and 23,795 men, an aggregate of 24,919. Of the officers, 100 in the cavalry are absent, 113 in the artillery, and 368 in the infantry. Of the men, 5,472 are recruits assigned since the last return. All the regiments except the 17th are assigned to military departments. At the close of the year several thousand applications for commissions in the regular service were on file, and for the purpose of securing the requisite number of competent officers, a board was appointed to examine applicants and determine their relative merits. Two years' actual service in the war are indispensable for appointment.

With the termination of the war, the operations of the Provost-Marshal General's bureau, which in former years were of great importance and extent, have been very considerably curtailed. At the close of the year, the surgeons and commissioners of boards of enrolment in

all the districts, three hundred and seventy in number, had been discharged, and but thirty-three provost-marshals were in the service, all of whom, it was supposed, could soon be dispensed with.

The following statement exhibits the operations of the Paymaster General's Department:

Balance in hands of paymasters and unissued requisitions in the Treasury at the beginning of fiscal year (July 1, 1864)	\$36,039,803
Received from the treasury during the fiscal year (including unissued requisitions in treasury on June 30, 1865)	837,300,000
Received by paymasters from other sources, exclusive of sums transferred among themselves,	6,815,187
Total to be accounted for	\$430,054,946
Accounted for as follows:	
Disbursements to the regular army	7,839,225
Disbursements to the Military Academy	153,009
Disbursements to the volunteers	300,798,683
Total disbursements	\$899,370,960
Amount of unissued requisitions in the treasury on June 30, 1865	65,900,000
Balance actually in hands of paymasters on June 30, 1865	55,422,985
Total	\$430,054,946

Since the commencement of the current fiscal year, besides the above sums in the hands of paymasters, and the unissued requisitions, \$94,000,000 were disbursed or distributed for disbursement, making a total expenditure, from June 30, 1864, to October 31, 1865, of \$524,054,946. Of this large sum, more than one-half, \$270,000,000, was paid to disbanded volunteer troops mustered out of service, and who numbered in the aggregate over 800,000 men. The total amount of money disbursed by the pay department during the four years of war, was \$1,029,239,000, at an expense of \$6,970,600, or less than seven-tenths of one per cent. of the sum disbursed. The total losses and defalcations during the same period amounted to \$541,000, of which it is estimated that fully one-half will be recovered.

The operations of the Quartermaster General's bureau during the year were on an unusually extended scale, and those connected with the transportation of large bodies of troops, as that of the 23d Corps, in January, from Nashville to the Atlantic seaboard, a distance of 1,400 miles, afforded, to quote the language of Secretary Stanton, "striking illustrations of the improvements in the art of war which have been developed in the late contest." In that instance the transfer was made in the depth of an inclement season, in the brief space of eleven days. Transportation was promptly supplied, during the spring and summer, to the disbanded armies, and in this service, as well as for the conveyance of stores, upward of 1,000 vessels were employed on the ocean and inland waters. The ocean fleet alone numbered seven hundred vessels, of which only three were lost. At the close of the year nearly all of these had been put out of commission or sold, and the monthly expenses of this branch of the service were reduced \$1,814,130. Until the cessation of hostilities the construction corps of the depart-

ment was actively employed in the repair and maintenance of the great railroad lines of communication in the Southern States. The surrender of the Confederate armies, and the pacification of the South, enabled the department to return to their former possessors most of the railroads which had been in military possession during the war. Under the direction of the executive, the great quantities of rolling stock on these roads accumulated by the department during the war, have been distributed to the different companies, who are required to pay for it within two years, at a valuation fixed by a board of officers and experts assembled by the Government. The supplies furnished during the year from the depots of the department are indicated by the following table:

Bushels of Grain	22,000,000
Tons of Hay	400,000
Cords of Wood	896,000
Tons of Coal	832,000

The supplies furnished during the war were:

Bushels of Corn	23,000,000
Bushels of Oats	73,000,000
Bushels of Barley	98,000
Tons of Hay	1,500,000
Tons of Straw	20,000
Cords of Wood	550,000
Tons of Coal	1,600,700

From Sept. 1, 1864, to June 30, 1865, 20,714 artillery horses were purchased; and from July 1, 1864, to June 30, 1865, 58,818 mules. During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1865, the number of cavalry horses purchased amounted to 141,632. The reduction of the army has enabled the department to dispense with large numbers of horses and mules, the sums realized from the sale of which amounted, at the close of the year, to upward of \$3,000,000. In all, 83,887 persons employed by the department had been discharged at the end of December, 1865, reducing the monthly expenses \$4,083,093; and the sales of property of all kinds reported and recorded on the books of the Quartermaster General's office, from April 20 to Nov. 8, 1865, amounted to \$13,357,345. In the single item of forage alone the saving in Sept., 1865, was \$2,160,000, as compared with the expenditure of the preceding March.

The burial records of the Quartermaster's Department, which do not include the names of those who fell in battle, and were buried on the field by their comrades, show the interment of 116,148 persons, of whom 98,827 were loyal, and 12,596 disloyal; and 95,803 were whites, and 22,345 colored persons. A detail of men was sent to the prison at Andersonville, where the graves of 12,461 Union soldiers were identified, and marked with appropriate headboards. On 451 graves the inscription, "Unknown U. S. Soldier" was placed.

At the termination of active military movements 204 general hospitals, with a capacity of 136,894 beds, were in operation. Within the next eight months, upward of 170 of these establishments were discontinued, and the vast accumulations of surplus medicines and hospital supplies were disposed of at auction. Most of the

surgeons of volunteers and chaplains attached to these hospitals, were mustered out of service during the year. The health of the troops was fully equal to that of preceding years, notwithstanding military movements of unprecedented magnitude were pushed to a successful completion, and, except among the returned prisoners, who were more or less affected by typhoid fever, no unusual epidemic prevails. The returns of sick and wounded show that the number of cases treated in general hospitals from 1861 to July 1, 1865, amounted to 1,057,423. The medical bureau is in possession of 30,000 special reports of the more important forms of surgical injuries, of diseases and operations, which, together with an extensive pathological collection, it is proposed to employ in the preparation of a medical and surgical history of the war.

The sea-coast defences progressed during the year only to such an extent as the services of competent officers to superintend them could be spared from active military operations. The permanent forts on the Gulf have, since their repossession by the Government, been repaired and put in a defensive condition, and great activity has been manifested in mounting these works, as well as those on the Atlantic coast, with guns of a heavier calibre than were employed before the war. Efforts have also been made to increase the capacity of manufacturing sea-coast carriages, and it is contemplated hereafter to mount all siege and field-pieces on iron carriages. The Ordnance Department has discovered nothing yet to supersede the large smooth-bore cast-iron pieces, of which the Government now possesses so considerable a number. No rifled cannon that can be implicitly relied upon have been yet manufactured. Nearly a million of good Springfield muskets, and about half as many of foreign or captured muskets, are now in the national arsenals, and, in view of such a supply, the enormous manufacture of small arms carried on at the armories during the war was, subsequent to the termination of hostilities, reduced to the peace standard. Notwithstanding many experiments have been made, no satisfactory breach-loading musket has yet been invented, and the infantry continue to be armed with the muzzle-loading piece heretofore in use. Experiments have latterly been instituted, however, with reference to converting the old muzzle-loaders into breech-loaders. The immense amount of equipments, projectiles, and other material of war which accumulated during the progress of military operations, has, as far as was practicable, or consistent with economy, been stored away for future use, rendering the Government far better prepared for hostilities than at any previous period of the national history. "The artillery on hand," says the Secretary of War, "tasks the department for its means of storage. The manufacture of ammunition requires materials for which we have in some degree relied upon other countries, because they could be had cheaper. For

this reason, and to guard against mischance, three years' stock of material for ammunition has already been kept in store, and the supply on hand is ample for any war that can be waged against us by any nation." The number of arms in the national depositories would have been much greater at the close of the year, had not the soldiers been allowed, when mustered out of the service, to retain their arms at a nominal price, which most of them willingly paid.

The signal corps, which at the close of 1864 numbered over 1,500 officers and enlisted men, was, subsequent to the termination of hostilities, reduced to about one-tenth that number. On account of the usefulness of the services rendered by the corps during the war, it has been determined to retain in the service this nucleus of an organization, which can be hereafter enlarged as circumstances may require. To the 12,000 miles of military telegraph in operation at the close of 1864, over 3,000 were added previous to the close of the war. Upwards of 6,000 miles are still in use.

The business of the Bureau of Military Justice has experienced no diminution since the close of hostilities. The Judge-Advocate General reported that subsequent to March 2, 1865, 16,591 records of general courts-martial had been received, reviewed, and filed, and 6,123 special reports made as to the regularity of proceedings, the pardon of offenders, &c., besides numerous miscellaneous questions. A new and enlarged edition of the "Digest of Opinions of the Judge-Advocate General" is about to be published. For the discharge of military prisoners and the military departments of the country, *see* ARMY OPERATIONS.

In compliance with a resolution of the thirtieth Congress, adopted at its first session, the Secretary of War, early in 1866, reported the following general officers of the regular army and of volunteers in service on February 1st, 1866:

Regular Army.

LIUTENANT-GENERAL.

Ulysses S. Grant, Washington, D. C., commanding Army United States.

MAJOR-GENERALS.

Henry W. Halleck, San Francisco, Cal., commanding Military Division Pacific.

William T. Sherman, St. Louis, Mo., commanding Military Division Mississippi.

Geo. G. Meade, Philadelphia, Pa., commanding Military Division Atlantic.

Philip H. Sheridan, New Orleans, La., commanding Military Division of the Gulf.

George H. Thomas, Nashville, Tenn., commanding Military Division of Tennessee.

BRIGADIER-GENERALS.

Irvin McDowell, San Francisco, Cal., commanding Department of California.

W. S. Rosecrans, on leave of absence till July 1, 1866.

Philip St. George Cooke, New York, General Recruiting Service.

John Pope, St. Louis, Mo., commanding Department of Missouri.

Joseph Hooker, New York, commanding Department of the East.

W. S. Hancock, Baltimore, Md., commanding Middle Department.

J. M. Schofield, on leave of absence.
O. O. Howard, Washington, D. C., Bureau of Freedmen.

Alfred H. Terry, Richmond, Va., commanding Department of Virginia.

John A. Rawlins, Washington, D. C., Chief of Staff.
Lorenzo Thomas, on inspection duty, Special Instructions.

Joseph Holt, Washington, Judge-Advocate General.
Jas. B. Fry, Washington, Provost-Marshal General.
M. C. Meigs, Washington, Quartermaster-General.
Amos B. Eaton, Washington, Commissary-General.
Joseph K. Barnes, Washington, Surgeon-General.
Richard Delafield, Washington, Chief-Engineer.
A. B. Dyer, Washington, Chief of Ordnance.

Volunteers.

MAJOR-GENERALS.

Ethan A. Hitchcock, Washington, D. C.; under special orders of the Secretary of War; in charge of Office of the Commissary-General of Prisoners.

Irvin McDowell, San Francisco, Cal.; commanding Department of California.

John Pope, St. Louis, Mo.; commanding Department of the Missouri.

Samuel R. Curtis, Commissioner to examine the Union Pacific Railroad under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior.

Edward O. C. Ord, Detroit, Mich., commanding Department of the Ohio.

Joseph Hooker, New York City; commanding Department of the East.

John G. Foster, Tallahassee, Fla., commanding Department of Florida.

Christopher C. Augur, Washington, D. C.; commanding Department of Washington.

George Stoneman, Memphis, Tenn., commanding Department of Tennessee.

Oliver O. Howard, Washington, D. C., Commissioner of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands.

Daniel E. Sickles, Charleston, S. C., commanding Department of South Carolina. (Lost a leg in battle.)

Winfield S. Hancock, Baltimore, Md., commanding Middle Department.

John M. Palmer, Louisville, Ky., commanding Department of Kentucky.

Frederick Steele, Fort Vancouver, W. T., commanding Department of the Columbia.

Joseph J. Reynolds, Little Rock, Ark., commanding Department of Arkansas.

John M. Schofield, on leave of absence.

Andrew A. Humphreys, in charge of work on levees on the Mississippi River.

James B. Steedman, Augusta, Ga., commanding Department of Georgia.

Edward R. S. Canby, New Orleans, La., commanding Department of Louisiana.

Horatio G. Wright, Galveston, Texas, commanding Department of Texas.

Alfred H. Terry, Richmond, Va., commanding Department of Virginia.

Thomas J. Wood, Vicksburg, Miss., commanding Department of Mississippi.

Gresham Mott, Washington, D. C., under orders of War Department. Member of special commission.

Nelson A. Miles, Fort Monroe, Va., commanding District of Fort Monroe.

Alvan C. Gillem, Chattanooga, Tenn., commanding district of East-Tennessee.

Francis Fessenden, Washington, D. C., under orders of Major-General Augur. (Lost a leg in battle.)

BRIGADIER-GENERALS.

Thos. W. Sherman, New Orleans, La., commanding Eastern District of Louisiana. (Lost a leg in battle.)

James B. Ricketts, Annapolis, Md., president of a general court-martial.

Seth Williams, Washington, D. C., Acting Inspector-General Armies of the United States. Member of a Special Commission.

Charles R. Woods, Mobile, Ala., commanding Department of Alabama.

Walter Q. Gresham, New Ind. On leave of absence.

John M. Corse, St. Paul, Minn., commanding District of Minnesota.

John W. Turner, Richmond, Va., commanding District of Henrico.

John R. Brooke, Annapolis, Md.; member of a general court-martial.

Emory Upton, Denver City, Colorado Territory; commanding District of Colorado.

William F. Bartlett, on leave of absence on account of wounds.

John B. McIntosh, Annapolis, Md., member of a general court-martial. (Lost a leg in battle.)

George H. Chapman, Department of Missouri, under orders of Major-General Pope.

Joseph A. Haskin, Washington, D. C., commanding defences around Washington. Member of a general court-martial.

John W. Sprague, St. Louis, Mo., Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau for the States of Missouri and Arkansas.

Robert K. Scott, Napoleon, Ohio, assigned to duty in the Freedmen's Bureau.

Galusha Pennypacker, West Chester, Pa., on leave of absence. (Severely wounded in battle.)

Wager Swaine, Montgomery, Ala., Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau for the State of Alabama.

Stewart Van Vliet, New York city, chief depot quartermaster in New York.

Thomas M. Harris, under orders to report in person to the Secretary of War.

Frederick T. Dent, Washington, D. C., commanding garrison.

Lewis B. Parsons; supervising the disposition of Government boats and barges on the Western rivers.

Louis D. Watkins, Louisville, Ky., commanding post.

John M. Brannan, Savannah, Ga., commanding District of Savannah.

George W. Cullum, West Point, N. Y., Superintendent of the Military Academy.

Jefferson C. Davis, Louisville, Ky., commanding First Division Department of Kentucky.

William S. Ketchum, Washington, D. C., on special duty in the War Department.

James H. Carleton, Santa Fé, New Mexico, commanding District of New Mexico.

Abasalom Baird, New Orleans, La., Assist. Com'r of the Freedmen's Bureau for the State of Louisiana.

John C. Robinson, Albany, N. Y., commanding District of Northern and Western New York. (Lost a leg in battle.)

Henry Price, Alexandria, Va., member of a general court-martial.

George S. Greene, Alexandria, Va., President of a general court-martial.

Henry J. Hunt, Fort Smith, Ark., commanding Frontier District, Department of Arkansas.

George W. Getty, Baltimore, Md., commanding District of Baltimore, Middle Department.

Alfred Sully, Clinton, Iowa, commanding District of Upper Missouri.

Clinton B. Fisk, Nashville, Tenn., Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau for the States of Kentucky and Tennessee.

Thomas G. Pitcher, Indianapolis, Ind., commanding District of Indiana, and Chief Mustering and Disbursing officer, &c., for the State of Indiana.

Frank Wheaton, Omaha City, Nebraska Territory, commanding District of Nebraska.

John S. Mason, Prescott, Arizona Territory, commanding District of Arizona.

Romeyn B. Ayres, Winchester, Va., commanding District of the Shenandoah.

John E. Smith, Memphis, Tenn., commanding District of West Tennessee.

Thomas H. Huger, Raleigh, N. C., commanding Department of North Carolina.

Davis Tillson, Augusta, Ga., Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau for the State of Georgia.

George J. Stannard, St. Albans, Vt. (Severely wounded in battle.)

Patrick E. Connor, Great Salt Lake City, Utah Territory, commanding District of Utah, Department of the Missouri.

Gabriel R. Paul, Harrodsburg, Ky., in charge of Soldier's Home. (Severely wounded in battle.)

Adelbert Ames, Columbia, S. C., commanding District of Western South Carolina.

Daniel H. Rucker, Washington, D. C., Chief Depot Quartermaster.

Robert Allen, Louisville, Ky., Chief Quartermaster Valley of the Mississippi.

Rufus Ingalls, Washington, D. C., on duty at headquarters armies of the United States.

RECAPITULATION.

<i>Regular Army</i> —Lieutenant-General, . . .	1
" Major-Generals, . . .	5
" Brigadier-Generals, . . .	18
Total, . . .	24
<i>Volunteers</i> —Major-Generals, . . .	26
" Brigadier-Generals, . . .	49
Total, . . .	75

ARMY OPERATIONS. The severe weather of the winter months of 1864-'65, caused no cessation in army operations. Maj.-Gen. Thomas, after pursuing the retreating forces of Gen. Hood from Tennessee, collected his troops at Eastport. Thence a considerable body of his men, consisting of the 23d corps under Gen. Schofield, were moved by railroad to the Atlantic coast, and landed on the North Carolina shore. Another small portion was sent to Gen. Sherman at Savannah. To Gen. Thomas was now assigned the defence of that extended portion of the country from Atlanta north and westward, which belonged to the department under Gen. Sherman, when he commenced his march upon Savannah. The large garrisons which had been required at Memphis and other places on the Mississippi River, also in Tennessee and Kentucky, had been set free by his new position, and were able to join his forces. At the same time, the army of Gen. Hood had been fatally reduced. The situation of Eastport, on the Tennessee River, near the junction of the lines of Tennessee, Mississippi, and Alabama, placed the northern portion of the two latter States at the mercy of Gen. Thomas.

On Jan. 16th, 1865, Gen. Croxton, with a division of the 16th corps and the 1st division of cavalry, reconnoitred from Eastport toward Corinth, passing through Iuka and Brownsville. It appeared that a small force of Gen. Hood's army held Corinth, while the main body was at Tupelo. Thirty-five of the enemy were captured at the depot, and a hotel at Corinth burned. Deserters, averaging from thirty to fifty daily, were coming within Gen. Thomas's lines, from Hood's army. Subsequently a part of Gen. Hood's forces were marched by land eastward across the State of Georgia, to assist in opposing Gen. Sherman. This movement left Gen. Thomas free in the latter part of February to coöperate with Gen. Canby against Mobile, and Southern Alabama, and Mississippi.

Thus far the quiet of the Army of the Potomac, since its operations last described, had been undisturbed, except by those incidents usual to hostile armies when near each other. No important movement had been attempted. Under the call for troops in December, 1864, large numbers were going forward to fill its ranks. The withdrawal of a portion of the fleet and of the forces of the Army of the James for the second attack on Wilmington, tempted the enemy at Richmond to make a demonstration for the purpose of breaking the pontoon bridges over the James, and cutting the communication between the Federal forces on the two banks. If successful, it was undoubtedly the purpose to follow it up by an attack on the forces on the north bank. A fleet, consisting of the Virginia, Fredericksburg, and Richmond, iron-clads carrying four guns each, and the wooden vessels Drewry, Nansemond, and Hampton, with two guns each, the Buford, one gun, the steamer Torpedo, and three torpedo boats, left Richmond on Jan. 23d. About midnight the fleet passed Fort Brady, and began to pass the obstructions. A fire was now opened by the fort, to which the enemy replied, dismounting a hundred pounder in the fort, and escaping beyond its range. The chain in front of the obstructions beyond the lower end of the Dutch Gap Canal was cut, and the Fredericksburg passed through. But the Richmond, Virginia, and Drewry, in attempting to follow, grounded. The Drewry could not be got off, and was abandoned as daylight appeared, and was blown up subsequently by a shell from the battery on shore. The report of the affair by the enemy was as follows:

The flagship of the expedition was the Virginia, commanded by Lieutenant Dunington. The Richmond was commanded by Lieutenant Bell, who was First Lieutenant on the Alabama at the time of her fight with the Kearsarge. The Fredericksburg was commanded by Lieutenant Sheppard. The latter vessel, being of light draught, passed clean through the obstruction, but the others found a lower tier of obstructions deeply submerged, and which had not been moved by the freshet; the depth of water over them being impassable by vessels of their draught. The Virginia received a shot in the centre by a three hundred pounder Parrott shell, fired from a Yankee Monitor, being struck when trying to get off sunken obstructions in the river. The shot displaced a few of her bolts, and killed five of her crew. No other damage was done, but it was found that her engines were fouled, not in consequence of the shot, and that she was not in fighting order; in the mean time the fire of our vessels had completely silenced the Yankee shore batteries, and a number of shots were exchanged with the Monitor, with what effect is not known. In consequence of the condition of the Virginia's engine, it was decided, on a consultation of the officers of the flotilla, to withdraw all vessels, which was done without further casualty. It had been impossible to survey the channel to any great extent on account of the enemy's picket fire, and the submerged obstructions of the river were found to be more effectual than they were supposed to be.

This was followed by shelling between the hostile batteries on the river throughout the day, and during the night the fleet returned to Richmond.

On the night of Jan. 31st, marching orders

mained secure. The loss of Gen. Smyth was about three hundred, and that of the enemy who made the attack somewhat larger.

During the night the 5th corps was brought into connection, on the left of the 2d corps, with the left of the 5th, covered by the cavalry of Gen. Gregg. The 6th and 9th corps were also so disposed as to render assistance to the 5th and 2d. In the morning the position of the troops was strengthened by constant work until noon. At this time Gen. Crawford's division of the 5th corps was sent toward Dabney's mills, in order to reach the Boydton plank road. The country through which the route lay was covered with woods, swamps, and ravines, cutting it up in all directions. At the same time the enemy, believing the Federal force had recrossed Hatcher's Run and abandoned the advance, had sent out Gen. Pegram with his division. About two miles above the Vaughan road his skirmishers met those of Gen. Crawford, and after a sharp contest were forced back toward his original position. The division of Gen. Evans came to the assistance of Pegram, and the advance of Gen. Crawford was checked. The division of Gen. Ayres was now sent to support Gen. Crawford, and a brigade of Griffin's to support Gen. Gregg, who was on the left, and had been engaged for some time with Lee's cavalry, which pressed his rear heavily. During a lull which happened, his force threw up breastworks. But toward evening they were attacked with great force by the enemy, and his pickets driven with his force into the works. The battle increased, and many of his officers were wounded. While this was taking place on the left of the Vaughan road, the infantry had again become furiously engaged on the right of the road by repeated attacks of the enemy along the line. Finally Gen. Gregg was driven out of his breastworks, and his line forced back to Hatcher's Run, where he soon found that a similar misfortune had happened to the infantry. It was not until the intrenched lines on the Vaughan road and Hatcher's Run, thrown up on the previous day, were reached, that the routed troops could be rallied. The enemy dashed forward with great elation, but were met by such a sharp fire from the intrenchments as caused them to fall back rapidly to the woods. Night put an end to the conflict. The following is a report by Gen. Lee of the operations of the day:

HEADQUARTERS ARMY NORTHERN VIRGINIA, Feb. 6, 1863.
General S. Cooper:

The enemy moved in strong force yesterday to Hatcher's Run. Part of his infantry, with Gregg's cavalry, crossed and proceeded on the Vaughan road, the infantry to Cattail Creek, the cavalry to Dinwiddie Court House, where the advance encountered a portion of our cavalry and retired.

In the afternoon parts of Hill's and Gordon's troops demonstrated against the enemy on the left of Hatcher's Run, near Armstrong's Mill. Finding him intrenched, they withdrew after dark. During the night the force that had advanced beyond the creek returned to it, and were reported to be recrossing.

This morning Pegram's division moved down to the right bank of the creek to reconnoitre, when it was vigorously attacked. The battle was obstinately contested several hours, but Gen. Pegram being killed while bravely encouraging his men, and Col. Hoffman wounded, some confusion occurred, and the division was pressed back to its original position. Evans's division, ordered by Gen. Gordon to support Pegram's, charged the enemy and forced him back but was in turn compelled to retire. Malone's division arriving, the enemy was driven rapidly to his defences on Hatcher's Run.

The Union loss during the day was estimated at 1,500 to 2,000 men. The loss of the enemy was estimated as exceeding 1,000 men, including Gen. J. Pegram and Col. Hoffman, as killed.

During the night the works were strengthened, and early in the morning of the 7th the enemy made a demonstration on the skirmish lines of the cavalry and infantry on the right and left of the Vaughan road, but were repulsed. At noon the division of Gen. Crawford was sent out to make a reconnoissance, supported on the left by the division of Gen. Wheaton. The pickets of the enemy were encountered after an advance of about half a mile, and driven back to their works higher up the run between Armstrong's and Burgess's mills, and about two miles beyond the latter. A sharp fire of musketry ensued; but as Gen. Crawford was not prepared to force the lines, he drew his men back again to Hatcher's Run. The fighting by this column was kept up until night. During the day, the cannonading between the lines had been constant. The next day, the 8th, was devoted to throwing up intrenchments, and strong defensive works soon indicated the points at which the permanent lines were to be located. The enemy made no attempts to force the new positions, but appeared satisfied to give up the lower part of the run if no attempt was made by the Union forces on the Boydton plank road. The result of the entire movement had been to gain an advanced position on the enemy's right, which was held firmly, by completing the lines to Hatcher's Run, and extending the City Point railroad thither. Affairs now continued quiet for some time. Artillery duels were frequent along the lines before Petersburg, but no important movement was made. Large numbers of deserters from the enemy were constantly coming into the lines of Gen. Grant, often exceeding seventy a day for many days successively, and increasing to two hundred.

In the Shenandoah valley, small expeditions by one or the other party served to prevent a quiet state of affairs. Further west, the enemy captured Beverly on Jan. 11th. This was done by Gen. Rosser, who crossed the mountains, and early on the morning of Jan. 11th entered the place, making prisoners of four hundred of the garrison, consisting of seven hundred men, and dispersing the rest. They were asleep in their winter quarters, with no pickets out further than three hundred yards from their camp. A large amount of commissary and quartermasters' stores, with a great number of horses, were also taken. Again, on

the 21st of February, a body of the enemy's cavalry, under Lieut. McNeil, dashed into Cumberland before daylight, surprised and captured the pickets, and carried off Maj.-Gens. Kelly and Crook. They were quietly seized in their beds with their staff officers, and taken to Richmond, and subsequently exchanged.

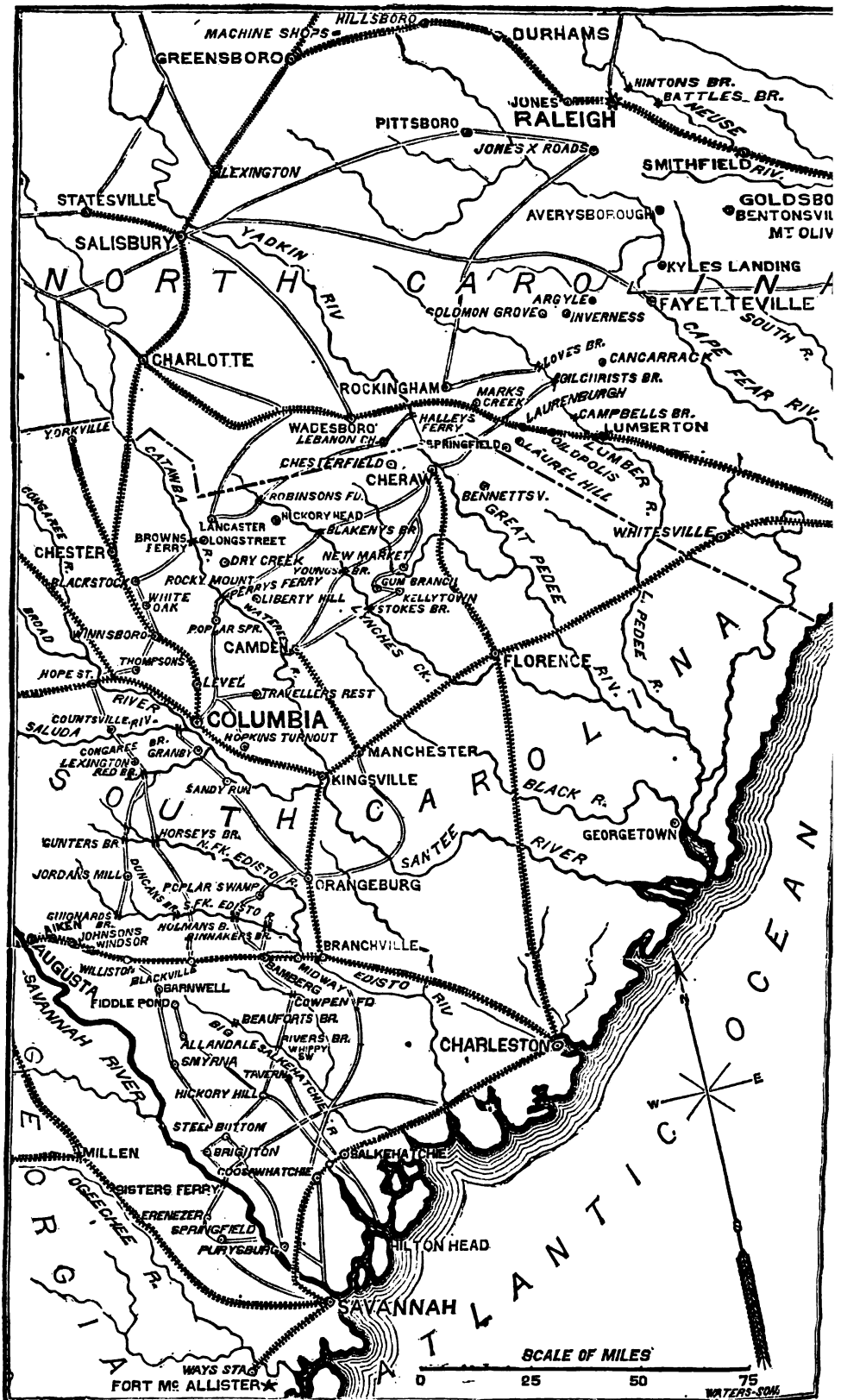
The success which attended the march of Gen. Sherman through Georgia, both in disheartening the Southern people and in destroying the communications between different parts of the Confederacy, determined the nature of the approaching campaign. The field of decisive operations was now reduced to three States, and if South and North Carolina were overrun it would not only cut off the resources of Gen. Lee's army at Richmond, but also result in concentrating an overwhelming force against him. Both combatants therefore prepared to put forth their final efforts. At Richmond, Gen. Lee was appointed as General-in-Chief; Gen. Johnston was ordered to the command in South Carolina; Gen. Hood was supplanted by Gen. Taylor in Alabama and Mississippi; Gen. Breckinridge was brought into the Cabinet as Secretary of War, which had already undergone a change by the displacement of Mr. Memminger as Secretary of the Treasury, and the appointment of Mr. Trenholm of South Carolina. On the Federal side Gen. Schofield, with a strong force, was placed in command in North Carolina, to prepare the way for the approach of Gen. Sherman, and Gen. Gillmore relieved Gen. Foster in the Department of South Carolina.

Immediately after taking possession of Savannah, Gen. Sherman began his preparations for a march through the Carolinas to Richmond; meanwhile Gen. Hardee with his command occupied Charleston. The first movement of Gen. Sherman was to send a part of Gen. Logan's 15th corps and Gen. Blair's 17th corps, both belonging to Gen. Howard's wing of his army, by transports to Beaufort, near Hilton Head. The important bridge where the railroad from Savannah to Charleston crossed the Pocotaligo, was the object of this movement. This bridge, 49 miles from Savannah and 55 miles from Charleston, being with the trestle work in the swamp a mile in length, was so necessary to the communication between the two cities, that frequent attempts had been made by the Union commanders of the department to destroy it. The force of the enemy had always proved strong enough to defeat these efforts. On Jan. 13th the advance from Beaufort began. The division of Gen. Hatch had taken a position near the bridge, with their guns turned on the railroad, when the 17th corps crossing the ferry at Port Royal on a pontoon bridge moved rapidly but cautiously to the railroad. The pickets of the enemy were driven away without difficulty. On the 15th an advance was made, the 17th corps being on the left, and Gen. Hatch on the right, and the railroad gained a little south of the bridge.

The skirmishers pushed forward, encountering those of the enemy, who were supported by light artillery, and quickly drove them off, thus gaining the bridge. A brigade of the 17th followed, and carried it and the earth works at the further end. The enemy seeing they would lose possession of the bridge, attempted to burn it, but were defeated in their efforts by the rapid movements of the troops. The Federal loss was about fifty. The force of the enemy consisted of a detachment from Gen. Hardee's command, under Gen. McLaws. They were driven out, and the 17th corps occupied the railroad from Coosawatchie to the Tallahatchie. A depot of supplies was established near the mouth of the creek, with easy water communication back to Hilton Head.

At the same time the left wing, under Maj.-Gen. Slocum, and the cavalry, under Maj.-Gen. Kilpatrick, were ordered to rendezvous near Robertsville and Coosawatchie, with a depot of supplies at Pureysburg on Sister's ferry on the Savannah River. Gen. Slocum caused a good pontoon bridge to be constructed opposite Savannah, and the "Union causeway" leading through the low rice fields opposite the city was repaired and "corduroyed." But before the time appointed for him to march, the heavy rains of January had swelled the river, broken the pontoon bridge, and overflowed the whole bottom, so that the causeway was four feet under water, and Gen. Slocum was compelled to look higher up for a passage over the river. He moved up to Sister's ferry, but even there the river with its overflowed bottoms was nearly three miles wide. He did not succeed in getting his whole wing across until during the first week in February.

Meanwhile the division of Gen. Grover of the 19th corps had been sent by Gen. Grant to garrison Savannah, and on Jan. 18th Gen. Sherman transferred the forts and city of Savannah to Gen. Foster, still commanding the Department of the South, and instructed him to follow on the coast the movements of the army under Sherman inland, by occupying Charleston and such other points as would be of any military value. The plan of Gen. Sherman was to strike direct for Goldsboro' in North Carolina, and open communication with the sea by the Newbern Railroad. For this purpose he ordered Col. W. W. Wright, Superintendent of Military Railroads, to proceed in advance to Newbern and to be prepared to extend the railroad out from that city to Goldsboro by March 15th. At the same time Gen. Sherman ordered his chief quartermaster and commissary, Gens. Easton and Beckwith, to complete the supplies at Sister's ferry and Pocotaligo, and follow the movement coastwise, and be prepared to open communication with him from Morehead City about the same time. Having completed his preparations, Gen. Sherman issued the order to march on January 19th. He left Savannah on the 22d



and proceeded to Beaufort, and on the 24th reached Pocotaligo, where the 17th corps under Gen. Blair was encamped. The 15th corps at this time was somewhat scattered: the divisions of Gens. Wood and Hazen were at Beaufort; that of Gen. J. E. Smith was marching from Savannah by the coast-road, and that of Gen. Corse was still at Savannah, cut off by the storms and freshet in the river. The enemy supposed the object of Gen. Sherman was to reach Charleston, and had adopted the Salkehatchie River as his line of defence. On the 25th a demonstration was made against the Combahee ferry and railroad bridge across the Salkehatchie, for the purpose of occupying the enemy. The heavy rains had swollen the river so that water stood in the swamps for a breadth of more than a mile at a depth of from one to twenty feet. By making apparent preparations to cross the river, he was able, with a comparatively small force, to keep a considerably body of the enemy in front disposed to contest the advance on Charleston, although not having the remotest intention to move on that city. On the 27th Gen. Hatch's division evacuated its position on the Tullaftiney and Coosahatchie Rivers, and moved to Pocotaligo to keep up the feints already begun, and until the right wing should move higher up and cross the Salkehatchie about River's or Broxton's bridge.

By the 29th the roads back of Savannah had become sufficiently free of the flood to permit Gen. Slocum to put his wing in motion; and as he approached Sister's ferry the gunboat Pontiac was sent up by Admiral Dahlgren to cover the crossing. Meanwhile the division of the 15th corps had reached Pocotaligo, and the right wing had loaded its wagons and was ready to start. Gen. Howard was thereupon ordered to move the 17th corps along the the Salkehatchie as high up as River's bridge, and the 15th corps by Hickory Hill, Loper's cross-roads, Anglesey post office, and Beaufort bridge, leaving Gen. Hatch's division at Pocotaligo feigning to cross at the Salkehatchie bridge and ferry until the movement turned the enemy's position and forced him to fall back on the Edisto.

The march began on the 1st of February. All the roads northward had been held by the Confederate cavalry under General Wheeler, who had, with details of negro laborers, felled trees, burned bridges, and made obstructions to impede this march. The pioneer battalions, however, were so well organized that these obstructions were quickly removed. The felled trees were cleared away and bridges rebuilt by the heads of columns before the rear could close up. On February 2d the 15th corps reached Loper's cross-roads, and the 17th was at River's bridge. At this time Gen. Slocum was struggling with the floods of the Savannah at Sister's ferry. Two divisions of the 20th corps, under Gen. Williams, were on the east bank, and the cavalry of Gen. Kilpatrick had

been able to cross over on the pontoon bridge. Gen. Sherman ordered Gen. Williams to march to Lawtonsville and Allandale, Gen. Kilpatrick to Blackville, by way of Barnwell, and Gen. Slocum to hurry the crossing at Sister's ferry as much as possible, and overtake the right wing on the South Carolina Railroad. At the same time Gen. Howard, with the right wing, was ordered to cross the Salkehatchie and push rapidly for the same railroad at or near Midway. The line of the Salkehatchie was held by the enemy in force, having intrenchments for infantry and artillery at River's and Beaufort bridges. The former position was carried on February 3d by Gens. Mower's and Smith's divisions of the 17th corps. The troops crossed the swamp, which was nearly three miles wide, and in which the water was from the knee to the shoulder in depth. The weather was severely cold, and the generals on foot led their commands and made a lodgment below the bridge, and turned on the brigade of the enemy which guarded it, and drove them in confusion toward Branchville. In this affair one officer and seventeen men were killed, and seventy wounded, who were sent to Pocotaligo. The 15th corps had been ordered to carry the Beaufort bridge, but this was evacuated by the enemy as soon as the crossing was effected at River's bridge. The position was strong both in its natural works and the line of works which defended the passage of the river. Gen. Sherman had now gained the peninsula formed by the Salkehatchie and Edisto Rivers, and threatened alike Augusta, Branchville, and Charleston. At Augusta Gen. D. H. Hill was in command with a considerable force, and Branchville was reinforced and works thrown up to render it more secure. The country in which the army was now moving was rich in forage and supplies. Turkeys, geese, ducks, chickens, nicely-cured hams, potatoes, honey, and an abundance of other luxuries, were obtained by the soldiers, and plenty of corn and fodder for the animals. The houses generally were deserted, although here and there women and children were found. Wide-spreading columns of smoke rose wherever the army went. The following correspondence relative to the destruction of dwellings took place on the dates therein named:

GRAHAM, S. C., February 7, 1865.

GENERAL: I have the honor to propose that if the troops of your army be required to discontinue burning the houses of our citizens I will discontinue burning cotton.

As an earnest of the good faith in which my proposition is tendered, I leave at this place about three hundred bales of cotton unburned, worth in New York over a quarter million, and in our currency one and a half millions. I trust my having commenced will cause you to use your influence to insure the acceptance of the proposition by your whole army.

I trust that you will not deem it improper for me to ask that you will require the troops under your command to discontinue the wanton destruction of property not necessary for their sustenance.

Respectfully, General, your obedient servant,
J. WHEELER, Maj.-Gen. C. S. A.
Maj.-Gen. O. O. HOWARD, U. S. Army, Com'ding, &c.

ANSWERED BY GENERAL SHERMAN.

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, February 8, 1863.

GENERAL: Yours, addressed to General Howard, is received by me. I hope you will burn all cotton, and save us the trouble. We don't want it; and it has proven a curse to our country. All you don't burn I will.

As to private houses occupied by peaceful families my orders are not to molest or disturb them, and I think my orders are obeyed. Vacant houses, being of no use to anybody, I care little about, as the owners have thought them of no use to themselves. I don't want them destroyed, but do not take much care to preserve them.

I am, with respect, yours truly,
W. T. SHERMAN, Maj.-Gen. Commanding.
Maj.-Gen. J. WHEELER, Commanding Cavalry Corps
Confederate Army.

Upon the breaking of the line of the Salkehatchie the enemy retreated at once behind the Edisto at Branchville, and the whole army pushed at once to the South Carolina Railroad at Midway, Bamberg, and Graham's station. The troops immediately set to work to destroy the road, which had been of great importance to the enemy, both as a means of communication and for forwarding supplies from Augusta and northern Georgia to Richmond. From the 7th to the 10th of February the work was thoroughly done by the 17th corps, from the Edisto up to Bamberg, and from Bamberg up to Blackville by the 15th corps. As the 17th corps threatened Branchville, the enemy burned the railroad bridge and Walker's bridge below across the Edisto. Meanwhile Gen. Kilpatrick had brought his cavalry rapidly by Barnwell to Blackville, and turned toward Aiken, for the purpose of threatening Augusta without being drawn into any serious battle. Blackville is eighteen miles west of Midway, and forty-seven miles east of Augusta; Aiken is seventeen miles east of Augusta. In his progress he had serious skirmishes with Wheeler's cavalry, first at Blackville and afterwards at Williston and Aiken. On February 8th Gen. Williams, with two divisions of the 20th corps, reached the railroad at Graham's station, and Gen. Slocum reached Blackville on the 10th. This wing continued the destruction of the railroad from Blackville up to Windsor. By February 11th Gen. Sherman's force was along the railroad from Midway to Johnson's station. The effect was to divide the enemy's forces, which still remained at Branchville and Charleston on the one hand, and Aiken and Augusta on the other.

The movement on Orangeburg now commenced. The railroad from Augusta running nearly east to Branchville, there intersects with the railroad from Columbia to Branchville, running nearly south, and thence southeast to Charleston. Gen. Sherman at this time was operating west of Branchville on the railroad from that place to Augusta. He now strikes north to Orangeburg, the first important station on the road from Branchville to Columbia, and distant from Branchville seventeen miles. The next important station north is Kingville, where

the road from Wilmington to Charleston intersects the Columbia and Charleston road, the latter portion of which is common to both. Orangeburg had a population of about three thousand, and was prettily situated on the north bank of the Edisto. From its position upon the ridge of high lands on which the railroad runs, it was really of more importance than Branchville, which the enemy had carefully fortified.

The 17th corps crossed the south fork of the Edisto at Binnaker's bridge, and moved directly for Orangeburg, while the 15th corps crossed at Holmon's bridge, and moved to Poplar Springs to act as a support. The left wing, which was still at work on the railroad, was ordered to cross the South Edisto at New and Guignard's bridges, and move to the Orangeburg and Edgefield road, and there await the result of the attack on Orangeburg. On the 12th the corps was before the north fork of the Edisto, and at an early hour engaged in skirmishing with the enemy at different points. A force was found entrenched in front of the Orangeburg bridge, but was swept away at a dash, and driven across the bridge, which was partially burned. Behind the bridge was a battery in position, covered by a cotton and earth parapet with extensive wings. While the division of Gen. Giles A. Smith was held close up to the Edisto, the other two were moved by Gen. Blair to a point about two miles below, where Gen. Force's division crossed by a pontoon bridge, and Gen. Mowers was held to act as a support. As soon as Force's division made their appearance coming up from the swamp, the enemy began to give ground, and Gen. Smith's division succeeded in gaining the bridge, and crossed over and occupied the enemy's position. The bridge was soon repaired, and by the middle of the afternoon the whole corps was in Orangeburg, and had begun to destroy the railroad. This work was done effectually by the corps to Lewisville, a distance of twelve miles. Gen. Blair was then ordered to push the enemy across the Congaree, and force him to burn the bridge. This was accomplished on the 14th. The Congaree River is formed by the Broad and Saluda Rivers, which unite at Columbia. After a southeast course of about fifty miles, it unites with the Wateree to form the Santee. Steamboats ascend to Columbia.

Gen. Sherman now directed his march straight for Columbia, distant fifty-one miles from Orangeburg. The advance of the 17th corps was along the State road, while the 15th corps crossed the north branch of the Edisto from Poplar Springs at Schilling's bridge, and took a country road which came into the State road at Zeigler's. The 20th corps moved north on a line west of the 15th, diverging toward Columbia; the 14th corps advanced in a line further west, and the cavalry on their left flank. On the 15th, the 15th corps discovered the enemy in a strong position at Little Congaree bridge, across Congaree Creek, with

a work on the south side to cover their retreat across the bridge, and a well-constructed fort on the north side commanding the bridge with artillery. The ground in front was level and clear, but rendered very unfavorable by a fresh deposit of mud from a recent overflow. Gen. Woods, in command of the leading division, succeeded in turning the flank of the work south of the bridge by sending Stone's brigade through a cypress swamp on the left; and by following up the enemy, who immediately began to retreat, he was able to get possession of the bridge and the fort on the north side. The bridge had been somewhat injured by fire, and had to be repaired before the passage of the artillery. It was night, therefore, before the head of the column reached the bridge across Congaree River in front of Columbia. During the night the enemy shelled the camps from a battery on the east side of the Congaree above Granby. Early on the next morning, Feb. 16th, the head of the column reached the bank of the Congaree opposite Columbia, but too late to save the bridge over the river at that point, which had been set on fire by the enemy. Meanwhile the inhabitants of Columbia could be seen moving in great excitement about the streets, and occasionally small bodies of cavalry but no masses of troops. A single gun was fired a few times by the order of Gen. Sherman, at the railroad depot, to scatter the people who were seen carrying away sacks of corn and flour which his army needed. No manifestation of surrender was exhibited from the city.

Within an hour after the arrival of the head of Gen. Howard's column at the river opposite Columbia, the head of the column of the left wing under Gen. Slocum also appeared. Gen. Howard, instead of crossing in front of Columbia, moved three miles up to Saluda Factory, and crossed on the 16th, skirmishing with cavalry, and on the night of the same day made a bridge across Broad River, three miles above Columbia, by which he crossed over Stone's brigade of Wood's division of the 15th corps. Under cover of this brigade a pontoon bridge was laid on the morning of the 17th. Meanwhile Gen. Slocum moved up to cross the Saluda at Zion's Church, and thence to take the roads leading direct to Winnsboro. His object was also to break up the railroads and bridges about Alston.

Gen. Sherman thus describes the entrance to Columbia: "I was in person at the pontoon bridge (on the 17th), and at 11 A. M. learned that the Mayor of Columbia had come out in a carriage, and made a formal surrender of the city to Col. Stone, 25th Iowa infantry, commanding 8d brigade, 1st division, 15th corps. About the same time a small party of the 17th corps had crossed the Congaree in a skiff, and entered Columbia from a point immediately west. In anticipation of the occupation of the city, I had made written orders to Gen. Howard touching the conduct of the troops. These were to destroy absolutely all arsenals and pub-

lic property not needed for our own use, as well as all railroads, depots, and machinery useful in war to an enemy, but to spare all dwellings, colleges, schools, asylums, and harmless private property. I was the first to cross the pontoon bridge, and in company with Gen. Howard rode into the city. The day was clear, but a perfect tempest of wind was raging. The brigade of Col. Stone was already in the city, and was properly posted. Citizens and soldiers were on the streets, and general good order prevailed. Gen. Wade Hampton, who commanded the Confederate rear guard of cavalry, had, in anticipation of our capture of Columbia, ordered that all cotton, public and private, should be moved into the streets and fired, to prevent our making use of it. Bales were piled everywhere, the rope and bagging out, and tufts of cotton were blown about in the wind, lodged in the trees and against the houses, so as to resemble a snow-storm. Some of these piles of cotton were burning, especially one in the very heart of the city, near the Court House, but the fire was partially subdued by the labors of our soldiers. During the day the 15th corps passed through Columbia and out on the Camden road. The 17th did not enter the town at all; and, as I have before stated, the left wing and the cavalry did not come within two miles of the town.

"Before one single public building had been fired by order, the smouldering fires set by Hampton's order were rekindled by the wind, and communicated to the buildings around. About dark they began to spread, and got beyond the control of the brigade on duty within the city. The whole of Wood's division was brought in, but it was found impossible to check the flames, which, by midnight, had become unmanageable, and raged until about 4 A. M., when, the wind subsiding, they were got under control. I was up nearly all night, and saw Generals Howard, Logan, Woods, and others, laboring to save houses, and protect families thus suddenly deprived of shelter and of bedding and wearing apparel. I disclaim on the part of my army any agency in this fire, but, on the contrary, claim that we saved what of Columbia remains unconsumed. And, without hesitation, I charge Gen. Wade Hampton with having burned his own city of Columbia, not with a malicious intent, or as the manifestation of a silly 'Roman stoicism,' but from folly and want of sense in filling it with lint cotton and tinder. Our officers and men on duty worked well to extinguish the flames; but others not on duty, including the officers who had long been imprisoned there, rescued by us, may have assisted in spreading the fire after it had once begun, and may have indulged in concealed joy to see the ruin of the capital of South Carolina. During the 18th and 19th the arsenal, railroad depots, machine shops, foundries, and other buildings were properly destroyed by detailed working parties, and the railroad track torn up and destroyed to Kingsville and the Wateree

bridge, and up in the direction of Winnsboro."

The following will show what troops first entered Columbia:

HEADQUARTERS FOURTH DIVISION,
SEVENTEENTH ARMY CORPS,
Near COLUMBIA, S. C., Feb. 17, 1865.

Brig.-Gen. Wm. W. Belknap, Commanding 3d Brigade:

SIR,—Allow me to congratulate you, and through you, Lieut.-Col. J. C. Kennedy, 13th Iowa Veteran volunteers, and the men under his command, for first entering the city of Columbia, on the morning of Friday, February 17th, and being the first to plant his colors on the capitol of South Carolina. While the army was laying pontoon bridges across the Saluda and Broad Rivers, three miles above the city, Lieut.-Col. Kennedy, under your direction, fitted up an old worn-out flat boat, capable of carrying about twenty men, and accompanied by Lieuts. H. C. McArthur and Wm. H. Goodell, of your staff, crossed the river in front of the city, and boldly advanced through its streets, sending back the boat with another procured on the opposite shore, for more troops, and on their arrival, with seventy-five men in all, drove a portion of Wheeler's cavalry from the town, and at eleven and a half o'clock A. M. planted his two stands of colors, one upon the old and the other upon the new capitol.

The swift current of the Congaree River and its rocky channel rendered his crossing both difficult and dangerous, and the presence of the enemy, but in what force unknown, rendered the undertaking still more hazardous. Lieut.-Col. Kennedy and his regiment are entitled to great credit for its successful accomplishment.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

(Signed) GILES A. SMITH,
Brevet Major-General Commanding.

The consequences of the movements of Gen. Sherman thus far were a division of the forces of the enemy and the evacuation of Charleston. Gen. Hardee was in Charleston with about 14,000 men, expecting the approach of Gen. Sherman on his appearance in the neighborhood of Branchville. At Augusta, which was equally threatened, was Gens. D. H. Hill and G. W. Smith, who were so certain of the approach of Gen. Sherman that the public property was almost entirely removed from the city. A considerable cavalry force was at different points in South Carolina under Hampton, Wheeler, McLaws, and others. Gen. Beauregard, who had been in command at Charleston, was near the North Carolina line collecting forces and ready to take the command of troops from Hood's army with those under Hill. Gen. Lee, it is supposed, also sent some men into North Carolina. Gen. Sherman marched at once to Columbia, knowing that when once there Augusta could be easily taken. But if Augusta had been first captured, a concentration of the enemy might have been made at Columbia, which would have rendered its capture more difficult. Augusta was also of less importance after its railroad communication had been cut off. In the neighborhood of Charleston some skirmishing had taken place at intervals without any important results.

After Gen. Sherman destroyed the railroad in the neighborhood of Branchville, only one line remained open from Charleston. This was

the road running north to Florence and Charaw. It was the only line of retreat for Gen. Hardee, and as Gen. Sherman moved north it was necessary for the latter to secure it at once, as it was threatened. On Feb. 10th, Gen. Schemmelfennig, with a body of troops of Gen. Gillmore's command, laid a bridge across the creek separating Folly and Cole Islands from James Island, and effected a lodgment on the latter, about three miles southwest of Charleston. Skirmishers advanced and met the enemy about a mile distant on the Stono River. A gunboat and mortar schooner, and the iron-clads Augusta and Savannah, were now moved up the Stono, and, covering the flank of Gen. Schemmelfennig's troops, shelled the enemy. About 4½ P. M., Gen. Hartwell moved his whole brigade forward and carried the rifle-pits for the first time. The enemy retreated rapidly to his main works, leaving his dead and wounded, and losing about twenty prisoners. The Union loss was between seventy and eighty. Cooperating movements were made at the same time by the column under Gen. Hatch, which crossed the Combahee with slight loss and marched toward the South Edisto. No serious resistance was made to the advance in that region, which was accessible to the gunboats and defended only by small batteries on the river banks. The movement of Gen. Schemmelfennig being only a feint, his troops were withdrawn to Cole Island. A column under Gen. Potter, however, moved to Bull's Bay, as if designed to cut the northern railroad. On the night of the 17th the last of Gen. Hardee's troops left Charleston. The subsequent occupation of the city is thus described by official documents:

CHARLESTON, S. C., February 18,
via New York, Feb. 21, 1865.

Major-General Halleck, Chief of Staff:

GENERAL:—The city of Charleston and all its defences came into our possession this morning, with about two hundred pieces of good artillery and a supply of fine ammunition. The enemy commenced evacuating all the works last night, and Mayor Mabeth surrendered the city to the troops of Gen. Schemmelfennig at 9 o'clock this morning, at which time it was occupied by our forces. Our advance on the Edisto from Bull's Bay hastened the retreat.

The cotton warehouses, arsenals, quartermaster's stores, railroad bridges, and two iron-clads were burned by the enemy. Some vessels in the ship-yard were also burned. Nearly all the inhabitants remaining behind belong to the poorer class.

Very respectfully,

Q. A. GILLMORE, General Commanding.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF THE SOUTH,
CHARLESTON, S. C., Feb. 26, 1865.

Lieut.-Gen. U. S. Grant, and Maj.-Gen. W. H. Halleck, Chief of Staff, Washington:

An inspection of the Rebel defences of Charleston show that we have taken over four hundred and fifty pieces of ordnance, being more than double what I first reported. The lot includes 8 and 10-inch columbiads, a great many 32 and 42-pounder rifles, some 7-inch Brooks rifles, and many pieces of foreign make. We also captured eight locomotives and a great number of passenger and platform cars, all in good condition. Deserters report that the last of Hardee's army was to have crossed the Santer River

yesterday, bound for Charlotte, N. C., and that it was feared that Sherman had already intercepted their march. It is reported, on similar authority, that the last of Hood's army, 12,000 strong, passed through Augusta last Sunday, the 19th, on the way to Beauregard. Georgetown has been evacuated by the enemy, and is now in our possession. Deserters are coming in constantly. We have over 400 already.

Q. A. GILLMORE,
Major-General Commanding.

The following is the report of Col. Bennett, who was the first to enter the city:

HEADQUARTERS UNITED STATES FORCES, }
CHARLESTON, S. C., February 24, 1863.
Captain J. W. Dickinson, Acting Asst. Adjt.-General.

CAPTAIN: I have the honor to submit the following report of the evacuation and occupation of Charleston. On the morning of February the 18th I received information that led me to believe the defences and lines guarding the city of Charleston had been deserted by the enemy. I immediately proceeded to Cummings Point, from whence I sent a small boat in the direction of Fort Moultrie, which boat, when forty yards east from Fort Sumter, was met by a boat from Sullivan's Island, containing a full corps of band musicians abandoned by the enemy. These confirmed my belief of an evacuation. I had no troops that could be available under two hours, as, except in a few pontoon boats, there were no means whatever of landing troops near the enemy's works or into the city. I directed Major Hennessy to proceed to Fort Sumter and there replace our flag. The flag was replaced over the southeast angle of Fort Sumter at nine (9) o'clock A. M. I now pushed for the city, stopping at Fort Ripley and Castle Pinckney, from which works Rebel flags were hauled down and the American flag substituted. The guns in these works were in good order. There was mounted in Fort Ripley one Quaker gun bearing southeast. I landed at Mill's wharf, Charleston, at ten (10) o'clock A. M., where I learned that a part of the enemy's troops yet remained in the city, while mounted patrols were out in every direction applying the torch and driving the inhabitants before them.

I at once addressed to the Mayor of the city the following communication:

HEADQUARTERS UNITED STATES FORCES, }
CHARLESTON, February 18, 1863.

Mayor Charles Macbeth, Charleston:

MAJOR: In the name of the United States Government I demand surrender of the city of which you are the executive officer. Until further orders all citizens will remain within their houses.

I have the honor to be, Mayor, very respectfully, your obedient servant,
(Signed) A. G. BENNETT,
Lieut.-Col. commanding U. S. Forces, Charleston.

My whole force consisted of five (5) officers and the armed crews of two (2) small boats, comprising in all twenty-two (22) men. Both officers and men volunteered to advance from the wharf into the city; but no reinforcements being in sight, I did not deem it expedient to move on.

Public buildings, stores, warehouses, private dwellings, shipping, etc., were burning and being fired by armed Rebels, but with the force at my disposal it was impossible to save the cotton and other property. While awaiting the arrival of my troops at Mill's wharf, a number of explosions took place. The Rebel commissary depot was blown up, and with it is estimated that not less than two hundred (200) human beings—most of whom were women and children—were blown to atoms. These people were engaged in procuring food for themselves and their families by permission from the Rebel military authorities. The Rebel ram Charleston was blown up while lying at her anchorage opposite Mt. Pleasant Ferry wharf, in the Cooper River. Observing a small boat sailing toward the bay under a flag of truce, I put off to it, and received from a member of the common council

a letter addressed to the General commanding United States forces at Morris Island or to the officer in command of the fleet. The following is a copy of the letter:

CHARLESTON, S. C., February 18, 1863.
To the General Commanding the Army of the United States at Morris Island:

SIR: The military authorities of the Confederate States have evacuated the city. I have remained to enforce law and preserve order until you take such steps as you may think best.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
CHARLES MACBETH, Mayor.

The deputation sent to convey the above letter represented to me that the city was in the hands of either the Rebel soldiery or the mob. They entreated of me in the name of humanity to interpose my military authority and save the city from utter destruction. To this letter I replied in the following terms:

HEADQUARTERS UNITED STATES FORCES, CHARLESTON }
HARBOR, NEAR ATLANTIC WHARF, Feb. 18, 1863. }
Mayor Charles Macbeth:

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your communication of this date. I have in reply thereto to state that the troops under my command will render every possible assistance to your well-disposed citizens in extinguishing the fires now burning.

I have the honor to be, Mayor, very respectfully, your obedient servant,
A. G. BENNETT,
Lieut.-Col. commanding U. S. Forces, Charleston.

Two (2) companies of the 53d Pennsylvania regiment and about thirty (30) men of the 3d Rhode Island volunteer heavy artillery having landed, I proceeded with them to the citadel. I here established my headquarters, and sent small parties in all directions with instructions to impress negroes wherever found, and to make them work the fire apparatus, until all fires were extinguished. I also sent a strong guard to the United States Arsenal, which was saved. As the troops arrived they were sent out to points in the city where were located railroad depots or any large buildings containing property, such as cotton, rice, tobacco, etc. It being apparent to me that I could not effectually save all that remained, I concentrated my guards wherever was stored the largest quantities.

I cannot at this time submit any account of, or estimate any value to, the property that has fallen into our possession. The most valuable items consist in cotton and rice. The cotton has not yet been secured. The rice is being given to the poor of the city to supply their immediate necessities.

Every officer and soldier exerted himself to a most willing performance of every allotted duty, yet I do not deem it invidious for me to make special mention of Lieutenant John Hackett, Co. M, 3d Rhode Island artillery, who volunteered to go alone to Fort Moultrie and there raise the flag. As also to speak of Major John A. Hennessy, Captain Samuel Cuskaden, and Lieutenant P. M. Burr, all of the 52d regiment Pennsylvania volunteers; and Lieutenant James F. Haviland, Acting Assistant Inspector-General of my staff, who accompanied me to the city; all of whose services were most highly valuable to me. Captain H. H. Jenks, 52d Pennsylvania volunteers, Acting Assistant Adjutant-General, also rendered important services. Although he remained at Morris Island, he was very efficient in facilitating the embarkation of my troops from there.

The flags from Fort Moultrie, Castle Pinckney, and Fort Ripley, and seventeen (17) signal pennants found in the city, were secured by the troops under my command.

I have the honor to be, Captain,
Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
(Signed) A. G. BENNETT,
Lieutenant-Colonel 21st regiment U. S. C. T.
A copy of the report of the evacuation and occupation of Charleston. JAMES F. HAVILAND,
First Lieutenant 127th Reg't N. Y. V., A. A. I. G.

Gen. Hardee, with about 12,000 men, moved

north, aiming to reach Charlotte in North Carolina. At the same time Georgetown, a seaport north of Charleston, was evacuated, and occupied by a naval force sent by Admiral Dahlgren. The force of Gen. Hood's army which had been sent eastward, having passed Augusta, was moving toward Charlotte, where Gen. Beauregard was in command. As the danger became more critical, the enemy sent Gen. Johnston to take the command, and he was again in a position to confront Gen. Sherman.

Meanwhile Gen. Sherman continued his march. The left wing and cavalry crossed the Saluda and Broad Rivers, and broke up the railroad about Alston and as high as the bridge across Broad River on the road to Spartansburg. Meanwhile the main body moved directly to Winnsboro, which Gen. Slocum reached on the 21st. Here the railroad was destroyed up to Blackstake's station, a distance of fifteen miles. The railroad runs from Columbia to Charlotte, N. C., one hundred and nine miles, thence to Greensboro, and branches to Lynchburg, Va., and Raleigh, N. C. The distance from Columbia to Winnsboro is thirty-nine miles. Gen. Slocum next turned to Rocky Mount, on the Catawba River, in a northeast direction. The 20th corps reached Rocky Mount on the 22d, and laid a pontoon bridge over the Catawba, and crossed on the 23d. The cavalry under Gen. Kilpatrick followed during the night ensuing, and moved up to Lancaster with instructions to keep up the feint of a general march on Charlotte, N. C., to which place Gen. Beauregard and the cavalry of the enemy had retreated from Columbia. The real aim of Gen. Sherman was to reach Cheraw and Goldsboro, N. C., where he could communicate with the naval forces. As has been already stated, a portion of Hood's army, consisting of Cheatham's corps, was aiming to make a junction with Gen. Beauregard at Charlotte, having been cut off by the rapid movement of Sherman on Columbia and Winnsboro. For three days, from the 23d to the 26th, the rains were heavy and the rivers became quite swollen, and the roads almost impassable. The 20th corps reached Hanging Rock on the 26th, and waited there for the 14th corps to get across the Catawba. The river had so swollen that the pontoon bridge broke, and was with difficulty restored by Gen. Davis.

Meanwhile the right wing had broken up the railroad to Winnsboro, and turned from thence to Peay's Ferry, where it crossed the Catawba before the heavy rain commenced. The 17th corps moved straight on Cheraw by the way of Young's bridge; and the 15th corps by Tiller's and Kelly's bridges. From the latter corps detachments were sent to Camden, to burn the bridge over the Wateree and the railroad depot, stores, &c. This was successfully done.

Several of the foragers, who, as a body, generally kept in advance of the troops, having been very cruelly treated by the enemy, Gen. Sherman wrote the following letter to Gen. W. Hampton:

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIV'N OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, Feb. 24, 1863.

Lieut.-Gen Wade Hampton, Commanding Cavalry Forces, C. S. A.

GENERAL: It is officially reported to me that on foraging parties are murdered after capture, and labelled "Death to all foragers." One instance of lieutenant and seven men, near Chesterfield, and another of twenty, "near a ravine eighty rods from the main road," about three miles from Feasterville. Have ordered a similar number of prisoners in our hands to be disposed of in like manner.

I hold about one thousand prisoners captured in various ways, and can stand it as long as you; but hardly think these murders are committed with your knowledge, and would suggest that you give notice to the people at large, that every life taken by them simply results in the death of one of your confederates.

Of course you cannot question my right to forage on the country; it is a war right as old as history. The manner of exercising it varies with circumstances, and if the civil authorities will supply my requisitions, I will forbid all foraging. But I find no civil authorities who can respond to calls for forage or provisions, and therefore must collect directly of the people. I have no doubt this is the occasion of much misbehavior on the part of our men; but I cannot permit an enemy to judge or punish with wholesale murder.

Personally I regret the bitter feelings engendered by this war; but they were to be expected, and I simply allege that those who struck the first blow and made war inevitable, ought not, in fairness, to reproach us for the natural consequences. I merely assert our war right to forage, and my resolve to protect my foragers to the extent of life for life.

I am, with respect, your obedient servant,
W. T. SHERMAN, Maj.-Gen. U. S. A.

To which Gen. Hampton replied as follows:

HEADQUARTERS IN THE FIELD, Feb. 27, 1863.
Major-Gen. W. T. Sherman, U. S. Army.

GENERAL: Your communication of the 24th instant reached me to-day. In it you state that it has been officially reported that your foraging parties were "murdered" after capture, and you go on to say that you had "ordered a similar number of prisoners in your hands to be disposed of in like manner." That is to say, you have ordered a number of Confederate soldiers to be "murdered."

You characterize your order in proper terms, for the public voice, even in your own country, where it seldom dares to express itself in vindication of truth, honor, or justice, will surely agree with you in pronouncing you guilty of murder, if your order is carried out.

Before dismissing this portion of your letter, I beg to assure you for every soldier of mine "murdered" by you I shall have executed at once two of yours, giving, in all cases, preference to any officers who may be in my hands.

In reference to the statement you make regarding the death of your foragers, I have only to say that I know nothing of it; that no orders given by me authorized the killing of prisoners after capture, and that I do not believe that my men killed any of yours, except under circumstances in which it was perfectly legitimate and proper they should kill them.

It is a part of the system of the thieves whom you designate as your foragers, to fire the dwellings of those citizens whom they have robbed.

To check this inhuman system, which is justly execrated by every civilized nation, I have directed my men to shoot down all of your men who are caught burning houses. This order shall remain in force as long as you disgrace the profession of arms by allowing your men to destroy private dwellings.

You say that I cannot, of course, question your right to forage on the country. "It is a right as old

as history." I do not, sir, question this right. But there is a right older even than this, and one more inalienable—the right that every man has to defend his home and to protect those who are dependent upon him; and from my heart I wish that every old man and boy in my country who can fire a gun, would shoot down, as he would a wild beast, the men who are desolating their land, burning their houses, and insulting their women.

You are particular in defining and claiming "war rights." May I ask if you enumerate among them the right to fire upon a defenceless city without notice; to burn that city to the ground after it had been surrendered by the authorities, who claimed, though in vain, that protection which is always accorded in civilized warfare to non-combatants; to fire the dwelling houses of citizens, after robbing them, and to perpetrate even darker crimes than these—crimes too black to be mentioned?

You have permitted, if you have not ordered, the commission of these offences against humanity and the rules of war. You fired into the city of Columbia without a word of warning. After its surrender by the Mayor, who demanded protection to private property, you laid the whole city in ashes, leaving amid its ruins thousands of old men and helpless women and children, who are likely to perish of starvation and exposure. Your line of march can be traced by the lurid light of burning houses, and in more than one household there is an agony far more bitter than that of death.

The Indian scalped his victim regardless of sex or age, but with all his barbarity he always respected the persons of his female captives. Your soldiers, more savage than the Indian, insult those whose natural protectors are absent.

In conclusion, I have only to request, that whenever you have any of my men "disposed of," or "murdered," for the terms appear to be synonymous with you, you will let me hear of it, in order that I may know what action to take in the matter. In the mean time I shall hold fifty-six of your men as hostages for those whom you have ordered to be executed. I am, yours, &c.,

WADE HAMPTON, Lieut.-Gen.

A small force of mounted men, under Capt. Duncan, was sent by Gen. Sherman to break up the railroad between Charleston and Florence, but were met by a division of cavalry under Gen. Butler, and after a sharp skirmish on Mount Elon, they were compelled to return without success.

Cheraw, to which Gen. Sherman was aiming, is a town on the right bank of the Great Pedee River, at the head of steam navigation. It had been a place of importance as a depot for cotton, and had about one thousand inhabitants. It is the termination of the northern railroad from Charleston through Florence, being distant from the latter forty miles, and from the former one hundred and forty-two miles.

On March 2d the advanced division of the 20th corps entered Chesterfield, a little northwest of Cheraw, encountering on the way the cavalry of the enemy under Gen. Butler, with whom skirmishing was kept up. On the next day, about noon, the 17th corps entered Cheraw. The force of the enemy in the place retreated across the Pedee, and burned the bridge. A considerable quantity of ammunition was captured in the town, and a number of guns which had been brought from Charleston on the evacuation of that city. These were de-

stroyed, and also the trestles and bridges of the railroad as far down as Darlington, ten miles. An expedition of mounted infantry was sent to Florence, but it encountered both cavalry and infantry, and returned after doing no other damage than breaking up in part the road between the two places.

After a brief delay the march was resumed for Fayetteville, in North Carolina. The right wing crossed the Pedee at Cheraw, and the left wing at Sneadsboro. Fayetteville is the capital of Cumberland County, and was a flourishing town before the war, having a population exceeding seven thousand. It is on the left bank of Cape Fear River, at the head of navigation, and sixty miles south of Raleigh, the capital of the State, and one hundred miles northwest of Wilmington. It contained an arsenal, distilleries of turpentine, and cotton and flour mills. The 14th corps moved by Love's bridge, for the purpose of entering Fayetteville in advance, but the weather and road continuing bad it reached that place on March 11th, together with the 17th corps. They approached skirmishing with Gen. Wade Hampton's cavalry, which covered the rear of Gen. Hardee's army, as it retreated. It crossed the Cape Fear River and burned the bridge. The cavalry during the march had kept well on the left and exposed flank; but on the night of March 9th his three brigades were divided to picket the railroad. This was discovered by Gen. Hampton, who, early in the morning, dashed in and gained possession of the camp of Col. Spencer's brigade, and the house in which Gen. Kilpatrick and Col. Spencer had their quarters. The surprise was complete, but Gen. Kilpatrick quickly succeeded in rallying his men, on foot, in a swamp near at hand, and by a prompt attack, well followed up, he regained his artillery, horses, camp, and every thing except some prisoners. The enemy retired, leaving their dead behind.

The army remained at Fayetteville during three days, until March 15th. The United States arsenal, and a vast amount of machinery, which had formerly belonged to the arsenal at Harper's Ferry, were destroyed. Every building was knocked down and burned, and every piece of machinery broken up by the 1st Michigan engineers. The position of Gen. Sherman at this time is thus described by himself: "Up to this period I had perfectly succeeded in interposing my superior army between the scattered parts of my enemy. But I was then aware that the fragments that had left Columbia under Beauregard had been reinforced by Cheatham's corps from the West, and the garrison of Augusta, and that ample time had been given to move them to my front and flank about Raleigh. Hardee had also succeeded in getting across Cape Fear River ahead of me, and could therefore complete the junction with the other armies of Johnston and Hoke in North Carolina; and the whole, under the command of the skilful and experienced Joe

Johnston, made up an army superior to me in cavalry, and formidable enough in artillery and infantry to justify me in extreme caution in making the last step necessary to complete the march I had undertaken. Previous to reaching Fayetteville I had despatched to Wilmington from Laurel Hill Church two of our best scouts with intelligence of our position and my general plans. Both of these messengers reached Wilmington, and on the morning of the 12th of March, the army tug Davidson, Capt. Ainsworth, reached Fayetteville from Wilmington, bringing me full intelligence of events from the outer world. On the same day, this tug carried back to Gen. Terry, at Wilmington, and Gen. Schofield at Newbern, my despatches to the effect that on Wednesday, the 15th, we would move for Goldsboro, feigning on Raleigh, and ordering them to march straight for Goldsboro, which I expected to reach about the 20th. The same day, the gunboat Eolus, Capt. Young, United States navy, also reached Fayetteville, and through her I continued to have communication with Wilmington until the day of our actual departure. While the work of destruction was going on at Fayetteville, two pontoon bridges were laid across Cape Fear River, one opposite the town, the other three miles below."

While Gen. Sherman had been advancing to Fayetteville, some movements had taken place at Wilmington, N. C., intended to prepare the way for coöperation with him. It was on Jan. 15th that Gen. Schofield, with the 23d corps, left Gen. Thomas, as has been stated, for the Atlantic coast. The troops moved with their artillery and horses, but without wagons, by steam transports, to Cincinnati, Ohio, and thence by railroad to Washington, D. C., and Alexandria, Va. Although it was midwinter and the weather unusually severe, the movement was effected without delay, accident, or suffering on the part of the troops. In February an order was issued by the Secretary of War creating the department of North Carolina, and assigning Gen. Schofield to the command. The ultimate object of his operations was to occupy Goldsboro, N. C., and to open railroad communication between that point and the sea-coast, and further to accumulate supplies for Gen. Sherman's army and to join it, in its approach, at or near Goldsboro. Wilmington was made the first point to capture, as it would afford a valuable auxiliary base to Morehead City in the event of the junction being made at Goldsboro; and also as it would be of great value to Gen. Sherman in case the movement of the main army of the enemy or other circumstances should render advisable a concentration of Sherman's army at some point further south than Goldsboro.

With the 8d division of the 23d corps, under Major-Gen. J. D. Cox, Gen. Schofield reached the mouth of Cape Fear River on Feb. 9th, and landed near Fort Fisher. The other troops were to follow. Major-Gen. Terry, with about eight thousand men, then held a line across the peninsula, about two miles above the fort, and

occupied Smithville and Fort Caswell on the south side of the river, while the naval squadron under Rear-Admiral Porter, occupied positions in Cape Fear River, and off the coast covering the flanks of Gen. Terry's line. On the west bank, Fort Anderson was occupied by the enemy with a collateral line running to a large swamp about three-fourths of a mile distant, and a line opposite Fort Anderson, running across the peninsula from Cape Fear River to Masonboro' Sound. This position was impregnable against a direct attack, and could be turned only by crossing the sound above his left, or passing around the swamp which covered his right. The first movement of Gen. Schofield consisted in pushing forward Gen. Terry's line on Feb. 11th, supported by Gen. Cox's division, which drove in the enemy's pickets, and intrenched in a new position close enough to the enemy's line to compel him to hold it in force. Efforts were then made to turn his left by the aid of a fleet of boats to cross the sound, but the weather prevented. Finally Gen. Schofield determined to attempt to turn the enemy's right. Gen. Cox's and Gen. Ames' divisions were crossed over to Smithville and joined by Col. Moore's brigade of Gen. Couch's division, which had just debarked. They advanced along the main Wilmington road until they encountered the enemy's position at Fort Anderson and the adjacent works. Here two brigades were intrenched to occupy the enemy, while Gen. Cox with the other two brigades and Gen. Ames' division moved around the swamp covering the enemy's right, in order to strike the Wilmington road in the rear of Fort Anderson. The distance to be travelled was about fifteen miles. The enemy, by means of their cavalry, discovering the movement of Gen. Cox, hastily abandoned their works on both sides of the river during the night of Feb. 19th, fell back behind Town Creek on the west, and to a similar position covered with swamps on the east. Thus the main defences of the Cape Fear River and of Wilmington were captured, with ten pieces of heavy ordnance and a large amount of ammunition.

On the next day Gen. Cox pursued the enemy to Town Creek, behind which he was found intrenched. The only bridge over had been destroyed. Gen. Terry, on the east bank, also encountered the enemy in superior force, and Gen. Ames' division was recrossed and joined him during the night. On the 20th Gen. Cox crossed Town Creek, and gaining the flank and rear of the enemy attacked and routed them, capturing two guns and three hundred and seventy-five prisoners, besides the killed and wounded. During the night he rebuilt the bridge, crossed his artillery, and advanced toward Wilmington without opposition. Meanwhile, Gen. Terry being unable to advance, so occupied the attention of the entire force of Gen. Hoke that he was unable to reinforce those defeated by Gen. Cox. On Feb. 21st Gen. Cox

secured a portion of the enemy's bridge across Brunswick River, and passed a portion of his troops to Eagle Island, and threatened to cross the Cape Fear River above Wilmington. The enemy immediately set fire to his steamers, cotton, and military and naval stores, and abandoned the city. Early the next morning, Feb. 22d, Gen. Cox entered without opposition. The force in front of Gen. Terry fell back, and were pursued by him across Northeast River.

The Federal losses in these operations were about two hundred officers and men killed and wounded. That of the enemy was estimated at one thousand killed, wounded, and taken prisoners. Fifteen heavy and fifteen light guns were captured, with a large amount of ammunition.

As Gen. Schofield had no rolling stock at Wilmington, and was nearly destitute of wagons, he was compelled to operate from Newbern for the capture of Goldsboro. He had already sent to that place about 5,000 men, and ordered Gen. J. N. Palmer to move with as little delay as possible upon Kinston, in order to cover the workmen repairing the railroad. Gen. Ruger's division of the 23d corps was sent to reinforce Gen. Palmer, by way of Morehead City. As Gen. Palmer had not moved on the 25th, Gen. Cox was ordered to take the command and push forward at once. At the same time the division of Gen. Couch, which had just arrived at Wilmington, was prepared as rapidly as possible, together with the division of Gen. Cox, then under Brig.-Gen. Reilly, to join the column moving from Newbern by a land march from Wilmington. On March 6th the two divisions were ready to move for Kinston, and proceeded by way of Onslow and Richlands. On the 8th Gen. Cox had advanced to Wise's Forks, about one and a half miles below Southwest Creek, behind which the force of the enemy, consisting of Gen. Hoke's division and a small body of reserves, had retired. Meanwhile Gen. Cox sent two regiments, under Col. Upham of the 15th Connecticut, to secure the crossing of the creek on the Dover road. But the enemy having been reinforced by a portion of the old Army of Tennessee, recrossed the creek above the Dover road, and came down in the rear of Col. Upham's position, and surprised and captured nearly his entire command, about seven hundred men. They then advanced and endeavored to penetrate between Gen. Carter's and Gen. Palmer's divisions, occupying the Dover road and the railroad respectively, but were checked by Gen. Ruger's division, which was just arriving on the field. Only light skirmishing took place, from which the loss was small. As the enemy was equally as strong as Gen. Cox, and receiving reinforcements all the time, Gen. Cox intrenched his force to await the arrival of Gen. Couch. On the 9th the enemy pressed his lines strongly without making an assault; and on the 10th, having received further reinforcements, and perhaps heard of the approach of Gen. Couch's

column, they made a heavy attack upon the left and centre of Gen. Cox, but were decisively repulsed with a heavy loss. They retired in confusion, leaving their dead and wounded and a large number of arms and intrenching tools. During the night they fell back across the Neuse and burned the bridge. The loss of Gen. Cox was about 800 in killed and wounded; that of the enemy was estimated at 1,500 in killed, wounded, and prisoners. During the night the column of Gen. Couch arrived. Gen. Schofield was delayed in crossing the Neuse until the 14th, for want of pontoons, when it was effected without opposition. Meanwhile the enemy had abandoned Kinston and moved rapidly toward Smithfield, to join the force under Gen. Johnston, to resist the advance of Gen. Sherman from Fayetteville. After occupying Kinston and repairing the bridge over the Neuse and the railroad track, Gen. Schofield moved on the 20th toward Goldsboro, which he entered on the evening of the 21st with slight opposition from the enemy.

Meanwhile Gen. Terry, with a portion of the command which had remained at Wilmington, moved from that point on March 15th, reaching Faison's depot on the 20th, and advanced to Cox's bridge, securing the crossing of the Neuse on the 22d.

The columns of Gen. Sherman commenced their march from Fayetteville on Wednesday, March 15th. His plan was, that Gen. Kilpatrick should move up the plank road to and beyond Averysboro, a village on the Cape Fear River, about forty miles south of Raleigh. Four divisions of the left wing, with as few wagons as possible, were to follow him; the rest of the train, under the escort of the two remaining divisions of the wing, were to take a shorter and more direct road to Goldsboro. In like manner Gen. Howard was to send his trains well to the right, under a good escort, toward Faison's depot and Goldsboro, and to hold four divisions light and ready to go to the aid of the left wing if it should be attacked while in motion. The weather continued bad, and the roads were almost impassable, requiring repairs at almost every foot to admit the passage of the wagons and artillery.

Gen. Kilpatrick advanced, followed by Gen. Slocum, who moved up the river or plank road on the 15th to Kyle's landing. About three miles beyond, at Taylor's Hole Creek, Gen. Kilpatrick encountered the rear-guard of the enemy, with which he skirmished heavily. At his request Gen. Slocum sent forward a brigade of infantry to hold a line of barricades. On the next morning the column advanced in the same order, and found the enemy in an intrenched position, with artillery, infantry, and cavalry. They were in front of the point where the road branched off toward Goldsboro through Bentonville. It appeared that Gen. Hardee, in retreating from Fayetteville, had halted in the narrow and swampy neck between the Cape Fear and South Rivers, in

order to check the progress of Gen. Sherman, that time might be gained for the concentration of Gen. Johnston's forces in the rear at Raleigh, Smithfield, or Goldsboro. The force of Gen. Hardee was estimated at 20,000 men. Gen. Sherman found it to be necessary to dislodge him, both to gain possession of the road to Goldsboro and to keep up as long as possible the feint of an advance on Raleigh. The position of the enemy was a difficult one to carry, by reason of the nature of the ground, which was so soft that horses would sink everywhere, and even men could hardly make their way over the common pine barren.

Gen. Williams, with the 20th corps, was ahead, and Gen. Ward's division in the advance. This was deployed, and the skirmish line developed the position of a brigade of heavy artillery armed as infantry, posted across the road behind a light parapet, with a battery enfilading a clear field over which lay the way of approach. A brigade under Gen. Corse was sent by Gen. Williams to the left to turn this line. By a quick charge it broke the enemy's brigade, which retreated rapidly back to a second line better made and more strongly held. On the retreat the enemy were made to suffer by Winniger's battery of artillery, which had been put in position by Major Reynolds, chief of artillery. On the advance of Gen. Ward's division over the ground, three guns and 217 prisoners were captured. Of the latter 68 were wounded. Of the enemy's dead, 108 were buried by the troops. As the second line was developed, the division of Gen. Jackson was deployed forward on the right of Gen. Ward, and two divisions of Gen. Jefferson C. Davis' 14th corps on the left, well toward the Cape Fear River. At the same time Gen. Kilpatrick, who was acting in concert, was ordered to mass his cavalry on the extreme right, and in concert with the right of Gen. Jackson, to feel forward for the Goldsboro road. He succeeded in getting a brigade on the road, but it was attacked so furiously by a division of the enemy under Gen. McLaws, that it fell back to the flank of the infantry. Late in the afternoon the entire line advanced and drove the enemy within his intrenchments, and pressed him so hard that during the night, which was stormy, he retreated. In the morning he was followed by the division of Gen. Ward through and beyond Averysboro, when it became apparent that Gen. Hardee had retreated toward Smithfield instead of Raleigh. The Union loss was 12 officers and 65 men killed and 477 wounded. The loss of the enemy is unknown.

The division of Gen. Ward remained to keep up a show of pursuit, and the rest of Gen. Slocum's column turned to the right and built the bridge across the South River and took the road to Goldsboro. At the same time Gen. Kilpatrick crossed the river to the north in the direction of Elevation, and moved eastward, watching the left flank. The right wing of

Gen. Howard was still working its way over the heavy roads toward Bentonville and Goldsboro. The cavalry of the enemy crossed in front of Gen. Sherman, to join their infantry at Smithfield, burning the bridges across Mill Creek. Smithfield is 22 miles northwest of Goldsboro, on the railroad leading from the latter place to Raleigh, and on the left bank of the Cape Fear River, 27 miles from Raleigh. Goldsboro is at the junction of the railroad from Raleigh to Newbern and that from Richmond to Wilmington.

On the night of the 18th Gen. Slocum's column encamped on the Goldsboro road, about five miles from Bentonville and twenty-seven miles from Goldsboro. The column of Gen. Howard was two miles south, and both columns had pickets three miles forward, at the junction of the roads leading to Goldsboro. The next movement is thus described by Gen. Sherman:—"All the signs induced me to believe that the enemy would make no further opposition to our progress, and would not attempt to strike us in flank while in motion. I therefore directed Gen. Howard to move his right wing by the new Goldsboro road, which goes by way of Falling Creek Church. I also left Slocum and joined Howard's column, with a view to open communication with Gen. Schofield, coming up from Newbern, and Gen. Terry from Wilmington. I found Gen. Howard's column well strung out, owing to the very bad roads, and did not overtake him in person until he had reached Falling Creek Church, with one regiment forward to the cross-roads near Cox's bridge across the Neuse. I had gone from Gen. Slocum about six miles when I heard artillery in his direction, but was soon made easy by one of his staff officers overtaking me, explaining that his leading division (Carlin's) had encountered a division of rebel cavalry (Dibrell's), which he was driving easily. But soon other staff officers came up reporting that he had developed near Bentonville the whole of the rebel army under Gen. Johnston himself. I sent him orders to call up the two divisions guarding his wagon trains, and Hazen's division of the 15th corps, still back near Lee's store, to fight defensively until I could draw up Blair's corps, then near Mount Olive station, and with the three remaining divisions of the 15th corps come up on Gen. Johnston's left rear from the direction of Cox's bridge. In the mean time, while on the road, I received couriers from both Gens. Schofield and Terry. The former reported himself in possession of Kinston, delayed somewhat by want of provisions, but able to march so as to make Goldsboro on the 21st, and Gen. Terry was at or near Faison's depot. Orders were at once despatched to Gen. Schofield to push for Goldsboro, and to make dispositions to cross Little River in the direction of Smithfield as far as Millard; to Gen. Terry to move to Cox's bridge, lay a pontoon bridge, and establish a crossing; and to Gen. Blair to make a night march to Falling Creek

Church; and at daylight, the right wing, Gen. Howard, less the necessary wagon guards, was put in rapid motion on Bentonville.

It appears that on the advance of the head of Gen. Slocum's column from his camp on the night of the 18th, it first encountered Dibbrell's cavalry, but soon found its progress hindered by infantry and cavalry. The enemy attacked his advance and gained a temporary advantage capturing three guns of Gen. Carlin's division, and driving the two advanced brigades back on the main body. Gen. Slocum at once deployed the two divisions of the 14th corps of Gen. Davis, and brought up on their left the two divisions of the 20th corps of Gen. Williams. These were placed on the defensive, and a line of barricades prepared. Gen. Kilpatrick also massed his cavalry on the left. In this position six assaults were made on the left wing by Gen. Johnston, with the combined forces of Gens. Hoke, Hardee, and Cheatham. During the night ensuing, Gen. Slocum got up his wagon train with its guard of two divisions, and Gen. Hazen's division of the 15th corps, which enabled him to make his position impregnable. Gen. Johnston had moved by night from Smithfield, with as little incumbrance as possible, for the purpose of overwhelming the left wing before it could be relieved. The right wing, in its advance to the aid of Gen. Slocum, found the cavalry of the enemy watching its approach without being able to offer any serious resistance until the head of the column encountered a considerable body behind a barricade, at the forks of the road near Bentonville, about three miles east of the battle field of the previous day. The cavalry were quickly dislodged, and the intersection of the roads secured. As the 15th corps advanced, Gen. Logan found that the enemy had thrown back their left flank, and constructed a line of parapet connecting with that toward Gen. Slocum, in the form of a bastion, with its salient on the main road to Goldsboro; thus interposing between Gen. Slocum with the left wing on the west, and Gen. Howard with the right wing on the east, while the flanks rested on Mill Creek and covered the road to Smithfield. Gen. Howard proceeding cautiously soon made strong connection with Gen. Slocum on the left, and at 4 P. M. of the 20th a complete and strong line of battle confronted the enemy in his intrenched position, which put Gen. Johnston on the defensive, with Mill Creek and a single bridge in his rear. Gen. Sherman having nothing to gain by a battle, now pressed the enemy steadily with skirmishers alone, using artillery on the wooded space held by him, and feeling the flanks of his position, which were covered by swamps. On the next day, the 21st, a steady rain prevailed, during which Gen. Mower with his division, on the extreme right, had worked well to the right around the enemy's flank, and nearly reached the bridge across Mill Creek, which was the only line of retreat open to Gen. Johnston. Fearing the enemy might turn upon

Gen. Mower with all his reserves, to overwhelm him, and perhaps yield his parapets for the purpose, Gen. Sherman ordered a general attack by his skirmish line, from left to right. Meanwhile Gen. Mower was able to regain his connection by moving to his left rear. During the night ensuing the enemy retreated toward Smithfield, leaving his pickets to fall into Gen. Sherman's hands, with many dead unburied and wounded in his field hospitals. At day-break pursuit was made two miles beyond Mill Creek. The loss of the left wing about Bentonville was reported at 9 officers and 145 men killed, 51 officers and 816 men wounded, and 8 officers and 223 men missing; total, 1,247. Of the enemy, 167 dead were buried, and 338 made prisoners by the left wing. The loss of the right wing was 2 officers and 35 men killed, 12 officers and 289 men wounded, and 1 officer and 60 men missing; total, 899. Of the enemy, 100 dead were buried and 1,287 made prisoners by this wing. The total loss of Gen. Sherman, exclusive of the cavalry, was 1,646.

The result of this affair gave to Gen. Sherman full possession of Goldsboro, with the two railroads to Wilmington and Beaufort, on the coast. The 22d was passed in burying the dead and removing the wounded at Bentonville, and on the next day all the troops moved to the camps about Goldsboro, there to rest and receive supplies of food and clothing.

During this march Gen. Sherman's army passed over an average breadth of forty miles of country, from Savannah to Goldsboro, and consumed all the forage, cattle, hogs, sheep, poultry, cured meats, corn meal, &c. It was stripped so bare as to make it necessary for the enemy to send provisions from other quarters to feed the inhabitants. It caused the abandonment by the enemy of the whole sea-coast from Savannah to Newbern, with the forts, dockyards, gunboats, &c. The real object of the march, says Gen. Sherman, "was to place this army in a position easy of supply, whence it could take an appropriate part in the spring and summer campaign of 1865."

While General Sherman had been marching through South and North Carolina, General Grant was completing his preparations for the final conflict with General Lee. He considered it to be of the utmost importance before a general movement of Meade's forces, that all communication with Richmond, north of the James River, should be cut off. The enemy had withdrawn the bulk of their force from the Shenandoah valley to strengthen themselves in the South, and General Grant desiring to reinforce Sherman, especially with cavalry, determined to make a move from the Shenandoah, which might accomplish the first, if not both these objects. He therefore sent the following despatch to General Sheridan:

CITY POINT, VA., February 20, 1865—1 P. M.

GENERAL: As soon as it is possible to travel, I think you will have no difficulty about reaching Lynchburg with a cavalry force alone. From there you could

destroy the railroad and canal in every direction, so as to be of no further use to the rebellion. Sufficient cavalry should be left behind to look after Mosby's gang. From Lynchburg, if information you might get there would justify it, you could strike south, heading the streams in Virginia to the westward of Danville, and push on and join General Sherman. This additional raid with one now about starting from East Tennessee under Stoneman, numbering four or five thousand cavalry, one from Vicksburg, numbering seven or eight thousand cavalry, one from Eastport, Mississippi, ten thousand cavalry, Canby from Mobile Bay, with about thirty-eight thousand mixed troops; these three latter pushing for Tuscaloosa, Selma, and Montgomery, and Sherman with a large army eating out the vitals of South Carolina, is all that will be wanted to leave nothing for the rebellion to stand upon. I would advise you to overcome great obstacles to accomplish this. Charleston was evacuated on Tuesday last.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General P. H. SHERIDAN.

On the 25th he wrote again as follows:

CITY POINT, VA., February 25, 1865.

GENERAL: Sherman's movements will depend on the amount of opposition he meets with from the enemy. If strongly opposed, he may possibly have to fall back to Georgetown, S. C., and fit out for a new start. I think, however, all danger for the necessity of going to that point has passed. I believe he has passed Charlotte. He may take Fayetteville on his way to Goldsboro. If you reach Lynchburg, you will have to be guided in your after movements by the information you obtain. Before you could possibly reach Sherman, I think you would find him moving from Goldsboro toward Raleigh, or engaging the enemy strongly posted at one or the other of these places, with railroad communications opened from his army to Wilmington or Newbern.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General P. H. SHERIDAN.

On the 27th, Gen. Sheridan left his camp at Winchester. The command consisted of the 1st and 3d Divisions of Cavalry of the Army of the Shenandoah, under the immediate command of Brevet Major-General Wesley Merritt, Brevet Major-General George A. Custer, commanding the 8d Division, and Brigadier-General T. C. Devin the 1st. The force was 9,987 officers and men. The column passed through Kernstown, Middletown, Strasburg, and Woodstock, crossing the streams on the way without opposition. On the next day, the 28th, the march was made without opposition from Woodstock, through Edinburg, to Hawkinsburgh. The north fork of the Shenandoah was crossed on a pontoon bridge, between Mount Jackson and New Market. In the crossing nine men of Gen. Custer's division were drowned. On the next day Gen. Sheridan passed through Harrisonburgh, Mount Crawford, Mount Sidney, and crossed Middle River, nine miles from Staunton, and camped four miles from that place, having advanced eighty-three miles in three days. The only skirmishing thus far took place at a point near the North River and Mount Crawford, between the brigade under Caphart and some cavalry of Gen. Rosser's division.

Gen. Early, who had occupied Staunton, was unable to retain possession of the town. During the night of March 1st, while the troops were encamped outside of Staunton, Gen. Devin's brigade of Merritt's division,

moved to Staunton, drove the enemy's picket through the town, and occupied it without opposition. Gen. Devin's then turned to the left marching easterly on the road toward Rockfish Gap, and destroyed the trestle bridge of the Virginia Central Railroad at Christina's Creek. On the 2d it rained heavily, but the column moved through Staunton toward Waynesboro thirteen miles distant. At Fishersville, eight miles from Staunton, Gen. Custer's division being in advance, met the enemy's videttes and drove them back five miles to Waynesboro. Here he made a reconnaissance and discovered the enemy in position on some ridges along South River, with five guns. Placing the brigade of Gen. Pennington on the right, and Wells' on the left, with that of Caphart acting as a reserve, he advanced with the two forward regiments deployed as skirmishers and firing briskly. Immediately after firing a volley the entire line of the enemy broke, when the troops rushed upon them and captured 87 officers, 1,165 men, 13 flags, 5 cannon, over 100 horses and mules, and nearly 100 wagons and ambulances. Gen. Early lost his baggage but escaped to Charlottesville. Pursuit was made, and Caphart's brigade crossing South River moved to Greenwood station, where it destroyed the depot, a train containing six pieces of artillery, and some commissary and ordnance supplies. Gen. Custer now waited for Gen. Merritt to come up, and both forces pushed on through Rockfish Gap to Charlottesville, eighteen miles. The prisoners were sent back to Winchester under a guard. At Charlottesville Gen. Sheridan remained two days. He says: "This time was consumed in bringing over from Waynesboro our ammunition and pontoon trains. The weather was horrible beyond description, and the rain incessant. The two divisions were during this time occupied in destroying the two large iron bridges, one over the Rivanna River, the other over Morse's Creek, near Charlottesville, and the railroad for eight miles in the direction of Lynchburg."

On March 6th Gen. Devin's advanced with his division to Scottsville, whence light parties were sent through the country, destroying all merchandise, mills, factories, bridges, &c. The division then proceeded along the James River Canal to Duguidsville, fifteen miles from Lynchburg, destroying every lock, and in many places the bank of the canal. The bridges at Duguidsville and Hardwicke had been burned by the enemy, and the pontoons were useless on account of the high water. At the same time the 3d division started from Charlottesville and proceeded down the Lynchburg Railroad to Amherst Court House, destroying every bridge, and in many places miles of the road. The bridges were numerous, and some of them five hundred feet in length. Abundant supplies were found in all places. The canal had been, says Gen. Sheridan, "the great feeder of Richmond." At Rockfish River the bank of the canal was cut, and at New Canton, where a

dam is across the James, the guard lock was destroyed and the James River let into the canal, carrying away its banks and washing out its bottom. The dam was also partially destroyed. Among the captures were twelve canal boats laden with supplies, ammunition, rations, medical stores, &c. Gen. Custer was next sent to Ashland, and Gen. Devin to destroy the bridges over the South Anna. At noon on March 10th, the advance of Gen. Sheridan arrived on the banks of the Pamunkey, a few miles from Whitehouse, and soon crossed the river. On the 26th he reached City Point, and took a position in Gen. Gregg's old cavalry camp on the left and rear of the army.

The line occupied by Gen. Grant's army at this time extended a distance of about thirty miles. The extreme right was at Fort Harrison at Chafin's farm, north of the James River, where were also the outposts of the cavalry under Gen. Kautz. Thence it crossed the James in front of Bermuda Hundred and the Appomattox, and extended around Petersburg as far southwest as the bank of Hatcher's Run. This line was strongly intrenched everywhere, although the greater part of the army were on the left. The Army of the James, under Gen. Ord, was north of the James, forming the right wing, and the Army of the Potomac was south of the Appomattox, and formed really the left wing. From the Appomattox to Hatcher's Run there was a strong series of connected intrenchments. The first regular work on the line was Fort McGilvery; the next Fort Steadman; the next three-eighths of a mile further on, was Fort Haskell; the next Fort Morton, &c. Between the forts were mortar batteries, as follows: No. 8 near Fort McGilvery, No. 9 between that and Fort Steadman, No. 10 on the right of the latter fort and near it, and Nos. 11 and 12 on its left. Fort Steadman and the adjoining batteries were on an eminence known as Hare's Hill.

For some days previous to the arrival of Gen. Sheridan with his command, there had been indications of a change on the part of the enemy, such as might result in a dash on some part Gen. Grant's lines. About daylight, on March 25th, Gen. Gordon's old division and Bushrod Johnson's division of Lee's army were massed for a charge upon Fort Steadman, which covered about an acre of ground and had nine guns. At the same time the rest of Gen. Lee's army was arranged for an attack further down toward the left. At dawn Gordon's troops rushed forward to the attack. The space between the lines was about one hundred and fifty yards wide. They at once cleared their own abatis, charged across the interval, and up the ascent to Fort Steadman, and working through the abatis, carried the fort almost in an instant. The surprise was complete. In the fort was the 14th New York heavy artillery, and the line was guarded by Gen. McLaughlin's brigade of the 1st division of the 9th corps. The enemy immediately turned the guns of the fort against the rest of the line, and caused the abandonment of batteries 10 and

11 on the left, and battery 9 on the right. Upon these they dashed at once, and opened fire upon the troops as they escaped. Fort Haskell, however, soon gave them a check. The 3d division of the corps under Gen. Hartranft was quickly on the ground, and the batteries from all sides were speedily massed upon Fort Steadman. A terrible fire burst from the artillery, to which the enemy replied with the captured guns. Under this fire the division of Gen. Hartranft pressed up to retake the captured fort. The enemy at first resisted obstinately, and checked his progress with a loss of nearly two hundred killed and wounded. But the constant fire of the artillery and the pressure of Hartranft soon caused the enemy to fall back into the fort and then beyond it, down the hill, leaving all the captured guns in the endeavor to regain their own lines. A portion, however, were unable to escape, and about 1,758 were made prisoners, causing a total loss to the enemy of more than 2,000 men. The Union loss was nearly 1,000, in killed, wounded, and missing. No more firing took place at this point during the day. It was resumed at night when an attempt was made to repair the abatis. The affair was over before other Union troops arrived to give assistance. Later in the day a general forward demonstration was made along the line on the left, and a part of the enemy's skirmish lines captured with about 2,000 prisoners. Of this movement Gen. Grant reported thus:

"Our captures by the 2d corps were 365; by the 6th corps, 469, and by the 9th corps 1,049. The 2d and 6th corps pushed forward and captured the enemy's strong intrenchments, and turned them against him and still hold them. In trying to retake these the battle was continued until eight o'clock at night, the enemy losing very heavily. Humphreys estimates the loss of the enemy in his front at three times his own, and Gen. Wright, in his front, as double that of ours."

The following is Gen. Meade's congratulatory order to the army:

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE POTOMAC, March 26, 1863.

General Orders No. 13.

The Major-General Commanding announces to the Army the success of the operations of yesterday.

The enemy, with a temerity for which he has paid dearly, massed his forces, and succeeded, through the reprehensible want of vigilance of the 3d brigade 1st division, 9th corps, in breaking through our lines, capturing Fort Steadman, and batteries 9, 10, and 11.

The prompt measures taken by Maj.-General Parke, the firm bearing of the troops of the 9th corps in adjacent portions of the line held by the enemy, and the conspicuous gallantry of the 3d division of this corps, for the first time under fire, together with the energy and skill displayed by Brigadier-General Hartranft, its leader, quickly repaired this disaster; and the enemy were driven from Fort Steadman and our lines, with heavy losses in killed and wounded, leaving in our hands eight battle-flags and over 1,900 prisoners.

The enemy being driven from the front of the 9th corps, the offensive was assumed by the 6th and 2d corps; the enemy by night was driven from his intrenched picket line, and all his efforts to recover the same, which were particularly determined and

persistent on the 2d corps front, were resisted and repulsed with heavy losses, leaving with the 6th corps over 400 prisoners, and with the 2d corps two battle-flags and over 800 prisoners.

The troops of the 6th corps, reported by Major-General Wright as engaged in these operations, were Getty's division, Koifer's brigade of Seymour's division, and Hamblin's and Edward's brigade of Wheaton's division.

Of the 2d corps, Major-General Humphreys mentions Miles' and Mott's divisions, and Smythe's brigade of Hays' division, supported by Griffin's division, 6th corps.

The result of the day was the thorough defeat of the enemy's plans, the capture of his strongly intrenched picket-line under the artillery fire of his main works, and the capture of ten battle-flags and about 2,800 prisoners—a result on which the Major-General Commanding heartily congratulates the army.

Two lessons can be learned from these operations: One, that no fortified line, however strong, will protect an army from an intrepid and audacious enemy, unless vigilantly guarded; the other, that no disaster or misfortune is irreparable, where energy and bravery are displayed in the determination to recover what is lost, and to promptly assume the offensive.

The Major-General Commanding trusts these lessons will not be lost on this army.

In conclusion, the Major-General Commanding desires to return his thanks to those commands of the army not specially mentioned in this order, for the promptness displayed by all, in their movements to different parts of the lines, under the exigencies of the hour. In connection with this subject, the promptitude of Major-General Warren and of Brevet Major-General Hunt, Chief of Artillery, in the early part of the operations, during the accidental absence of the Major-General Commanding, deserve commendation and thanks.

GEORGE G. MEADE,

Major-General Commanding.

Indications were now more and more apparent of the weakness of Gen. Lee's forces, and the fall of Petersburg and Richmond. Gen. Grant immediately prepared for new movements of the highest importance, and considered that this attack of Lee was made to cover his designed retreat from Richmond.

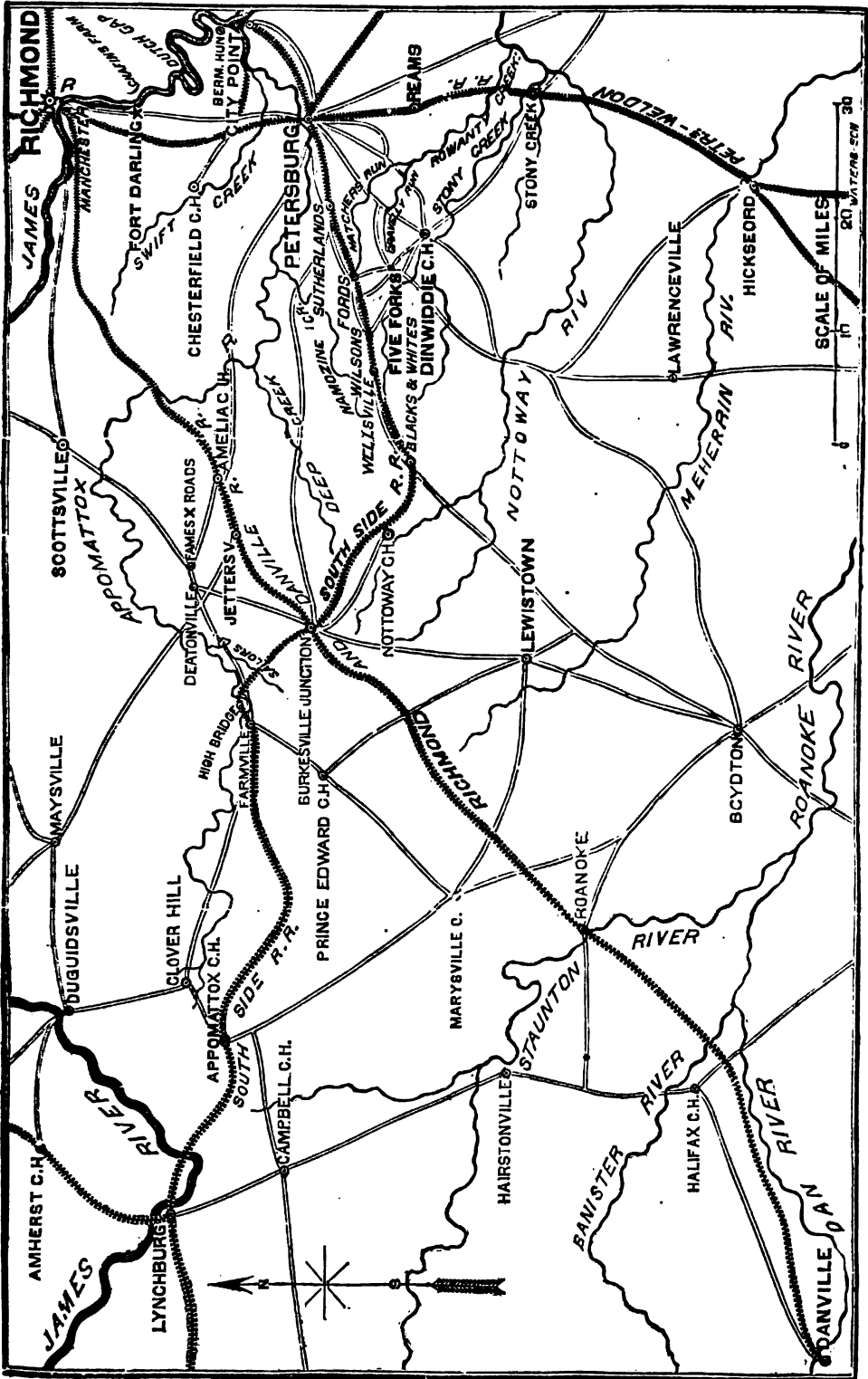
On the 26th some sharp skirmishing broke out between the pickets of the 1st division of the 9th corps and their opponents, and the batteries joined in. It soon quieted down. On the 27th an attack was made by the enemy on Gen. Getty's division of the 6th corps by a small force of the enemy, which was repulsed after a sharp skirmish. On the same day orders were sent to the various field hospitals to remove the sick and wounded to City Point, and to keep the hospitals in readiness for any emergency that might arise. At 12 o'clock at night the whole army was put under marching orders, and the next day, the 28th, was passed in preparations for the movement. The plan was that the cavalry, under Sheridan, should advance to the left, as had been done so often before, followed by the 5th corps under Gen. Warren, and the 2d corps under Gen. Humphreys, while the other corps held the lines around Petersburg. For this purpose, on the 27th troops were selected from the 24th under Gen. Gibbon, and 25th under Gen. Birney, corps which belonged to the Army of the James, under Gen. Ord, and during the night marched across the

river, leaving the remainder of the corps to garrison the position north of the James. At noon on the 28th, this force reached the headquarters of Gen. Meade, and early on the morning of the 29th marched into the lines as they were evacuated by the 2d corps.

About 6 A. M. of Wednesday the 29th, the cavalry began to move down the Jerusalem plank-road to Reams' station on the Weldon Railroad, in two columns, of which Gen. Crook commanded the right and Gen. Merritt the left. The bridge over Rowanty Creek was gone, and the creek not fordable. After a delay of four hours a bridge was built, and the advance under Crook crossed, and moved direct to Dinwiddie. The bad roads caused much delay. The town was occupied, and communication opened with Gen. Warren's corps on the right. It rained a little during the night, and very hard all of Thursday, the 30th. The roads became so bad as to block up the trains, and a part of the cavalry force was employed in guarding them. The rest moved up to the Boydton road.

Previous to the advance of the infantry, the left of the 6th corps extended to Hatcher's Run. The 2d corps extended down the run from the left of the 6th, at nearly a right angle, until reaching the crossing of the Vaughan road. The 5th corps was practically in reserve, and extended back at a right angle from the left of the 2d, in rear of the 6th. Early on the morning of the 29th the 2d corps moved along the Vaughan road, and was soon thrown into position along that road from Hatcher's Run to Gravelly Run, which unite at Monk's Neck to form Rowanty Creek. Works were thrown up to cover the corps from attack, but the enemy made no opposition. The 5th corps moved at the same time, and crossed Hatcher's Run. The route was along the road to Dinwiddie, until reaching the Quaker road, when the column turned abruptly to the right. About nine o'clock a connection was formed between the right of the 5th corps and the left of the 2d. The line of the former extended across the Quaker road, and within two or three miles of Dinwiddie. Some opposition had been made to the crossing of the 5th corps at Gravelly Run by a cavalry vidette, which was driven off after a short skirmish. Expecting an attack from the enemy, preparations were soon made by the troops, and about 8½ P. M. a division, under Gen. B. Johnson, attacked and drove in the skirmishers, and assailed with great force Gen. Griffin's division. Some batteries being in position opened upon the enemy, who had no artillery, and a sharp but short conflict ensued. Finding the force against him becoming too strong Johnson withdrew to his original position. The loss to the 5th corps was about five hundred, and that of the enemy was estimated at not far from the same number.

During the night, between 9 and 12 o'clock, a cannonade took place on the right of the



line, in front of Petersburg. The loss was small on each side.

On the next day, Thursday, the 80th, Turner's division of the 24th corps was moved down the Vaughan road and across Hatcher's Run. It then turned to the right and advanced to make connection with the right of the 2d corps. A brigade of Gen. Foster's division then moved out and connected with the right of Turner, thus making the line complete. Field works were thrown up, and some skirmishing with the enemy took place. The two divisions of the 25th corps held a place between the right of the 24th and the left of the 6th. The 9th corps remained on the right of the 6th.

Early on the same day Gen. Sheridan connected his right with the left of Gen. Warren near the Boydton plank-road. The enemy had a strong line of intrenchments already erected to cover a position known as Five Forks. The force of Gen. Merritt was sent in that direction for the purpose of turning the right of the enemy, and the advance brigade, under Gen. Devin, soon encountered their cavalry, and drove them back to their works. Their infantry in turn drove back the advance. Their line of intrenchments covered the White Oak road, which runs from the Boydton road to the Southside Railroad. From the White Oak road toward Hatcher's Run the enemy were in strong force. All attempts to turn his right by cavalry were baffled.

Meanwhile some changes were made in the position of the different corps. The 5th at night occupied a position about a mile north of the junction of the Quaker and Boydton roads. During the day it had advanced westward about three-fourths of a mile, and lay fronting northward, with the pickets of Gens. Ayres's division within five hundred yards of the White Oak road, but at a spot between two and three miles west of its intersection with the Boydton road. The divisions of Gens. Crawford and Griffin were on the right successively. On the right of the 5th corps was the 2d, which now had its right near Hatcher's Run. Gen. Sheridan remained at Dinwiddie and covered the left. The movements of the day had been accomplished with skirmishing and some artillery firing, making the losses of the Union troops about two hundred.

The object now was to get possession of the enemy's position, known as Five Forks, by carrying which their right flank would be turned. At this point five roads meet in the woods, three of which run back to the Southside Railroad. The White Oak road was here strongly fortified with logs and earth, with its approaches blocked by fallen trees. Sharpshooters were also stationed to resist any advance.

Early on Friday morning, the 31st, Gen. Warren massed the division of Griffin in the rear of those of Gens. Ayres and Crawford, for an advance upon the White Oak road,

which commences at the Boydton road and runs westward, crossing the Quaker road and the Claiborne, which latter extends northwestly to the Southside Railroad. About 8 o'clock the advance commenced toward the Dabney House, Ayres's division leading and supported by the other two. After moving about a half mile beyond the plank-road the enemy's skirmishers opened fire, at the same time falling back upon their main works, a mile and a half below the White Oak road. A severe fire was now opened upon the advance under Gen. Ayres, which broke and fell to the rear, followed by a vigorous charge upon them by the enemy. The attack of the enemy was so impetuous, and they were so well handled, that they swept the field, notwithstanding the obstinate resistance. Each division met the same fate until the whole 5th corps was driven back to the Boydton road, when Miles' division of the 2d corps came to their aid and checked the enemy. They now attempted to cut off Sheridan's cavalry, which were greatly exposed by the failure of the 5th corps to advance. The 2d division was on Stony Creek, southwest of Dinwiddie, consisting of three brigades—Smith's, Davies', and Gregg's—and holding the left of Sheridan's line. The brigade of Gen. Fitzhugh was next, and facing southeast, and next was Stagg's brigade, on Gravelly Run, six miles from Dinwiddie. About two miles from the latter place was Gibbs' brigade. Early in the afternoon the enemy attacked the left in force, but it held its ground. Davies' brigade, on the right of the extreme left, was next attacked, and, being flanked, was driven back with severe loss. The enemy next attacked the left centre, and forced it back, when the commands were faced into new positions, and reinforcements hurried up. At 5 p. m. the greater part of both divisions had been repulsed and driven back several miles to the Boydton road, and Gibbs' brigade had fallen back about a mile from Dinwiddie. The troops of Gen. Merritt were now reformed, and held a firm position on the right. The enemy, reinforced by the infantry which had driven the 5th corps, renewed the attack, but the artillery being in position, and a large force of cavalry having been rallied by Gen. Sheridan, the desperate charges of the enemy were successfully resisted, and they drew off to the woods. Meantime the 5th corps had been rallied, and advanced and regained the whole ground which had been lost. The division of Gen. Griffin captured the earthwork from which the enemy had issued, and advanced and took a position on the White Oak road, east of Five Forks. At the same time the 1st and 8d divisions of the 2d corps, next on the right, advanced, and a hot engagement with the enemy ensued. The latter resisted stubbornly, but at length withdrew, and the whole corps advanced three-fourths of a mile, capturing about one hundred and fifty prisoners. The two divisions of the 24th corps were on

the right of the 2d, and were thrown forward so as to coöperate with the general advance. The enemy had thus foiled the plans of the day; but owing to the strong force and the skilful handling of the numerous batteries in the field works he had been checked in turn, and forced to retire. At night the Federal right had advanced a few hundred yards from its position in the morning, and the left reached to the White Oak road, four or five miles from Five Forks, which was to the westward, and three miles from the intersection of the White Oak road with the Boydton road. The White Oak road from the extreme spot occupied, was held about one mile eastward. From that point the line ran in an irregular and semi-circular form to the 2d corps. The Union loss of the day was between 2,500 and 3,000; that of the enemy was less. Many prisoners were taken on both sides.

On the next day, Saturday, April 1st, the contest for the possession of Richmond was virtually decided. During the night Gen. Grant had placed the 5th corps, Gen. Warren, under the command of Gen. Sheridan. All night the troops had been busy throwing up works, corduroying roads, and bringing up trains. At 4 A. M. the enemy made an attack on Foster's division of the 24th corps. It had been expected, but they came so suddenly that the troops broke to the rear, and left them to raise their flag on the parapet. The troops were soon aroused and drove back the enemy. About fifty prisoners were captured on each side. This was followed by the roar of musketry and a cannonade all along the centre and right of the line. This soon quieted down. The command of Gen. Sheridan was now about 20,000 men, consisting of nearly four divisions of cavalry and three of infantry, and double the force which the enemy were able to concentrate against him. At the same time the army threatened the whole length of the extended line from Dinwiddie to Petersburg. The plan of operations by Gen. Sheridan appears to have been to break through the enemy's line in such a manner as to enclose Five Forks and its garrison, and to capture them. At daybreak the cavalry advanced under Gens. Custar and Devin, slowly driving the enemy toward the left of his works on the White Oak road. These divisions were dismounted, and fought with carbines, while the brigades of Gens. Gregg and Mackenzie remained in the middle, so as to flank the enemy quickly. Thus the troops worked steadily up on all sides to the intrenchments of the enemy, who fell slowly back to their main position, delivering a most destructive fire. Thus Gen. Sheridan got a force well on the enemy's flank and rear, while the rest of the troops pressed slowly upon the front of his works. An attack was now to be made by the whole force, and about 3 P. M. the 5th corps was ordered forward to support the cavalry. It marched from its position, and was halted obliquely to the White

Oak road. It was then swung round on its left wing as a pivot by advancing the centre and right. This brought it on one flank of the enemy, while the cavalry pressed the other. The enemy were pressed back slowly, and becoming aware of their dangerous position, a most deadly contest ensued for two hours. Being strongly intrenched, and having a battery in position, they raked the troops of Sheridan with a terrific fire. Several times his men, appalled by the slaughter, staggered back from the intrenchments; but by turns he urged, cheered, and drove them until the enemy were nearly surrounded on all sides and exhausted. With his ranks reduced and wearied, and seeing it to be useless to try longer to check the desperate onsets, the enemy rushed to the rear through the only outlet left for him. Sheridan, with overwhelming forces, pressed upon him, and a further bloody contest ensued. At 7½ P. M. the battle was over. The cavalry divisions of Gens. Custar and Mackenzie pursued and picked up many stragglers and fugitives. About four thousand prisoners were captured, several cannon, an ambulance and baggage train, several thousand muskets, and many flags. Sheridan's loss was estimated at not far from three thousand, while that of the enemy was as large, besides the prisoners. During the day the 2d corps had been making a general advance, engaged constantly with the enemy, and extending so as to connect with the 5th, and be ready to support them near the White Oak road. The 6th and 9th corps had not been engaged; but in order to coöperate in a manner with Sheridan, a general cannonade was opened along the front at 10 P. M. Enlivened by the news of Sheridan's success, the troops made it one of the hottest during the siege of Petersburg. During the day Gen. Warren was removed from the command of the 5th corps, and Gen. Griffin took his place.

At 4 A. M. on the next day, Sunday, April 2d, an assault all along the line by the 2d, 6th, 9th, 24th, and 25th corps commenced. The divisions of Gens. Turner and Foster, of the 24th corps, were brought up on both sides of Hatcher's Run in support of the 6th corps, and charged with it. The enemy opened a destructive fire while the troops were massing, and continued with such severity as often to check the advance. The 6th corps carried the two forts in its front, and the 3d division, under Gen. Seymour, after a severe fight, broke through to the Southside Railroad, and commenced to tear it up. The 24th corps, between the 6th and 2d, had been equally successful. The right division of the 2d corps and the two divisions of the 24th, captured one thousand prisoners and many guns, and carried the works up to the railroad. The 9th corps advanced simultaneously with the 6th, and after the severest fighting on the field, captured Fort Mahone, which covered the Jerusalem plank road. But the position was too important to be lost, and the enemy charged in turn

to retake it, and were nearly successful, when, by the approach of the 6th corps on the left, he was once more driven back. The following telegraphic despatches relate the progress of the day:

CITY POINT, VA., April 2—2 P. M.

Hon. Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War:

At 10:45 A. M. Gen. Grant telegraphs as follows:

"Every thing has been carried from the left of the 9th corps. The 6th corps alone captured more than three thousand prisoners. The 2d and 24th corps captured forts, guns, and prisoners from the enemy, but I cannot tell the numbers.

"We are now closing around the works of the line immediately enveloping Petersburg. All looks remarkably well. I have not yet heard from Sheridan. His headquarters have been moved up to Banks' House, near the Boynton road, about three miles southwest of Petersburg."

A. LINCOLN.

SECOND DESPATCH.

CITY POINT, VA., April 2—3:30 P. M.

Hon. Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War:

At 4:30 P. M. to-day Gen. Grant telegraphed as follows:

"We are now up, and have a continuous line of troops, and in a few hours will be entrenched from the Appomattox, below Petersburg, to the river above. The whole captures since the army started out will not amount to less than twelve thousand men, and probably fifty pieces of artillery. I do not know the number of men and guns accurately, however.

"A portion of Foster's division, 24th corps, made a most gallant charge this afternoon, and captured a very important fort from the enemy, with its entire garrison.

"All seems well with us, and every thing is quiet just now."

A. LINCOLN.

During the afternoon of the same day Gen. Lee, finding his army no longer able to maintain its position, gave orders for the evacuation of Richmond and Petersburg. This was accomplished during the night. This evacuation was early discovered by the troops before those cities. As they advanced to take possession of Petersburg, the Mayor of the city appeared with the following communication:

To Lieut.-Gen. Grant, commanding the armies of the United States, or the Major-General commanding United States forces in front of Petersburg.

GENERAL: The city of Petersburg having been evacuated by the Confederate troops, we, a committee authorized by the Common Council, do hereby surrender the city to the United States forces, with a request for the protection of the persons and property of its inhabitants.

We are, respectfully, your obedient servants,

W. W. TOWNES, Mayor.

D'ARCY PAUL,

CHARLES F. COLLIER.

Seldom was a city occupied by a besieging army with less disorder or damage to private property. A writer who was present says: "The citizens did not show themselves during the fore part of the day, but after discovering that our soldiers were orderly and well-behaved, with no disposition to disturb any one, they began to make their appearance at the doors and windows of their residences, and later in the day even entering familiarly into conversation, many of them expressing their joy quietly that the Confeds had gone, and hoping that the war would soon be over. For more than a month

past rebel troops have been receiving less rations than ever before, only just enough being brought in to last from day to day. The citizens say they have suffered much, but it is well to take such stories with a good deal of allowance. The rebels managed to get away all their artillery, excepting one or two old Columbiads and a few heavy mortars, which they could not transport readily. The city presents a very cleanly and respectable appearance, and there are many residences here that would do no discredit to Fifth avenue, New York. Many of the houses in the lower part of the city have been badly injured by the shot and shell thrown from our batteries last summer, and since that time most of the houses located there have been vacant."

The occupation of Richmond is thus described:

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON,
Wednesday, April 5—10:20 P. M. }

To Major-General Dix:

The following details respecting the capture of Richmond and its occupation by the Union forces, have been telegraphed to this department from that city.

EDWIN M. STANTON,
Secretary of War.

General Weitzel learned, at 8 o'clock on the morning of Monday, that Richmond was being evacuated, and at daylight moved forward, first taking care to give his men breakfast, in the expectation that they might have to fight. He met no opposition, and on entering the city was greeted with hearty welcome from the mass of the people. The Mayor went out to meet him and to surrender the city, but missed him on the road. Gen. Weitzel found much suffering and poverty among the population. The rich as well as the poor are destitute of food. He is about to issue supplies to all who take the oath. The inhabitants now number about twenty thousand, half of them of African descent.

It is not true that Jeff. Davis sold his furniture before leaving. It is all in his house, where I am now writing. He left at 7 P. M. by the Danville Railroad. All the members of Congress escaped. Hunter has gone home. Gov. Smith went with the army. Judge Campbell remains here.

Gen. Weitzel took here one thousand prisoners, besides the wounded. These number five thousand, in nine hospitals. He captured cannon to the number of at least five hundred pieces. Five thousand muskets have been found in one lot. Thirty locomotives and three hundred cars are found here. The Petersburg railroad bridge is totally destroyed; that of the Danville road partially, so that connection with Petersburg is not easily made. All the rebel vessels are destroyed except an unfinished ram, which has her machinery in her perfect. The Tredegar Works are unharmed, and the machinery was taken to-day under Gen. Weitzel's orders. Libby Prison and Castle Thunder have also escaped the fire, and are filled with rebel prisoners of war. Most of the editors have fled, especially John Mitchell. The *Waig* appeared yesterday as a Union paper, with the name of the former proprietor at the head. The theatre opens here to-night. Gen. Weitzel describes the reception of the President yesterday as enthusiastic in the extreme.

The fire in the city commenced in the Shocoe warehouse, filled with tobacco, as well as the large granary establishment on Carey Street near Twenty-third Street. It was very destructive, consuming quite one-third of the city; and in addition to destroying the War Department,

the General Post-office, the Treasury building, several churches, and many stores, likewise destroyed the offices of the Richmond Enquirer, Dispatch, and Examiner; the Virginia Bank, the Farmers' Bank, and the Bank of Richmond.

On arriving in the city Gen. Weitzel, through his Adjutant-General, Major D. D. Wheeler, issued the following order:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT ARMY OF THE JAMES, }
RICHMOND, VA., April 3, 1865.

Major-Gen. Godfrey Weitzel, commanding detachment of the Army of the James, announces the occupation of the city of Richmond by the armies of the United States, under command of Lieut.-Gen. Grant. The people of Richmond are assured that we come to restore to them the blessings of peace, prosperity, and freedom, under the flag of the Union.

The citizens of Richmond are requested to remain for the present quietly within their houses, and to avoid all public assemblages or meetings in the public streets. An efficient provost-guard will immediately reestablish order and tranquillity within the city.

Martial law is, for the present, proclaimed.

Brig.-Gen. George F. Shipley, U. S. volunteers, is hereby appointed Military Governor of Richmond.

Lieut.-Col. Frederick L. Manning, Provost Marshal General, Army of the James, will act as Provost Marshal of Richmond. Commanders of detachments doing guard duty in the city will report to him for instructions. By command of Major-Gen. Weitzel,
 D. D. WHEELER, Ass't Adj.-Gen.

Brig.-Gen. G. F. Shepley having been announced as Military Governor of Richmond, issued the following order:

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY GOVERNOR OF RICHMOND, }
RICHMOND, VA., April 3, 1865.

1. The armies of the rebellion having abandoned their effort to enslave the people of Virginia, have endeavored to destroy by fire the capital, which they could not longer occupy by their arms. Lieut.-Col. Manning, Provost Marshal General of the Army of the James and Provost Marshal of Richmond, will immediately send a sufficient detachment of the provost guard to arrest, if possible, the progress of the flames. The fire department of the city of Richmond, and all the citizens interested in the preservation of their beautiful city, will immediately report to him for duty, and render every possible assistance in staying the progress of the conflagration. The first duty of the armies of the Union will be to save the city doomed to destruction by the armies of the rebellion.

2. No person will leave the city of Richmond without a pass from the office of the Provost Marshal.

3. Any citizen, soldier, or any person whatever, who shall hereafter plunder, destroy, or remove any public or private property, of any description whatever, will be arrested and summarily punished.

4. The soldiers of the command will abstain from any offensive or insulting words or gestures toward the citizens.

5. No treasonable or offensive expressions insulting to the flag, the cause, or the armies of the Union, will hereafter be allowed.

6. For an exposition of their rights, duties, and privileges, the citizens of Richmond are respectfully referred to the proclamations of the President of the United States in relation to the existing rebellion.

7. All persons having in their possession or under their control any property whatever of the so-called Confederate States, or of any officer thereof, or the records or archives of any public officer whatever, will immediately report the same to Col. Manning, Provost Marshal.

In conclusion, the citizens of Richmond are assured that, with the restoration of the flag of the Union, they may expect the restoration of that peace, pres-

perity, and happiness which they enjoyed under the Union of which that flag is the glorious symbol.

G. F. SHEPLEY, Brig.-Gen. U. S. Volunteers,
 and Military Governor of Richmond.

General Order No. 2.

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY GOVERNOR OF RICHMOND, }
RICHMOND, VA., April 3, 1865.

No officer or soldier will enter or search any private dwelling, or remove any property therefrom, without a written order from the headquarters of the Commanding General, the Military Governor, or the Provost Marshal General.

Any officer or soldier, with or without such order, entering any private dwelling, will give his name, rank, and regiment.

Any officer or soldier entering a private dwelling without such authority, or failing to give his name, rank, or regiment, or reporting the same incorrectly, will be liable to immediate and summary punishment.

GEO. F. SHEPLEY,
 Brig.-Gen. U. S. Volunteers, and Military Governor of Richmond.

The following details were written by a correspondent at the time of the occupation: "The works in front of Richmond, which were wholly evacuated previous to our occupancy of the city to-day under Gen. Weitzel, consist of three strong lines, wholly enveloping it. The outer ones are continuous lines, the inner one consisting of a series of strong redoubts and bastion forts. All these works mount upwards of three hundred heavy guns, all of which we have taken, and would, when properly garrisoned, form an almost impregnable series of defences. As I rode along these lines they seemed, with the exception of the outer one, to have been most indifferently garrisoned; and but for the facility with which they could be reinforced at any time by bringing troops up the Petersburg road and crossing them on pontoons, the lines could have been carried by assault.

"The route which I pursued on entering the capital was that by the Osborn and Richmond pike, which leads in a nearly north and south direction, and quite parallel to the James River. After passing our picket line, the first work encountered was Fort Field, forming a part of the exterior line of defence. This work, which is a very strong one in itself, is surrounded by three lines of abatis and one of torpedoes. The torpedoes were carefully removed by the advanced guard of Weitzel. These lines of torpedoes were marked out by small flags for safety to the rebels, which flags they neglected to remove in their hasty flight. The camps were left entire—tents standing and furniture within. After passing this line we came upon the second line, which was equally as strong as the first, excepting as to abatis and torpedoes. The third line is just outside the edge of the town, is situated on high ground, and is well adapted to satisfy the conditions of defence. Each of the detached works forming this line sweep a portion of the line in front of it by its fire, and rendering that front line untenable when reached. These works, like the others, mount heavy guns, many of which were navy guns, probably captured at Norfolk in the early part of the war. Communication between these works and those on the

other side of the river was maintained by four bridges, some of which were pontoon and some pile, in addition to the three railroad bridges at and in Richmond.

"The evacuation of the works and city was not generally understood by the troops and people till Sunday afternoon. The necessity of the movement was rendered imperative by Gen. Grant's successes on the left. At half-past three o'clock yesterday afternoon, Jeff. Davis, while in church, received a despatch from Gen. Lee, that immediate preparations must be made to evacuate Richmond and its defences at once, as he was wholly unable to make further headway against Grant's onset on the left. He added that his (Lee's) design was to endeavor to make Danville, and there fortify for a last grand stand.

"Davis left this city last night at eight o'clock by rail for Danville, his family having been sent out five days ago. On the train he had horses and carriages embarked, in case the road was interrupted, in order to easily make his way by these means. Governor Smith did not evacuate the Gubernatorial mansion until one o'clock this morning, when he fled, leaving Mrs. Smith behind, and all the furniture in his house, which he had heretofore threatened to burn. The residence of the Governor is now the headquarters of General Charles Devens, commanding a division in the 24th corps, now here. Mrs. General R. E. Lee, wife of the General-in-Chief, is also in the city."

The operations of Gen. Sheridan on the 2d, consisted in efforts to push the advantages thus far gained by him. On the 3d his object was to intercept the retreat of the enemy. The advance of the cavalry consisted of Custar's division. At Namozine Creek the rear guard of the enemy was found strongly intrenched behind earthworks covering the crossing. The bridge had been destroyed and trees felled across the road leading down to it. A section of artillery was opened in front, while the cavalry forded the stream and flanked the enemy's position. After a short skirmish the enemy retreated, leaving their path strewn with wagons, ambulances, dead and wounded horses and mules, caissons, boxes of ammunition, mess utensils, arms, accoutrements, blankets, &c. The enemy were overtaken beyond Namozine Church, and prisoners, horses, and arms were captured in abundance. A harassing pursuit was now kept up for twenty miles, during which about 350 prisoners, four cannon, two flags, and several ammunition wagons were captured. Night put a stop to its progress. Early on the next morning, Tuesday, April 4th, the pursuit was resumed, with Mackenzie's division in front and Custar's in the rear. The enemy were overtaken in the afternoon, and found posted with infantry and artillery in works about two miles from Bethany. Skirmishing began at once, and continued until dark, when the troops encamped, waiting for the rest of the column. Soon after 11 p. m. the cavalry were aroused and marched all night,

reaching Jettersville about 6 o'clock in the morning, and there found the 5th corps, well intrenched across the railroad from Richmond to Danville. The 5th corps had started in pursuit, soon after the cavalry, on the 3d, under Sheridan's command. They arrived in sight of the Appomattox about 2 p. m. Thence it turned to the left without crossing the river, and moved along the Namozine road behind the cavalry, marching through Amelia County and crossing both Deep and Namozine Creeks. The distance made was sixteen miles, which ended in blocking the trains in the miry roads. Few people were to be seen, except those who had been slaves, many of whom followed the column. The march on the next day, Tuesday the 4th, was twenty miles, and brought the corps to Jettersville, where it was massed across the railroad in an open field. In the rear of the 5th corps followed the 2d, and in the rear of the 2d was the 6th. These two corps were under Gen. Meade on the river or Namozine road, but did not start until the 4th. After a long march the 2d reached Jettersville at 2 p. m. on the next day after the 5th.

When the cavalry reached Jettersville on the morning of the 6th, it was understood that Gen. Lee in his retreat from Richmond had got as far as Amelia Court House, while the Union troops were beginning to assemble at Jettersville. This place is on the railroad, about halfway between Burkesville and Amelia Court House, and fifty-four miles southwest of Richmond. Amelia Court House is on the same railroad, about forty-seven miles from Richmond. The cavalry division of Gen. Custar was immediately posted on the left of the 5th corps, and the 1st and Mackenzie's division still further to the left.

At the same time Gen. Davies' brigade of Gen. Crooks' division was sent toward Burkesville, to seize that station and ascertain the state of affairs in that direction. At Burkesville is the junction of the Richmond and Danville Railroad with the Southside Railroad from Petersburg, and fifty-two miles west of the latter place. Gen. Davies came upon the cavalry of the enemy at Fame's cross-roads, and attacking them, captured a large number of prisoners, 5 new Armstrong guns and caissons, and about 200 wagons, mostly empty, and 7 or 8 battle-flags. An infantry force then came to the support of the cavalry, and Gen. Davies was forced to retire with his prisoners, after burning the wagons. At 3 p. m. Gen. Sheridan learning this news, and finding the condition of the enemy, sent the following despatch to Gen. Grant:

JETTERSVILLE, April 5—3 p. m.

To Lieut.-Gen. U. S. Grant:

GENERAL:—I send you the enclosed letter, which will give you an idea of the condition of the enemy and their whereabouts. I sent Gen. Davies' brigade this morning around on my left flank. He captured at Fame's cross-roads five pieces of artillery, about two hundred wagons, and eight or nine battle flags, and a number of prisoners. The 2d army corps is

now coming up. I wish you were here yourself. I feel confident of capturing the Army of Northern Virginia if we exert ourselves. I see no escape for Gen. Lee. I will send all my cavalry out on our left flank, except McKenzie, who is new on the right.

(Signed) P. H. SHERIDAN, Major-General.

LETTER.

AMELIA COURT HOUSE, April 5, 1865.

DEAR BRAMMIA:—Our army is ruined, I fear. We are all safe as yet. Theodore left us sick. John Taylor is well; saw him yesterday. We are in line of battle this evening. Gen. Robert Lee is in the field near us. My trust is still in the justice of our cause. Gen. Hill is killed. I saw Murray a few moments since. Bernary Perry, he said, was taken prisoner, but may get out. I send this by a negro I see passing up the railroad to Michlenburg. Love to all.

Your devoted son,

W. B. TAYLOR, Colonel.

Sheridan now proceeded to put his cavalry out on the left flank, and the slight skirmishing which took place indicated the contest of the next day.

Meanwhile the other corps of the army were approaching. On April 4th, Gen. Ord's column of the Army of the James, comprising two divisions of the 24th corps and one of the 25th corps, marched down the Cox's road from Sutherland's station, 10 miles west of Petersburg, on the Southside Railroad. Having separated from the main column, it moved on the direct road to Burkesville. Gen. Grant was with this force. After advancing along the railroad 15 miles, it encamped at night near Wilson's station. On the next day, the 5th, it advanced along the railroad to Black and White's, which it reached at 2 P. M. Thence it pressed forward, over good roads, to Nottaway Court House, 9 miles from Burkesville. Here the despatch of Gen. Sheridan was received by Gen. Grant, about 6½ P. M., and the two divisions of the 24th corps were immediately pushed forward to Burkesville, which they reached at 11 P. M. The division of the 25th corps remained at Black and White's. Gen. Grant himself went to Jettersville.

Of the 9th corps, two divisions on the 4th marched from Petersburg to Ford's station on the Southside Railroad, about 20 miles. On the 5th they advanced along the railroad to Wellsville, 41 miles from Petersburg, having in charge most of the army trains. On the next day, the 6th, they pressed forward, and arrived within 10 miles of Burkesville.

On the night of the 5th, after the skirmishing of the cavalry with the enemy, the army lay in line of battle, facing substantially to the north. The cavalry division of Gen. Mackenzie was on the left, next the 2d corps of infantry, with the 5th and 6th still further to the right, and the cavalry division of Gen. Custar on the right flank. At daylight in the morning Gen. Meade moved the three corps along the railroad in the direction of Amelia Court House, but learning that the enemy were retreating toward Farmville, the nearest station west on the railroad to Lynchburg, he changed the direction of the 2d and 5th corps from a northerly to a north-westerly one, with the 2d corps in advance,

moving on Deatonville, and the 5th on its right. At the same time the 6th corps faced about and moved by the left flank, taking position on the left of the 2d. The cavalry were on the extreme left. The 6th corps in its movement struck the road running from Deatonville to Burke's station, a little south of the former place. It found the 2d corps engaged with the enemy at the front and right, and the cavalry on the left. Moving down the road toward Burke's station about a mile, it turned sharp to the right and proceeded across toward a nearly parallel road, on which the enemy was moving, and along which they had a line of intrenchments thrown up. Gen. Seymour's division of the corps carried the road held by the enemy about 4 P. M., and then turned to the right and advanced down the road against strong resistance. Gen. Wheaton's division was brought in on the left of Gen. Seymour's, and both swept down the road two miles. The enemy were there found reformed on the opposite bank of a deep and difficult creek, from which they were driven half a mile. At all points the enemy were driven during the day, and Lieut.-Gen. Ewell, Gen. Custis Lee, and three others, were captured, with a large number of men. The 5th army corps made a long march, but its position on the right prevented it from striking the enemy's column before it had passed. The Union loss was above 1,000. Five guns and many flags, caissons, and wagons were taken, besides prisoners. On the next day, the 7th, the 2d corps, with the 2d division of cavalry, found the enemy at Farmville, 16 miles west of Burkesville. A sharp contest ensued, causing a loss of several hundred men, among whom was Gen. Smyth. Other troops were brought up, but before the enemy could be reengaged he was on the retreat again.

At High Bridge over the Appomattox, Gen. Lee crossed to the north side of the river, and two regiments sent by Gen. Grant to hold the bridge were captured by the cavalry of the enemy, and the bridge burned. The retreat of the enemy was now directly toward Lynchburg. The pursuit was made with great vigor, and stragglers were picked up at every step, and property dropped or partially destroyed by the enemy. During the day Gen. Grant addressed a letter to Gen. Lee, demanding a surrender of his army. On the 8th the enemy made most strenuous efforts, by hard marching, to extricate themselves; but at night they encountered Gen. Sheridan at Appomattox Court House, between themselves and Lynchburg. A sharp contest ensued, in which many of them were taken prisoners and their retreat checked. The 24th and 5th corps were in support of the cavalry, and during the night a strong position was taken across the main road, south of the enemy, the Appomattox River being on the north, and cutting him off from retreat in that direction. Early on the next morning Gen. Sheridan commenced a vigorous attack, and a warm engagement en-

sued until 9 A. M., when a flag of truce appeared in front of his line, with the information that hostilities had been suspended, in order to arrange terms of surrender. At this time Gen. Hancock was advancing, having left Winchester on April 4th, with a strong column, and moved up the Shenandoah valley for Lynchburg. Gen. Stoneman had already reached Boone, in North Carolina, in his march from East Tennessee, and would have aided in the capture of Gen. Lee's army if it had not surrendered. Gen. Sherman was also rapidly moving on Gen. Johnston in North Carolina, and cut off all possibility of his ultimately rendering any assistance to Gen. Lee.

The letter of Gen. Grant, addressed to Gen. Lee on the 7th, as above mentioned, was as follows:

April 7.

General R. E. Lee, Commander Confederate States Armies:

GENERAL:—The result of the last week must convince you of the hopelessness of further resistance on the part of the Army of Northern Virginia in this struggle. I feel that it is so, and regard it as my duty to shift from myself the responsibility of any further effusion of blood, by asking of you the surrender of that portion of the C. S. army known as the Army of Northern Virginia.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
U. S. GRANT,

Lieut.-Gen. Commanding Armies of the U. States.

To this note Gen. Lee replied as follows:

April 7.

To Lieut.-Gen. U. S. Grant, Commanding Armies of the United States:

GENERAL:—I have received your note of this date. Though not entirely of the opinion you express of the hopelessness of further resistance on the part of the Army of Northern Virginia, I reciprocate your desire to avoid useless effusion of blood, and therefore, before considering your proposition, ask the terms you will offer, on condition of its surrender.

R. E. LEE, General.

The following correspondence then ensued:

April 8.

To Gen. R. E. Lee, Commanding Confederate States Army:

GENERAL:—Your note of last evening, in reply to mine of same date, asking the conditions on which I will accept the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, is just received. In reply, I would say, that peace being my first desire, there is but one condition that I insist upon, viz.:

That the men surrendered shall be disqualified for taking up arms against the Government of the United States until properly exchanged.

I will meet you, or designate officers to meet any officers you may name for the same purpose, at any point agreeable to you, for the purpose of arranging definitely the terms upon which the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia will be received.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
U. S. GRANT,

Lieut.-Gen. Commanding Armies of the U. States.

April 8.

To Lieut.-Gen. Grant, Commanding Armies of the United States:

GENERAL:—I received at a late hour your note of today, in answer to mine of yesterday. I did not intend to propose the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, but to ask the terms of your proposition. To be frank, I do not think the emergency has arisen to call for the surrender. But as the restoration of

peace should be the sole object of all, I desire to know whether your proposals would tend to that end.

I cannot, therefore, meet you with a view to surrender the Army of Northern Virginia, but so far as your proposition may affect the Confederate States forces under my command, and lead to the restoration of peace, I should be pleased to meet you at 10 A. M. to-morrow, on the old stage-road to Richmond, between the picket lines of the two armies.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
R. E. LEE, General Confederate States Armies.

GEN. GRANT TO GEN. LEE.

April 9.

Gen. R. E. Lee, Commanding Confederate States Armies:

GENERAL:—Your note of yesterday is received. As I have no authority to treat on the subject of peace, the meeting proposed for 10 A. M. to-day, could lead to no good. I will state, however, General, that I am equally anxious for peace with yourself; and the whole North entertain the same feeling. The terms upon which peace can be had are well understood. By the South laying down their arms they will hasten that most desirable event, save thousands of human lives, and hundreds of millions of property not yet destroyed.

Sincerely hoping that all our difficulties may be settled without the loss of another life, I subscribe myself,

Very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

U. S. GRANT, Lieut.-Gen. U. S. A.

GEN. LEE TO GEN. GRANT.

April 9, 1865.

GENERAL:—I received your note of this morning on the picket line, whither I had come to meet you and ascertain definitely what terms were embraced in your proposition of yesterday with reference to the surrender of this army.

I now request an interview in accordance with the offer contained in your letter of yesterday for that purpose.

Very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

R. E. LEE, General.

To Lieut.-Gen. Grant, Commanding U. S. Armies.

GEN. GRANT TO GEN. LEE.

April 9.

Gen. R. E. Lee, Commanding Confederate States Armies:

Your note of this date is but this moment (11:50 A. M.) received. In consequence of my having passed from the Richmond and Lynchburg road to the Farmville and Lynchburg road, I am at this writing about four miles west of Walter's Church, and will push forward to the front for the purpose of meeting you.

Notice sent to me on this road where you wish the interview to take place will meet me.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
U. S. GRANT, Lieut.-Gen.

THE TERMS

APFOMATTOX COURT HOUSE, April 9.

Gen. R. E. Lee, Commanding Confederate States Armies:

In accordance with the substance of my letter to you of the 8th instant, I propose to receive the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia on the following terms, to wit:

Rolls of all the officers and men to be made in duplicate, one copy to be given to an officer designated by me, the other to be retained by such officers as you may designate.

The officers to give their individual paroles not to take arms against the United States until properly exchanged, and each company or regimental commander sign a like parole for the men of their commands.

The arms, artillery, and public property to be packed and stacked, and turned over to the officers appointed by me to receive them. This will not embrace the side-arms of the officers, nor their private horses or baggage.

This done, each officer and man will be allowed to return to their homes, not to be disturbed by United States authority so long as they observe their parole and the laws in force where they may reside.

Very respectfully,

U. S. GRANT, Lieut.-Gen.

THE SURRENDER.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF NORTHERN VA., April 9, 1865.

Lieut.-Gen. U. S. Grant, Command'g U. S. Armies:

GENERAL:—I have received your letter of this date, containing the terms of surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, as proposed by you; as they are substantially the same as those expressed in your letter of the 8th instant, they are accepted. I will proceed to designate the proper officers to carry the stipulations into effect.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

R. E. LEE, General.

At 3½ P. M. the terms of capitulation were signed, and the utmost gratification prevailed through the army. The following is the form of the personal parole given by all the officers of Gen. Lee's army:

We, the undersigned, prisoners of war, belonging to the army of Northern Virginia, having been this day surrendered by Gen. R. E. Lee, commanding said Army, to Lieut.-Gen. Grant, commanding the Armies of the United States, do hereby give our solemn parole of honor that we will not hereafter serve in the armies of the Confederate States, or in any military capacity whatever against the United States of America, or render aid to the enemies of the latter until properly exchanged in such manner as shall be mutually approved by the respective authorities.

Done at Appomattox Court-House, Va., this ninth day of April, 1865.

This parole was countersigned as follows:

The above officers (or officer) will not be disturbed by the United States authorities as long as they observe their parole, and the laws in force where they may reside.

GEORGE H. SHARP,

General Assistant Provost Marshal.

The obligation of officers for the subdivisions under their command was as follows:

I, the undersigned, commanding officer of ———, do, for the within named prisoners of war, belonging to the Army of Northern Virginia, who have been this day surrendered by Gen. Robert E. Lee, Confederate States Army, commanding said army, to Lieut.-Gen. Grant, commanding Armies of the United States, hereby give my solemn parole of honor that the within named shall not hereafter serve in the armies of the Confederate States, or in military or any capacity whatever, against the United States of America, or render aid to the enemies of the latter, until properly exchanged in such manner as shall be mutually approved by the respective authorities.

Done at Appomattox Court-House, Va., this ninth day of April, 1865.

The within named will not be disturbed by the United States authorities so long as they observe their parole and the laws in force where they may reside.

The surrender of Gen. Lee's army was followed by the voluntary surrender of all the troops in Northeastern Virginia, including those in the Shenandoah valley.

On the next day, the 10th, Gen. Lee issued the following farewell address to his army:

General Order No. 9.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF NORTHERN VA., April 10, 1865.

After four years of arduous service, marked by unsurpassed courage and fortitude, the Army of

Northern Virginia has been compelled to yield to overwhelming numbers and resources. I need not tell the survivors of so many hard-fought battles, who have remained steadfast to the last, that I have consented to this result from no distrust of them, but holding that valor and devotion could accomplish nothing that could compensate for the loss that would attend the continuation of the contest, I have determined to avoid the useless sacrifice of those whose past vigor has endeared them to their countrymen.

By the terms of agreement officers and men can return to their homes and remain there until exchanged. You will take with you the satisfaction that proceeds from the consciousness of duty faithfully performed, and I earnestly pray that a merciful God will extend you His blessing and protection. With an increasing admiration of your constancy and devotion to your country, and a grateful remembrance of your kind and generous consideration of myself, I bid you an affectionate farewell.

(Signed)

R. E. LEE, General.

The official statement of the number of men surrendered as belonging to the Army of Northern Virginia, under the command of Gen. Lee, is 27,805. It was estimated that the force of Gen. Lee, on the evacuation of Richmond, consisted of not far from 50,000 men. Large numbers, anticipating the course of events, abandoned the army and returned home; to these should be added the loss by killed, wounded, and prisoners taken during the retreat. The surrender embraced a large number who could not be regarded as forming a part of the efficient force of his army; thus reducing his total effective force considerably below the number surrendered. The number of muskets surrendered was reported as scarcely exceeding 10,000, and about thirty pieces of artillery. The total captures of artillery during the battles and pursuit amounted to one hundred and seventy guns. There were about three hundred and fifty wagons surrendered. The War Department at Washington issued the following order on receiving the news of the surrender:

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, D. C.,

April 9—10 o'clock, P. M.

Ordered: That a salute of two hundred guns be fired at the headquarters of every army and department, and at every post and arsenal in the United States, and at the Military Academy at West Point, on the day of the receipt of this order, in commemoration of the surrender of Gen. R. E. Lee and the Army of Northern Virginia to Lieut.-Gen. Grant and the army under his command; report of the receipt and execution of this order to be made to the Adjutant-General, Washington.

EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

This surrender was regarded by the country as an actual end of the war. The suddenness of the close of the stupendous military operations of the previous four years, cannot be better illustrated than by comparing General Order No. 9 of Gen. Lee above, which is a farewell to his troops, with the following General Order No. 2, issued just two months previous:

HEADQUARTERS ARMIES CONFEDERATE STATES,

Tuesday, February 11, 1865.

GENERAL ORDER NO. 2.—In entering upon the campaign about to open, the General-in-Chief feels assured that the soldiers who have so long and so nobly borne the hardships and dangers of war, require no

exhortation to respond to the calls of honor and duty. With the liberty transmitted by their forefathers, they have inherited the spirit to defend it. The choice between war and abject submission is before them. To such a proposal brave men with arms in their hands can have but one answer. They cannot barter manhood for peace, nor right of self-government for life or property. But justice to them requires sterner admonition to those who have abandoned their comrades in the hour of peril. * * *

On January 31st Gen. Thomas was directed to send a cavalry expedition under Gen. Stoneman from East Tennessee to penetrate South Carolina well down toward Columbia, to destroy the railroads and military resources of the country, and return, if possible, to East Tennessee by way of Salisbury, N. C., and release the Federal prisoners there. Gen. Stoneman, however, was so late in getting started, that the order was recalled, especially as the army of Gen. Sherman had passed out of South Carolina. Gen. Stoneman was then ordered to make a raid toward Lynchburg and destroy the railroad as far as possible.

His cavalry column, already mentioned as at Boone Court-House in North Carolina, at the time of the surrender of Gen. Lee, had left Knoxville, in East Tennessee, on March 10th. It struck the Central Railroad from Virginia to Tennessee at Wytheville and Christiansburg, in Virginia. Between these places thirty-three bridges were burned and twenty-five miles of the railroad destroyed. Thence it marched for Greensboro, in North Carolina, and on the 12th arrived at Grant's Creek, three miles from Salisbury. The enemy's line of defence for the town was on this creek, and defended by artillery and infantry. It was soon forced with the capture of 14 guns and 1,104 prisoners. The town was occupied at 10 A. M., where the column remained for two days. During that time it destroyed four large cotton factories and 7,000 bales of cotton; four large magazines, containing 10,000 stand of small arms and accoutrements; 1,000,000 rounds of small-arm ammunition, 1,600 rounds of fixed artillery ammunition, and 7,000 pounds of powder; 85,000 bushels of corn, 50,000 bushels of wheat, 160,000 pounds of cured bacon; 100,000 suits of gray uniforms and clothing, 250,000 army blankets, 20,000 pounds of harness-leather, 10,000 pounds of saltpetre, also a very large amount of sugar, salt, rice, and other stores, and medical supplies valued by the rebel medical directors at \$100,000 in gold. In addition to the arsenals at Salisbury, establishments were fitted up, and filled with machinery sent from Raleigh and Richmond, all of which were destroyed.

Fifteen miles of railroad track and the bridges toward Charlotte were also destroyed. Thence Gen. Stoneman moved for the south side of the Catawba River and destroyed the railroad to the bridge, which was fatal to the armies of Lee and Johnston, who depended on that road for supplies and as their ultimate line of retreat.

Meanwhile the army of Gen. Sherman had

been rested and recruited at Goldsboro, North Carolina. The men were all reclad, the wagons reloaded, and a fair amount of forage accumulated preparatory for a march to destroy or capture the army of Gen. Johnston. On April 6th Gen. Johnston's army was in and about Smithfield, and was estimated at 85,000 infantry and artillery, and from 6,000 to 10,000 cavalry. At daybreak on the 10th, Gen. Sherman's army was in motion. Gen. Slocum took the two direct roads for Smithfield; Gen. Howard made a circuit to the right, feigning to move up the Weldon road in order to disconcert the enemy's cavalry, while Gens. Terry and Kilpatrick moved on the west side of the Neuse River to reach the rear of the enemy between Smithfield and Raleigh. Gen. Schofield followed Gen. Slocum in support. The enemy's cavalry were met within six miles of Goldsboro by all the columns protected by the usual rail barricades. At 10 A. M. on the 11th, the 14th corps entered Smithfield, and the 20th was close at hand. Gen. Johnston had retreated rapidly across the Neuse River, and having the aid of the railroad to lighten his trains, could retreat faster than the pursuit could be made. The bridge over the Neuse had been burned and the roads had become heavy by rain. At this time the news of Gen. Lee's surrender was received, and Gen. Sherman immediately dropped his trains and marched rapidly in pursuit, reaching Raleigh at 7½ A. M. on the 13th, in a heavy rain. On the next day the cavalry pushed on to Durham station, the 15th corps followed as far as Morrisville station, and the 17th to John's station. By the 15th, although the rains were incessant and the roads almost impracticable, Gen. Slocum had the 14th corps near Martha's Vineyard, with a pontoon bridge laid across Cape Fear River at Avon's Ferry, the 20th corps, Gen. Mower commanding, being in support; Gen. Howard had the 15th and 17th corps stretched out on the roads toward Pittsboro, while Gen. Kilpatrick held Durham station and Capital Hill University. Gen. Johnston had retreated rapidly on the roads from Hillsboro to Greensboro, at which latter place he was. In this state of affairs Gen. Sherman received the following letter from Gen. Johnston:

HEADQUARTERS IN THE FIELD, April 14, 1865.

Major-General W. T. Sherman, Commanding United States Forces.

GENERAL: The results of the recent campaigns in Virginia have changed the relative military condition of the belligerents. I am therefore induced to address you in this form the inquiry whether, in order to stop the further effusion of blood and devastation of property, you are willing to make a temporary suspension of active operations, and to communicate to Lieut.-Gen. Grant, commanding the Armies of the United States, the request that he will take like action in regard to other armies, the object being to permit the civil authorities to enter into the needful arrangements to terminate the existing war.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

J. E. JOHNSTON, General.

To this Gen. Sherman replied as follows:

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, RALEIGH, N. C., April 14, 1865.

Gen. J. E. Johnston, Commanding Confederate Army:

GENERAL: I have this moment received your communication of this date. I am fully empowered to arrange with you any terms for the suspension of further hostilities as between the armies commanded by you and those commanded by myself, and will be willing to confer with you to that end. I will limit the advance of my main column to-morrow to Morrisville, and the cavalry to the University, and expect that you will also maintain the present position of your forces until each has notice of a failure to agree.

That a basis of action may be had, I undertake to abide by the same terms and conditions as were made by Gen. Grant and Lee at Appomattox Court House, of the 9th instant, relative to our two armies, and, furthermore, to obtain from Gen. Grant an order to suspend the movements of any troops from the direction of Virginia. Gen. Stoneman is under my command, and my order will suspend any devastation or destruction contemplated by him. I will add that I really desire to save the people of North Carolina the damages they would sustain by the march of this army through the central or western parts of the State.

I am, with respect, your obedient servant,
W. T. SHERMAN, Major-General.

At the same time Gen. Sherman addressed to the Secretary of War and Gen. Grant the following letter:

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, RALEIGH, N. C., April 15, 1865.

Gen. U. S. Grant and Secretary of War:

I send copies of correspondence with Gen. Johnston to you, which I think will be followed by terms of capitulation. I will grant the same terms Gen. Grant gave Gen. Lee, and be careful not to complicate any points of civil policy. If any cavalry has retreated toward me, caution them to be prepared to find our work done. It is now raining in torrents, and I shall await Gen. Johnston's reply here, and will prepare to meet him in person at Chapel Hill.

I have invited Gov. Vance to return to Raleigh, with the civil officers of his State. I have met ex-Governor Graham, Messrs. Badger, Moore, Halden, and others, all of whom agree that the war is over, and that the States of the South must resume their allegiance, subject to the Constitution and Laws of Congress, and must submit to the National arms. The great fact was admitted and the details are of easy arrangement.

W. T. SHERMAN, Major-General.

On the 16th the following despatch was sent to Gen. Kilpatrick, at Durham station, and delivered by him to Gen. Sherman:

Major-General J. Kilpatrick, U. S. A.

GENERAL: The General Commanding directs me to arrange for a meeting between himself and Maj.-Gen. Sherman. In accordance with these instructions, I beg to inquire when and where this meeting can most conveniently be had. I suggest ten (10) o'clock, A. M., to-morrow as the hour, and a point on the Hillsboro road, equidistant from the picket of your command and my own, as the place for the proposed meeting.

I am, respectfully, yours,

NED WADE HAMPTON, Lieutenant-General.

The interview which followed with Gen. Johnston, five miles from Durham station, is thus reported by Gen. Sherman: "I agreed to meet Gen. Johnston in person at a point intermediate between our pickets on the 17th at noon, provided the position of the troops remained *statu quo*. I was both willing and anxious to consume a few days, as it would

enable Col. Wright to finish our railroad to Raleigh. Two bridges had to be built and twelve miles of new roads made. We had no iron except by taking up the branch from Goldsboro to Weldon. Instead of losing by time I gained in every way, for every hour of delay possible was required to reconstruct the railroad to our rear and improve the condition of our wagon road to the front, so desirable in case the negotiations failed, and we be forced to make the race of near two hundred miles to head off or catch Johnston, then retreating toward Charlotte. At noon of the day appointed I met Gen. Johnston for the first time in my life, although we had been exchanging shots continually since May, 1863. Our interview was frank and soldier-like, and he gave me to understand that further war on the part of the Confederate troops was folly; that the 'cause' was lost, and that every life sacrificed after the surrender of Lee's army was the highest possible crime. He admitted the terms conceded to Gen. Lee were magnanimous and all he could ask; but he did want some general concessions that would enable him to allay the natural fears and anxieties of his followers, and enable him to maintain his control over them until they could be got back to the neighborhood of their homes, thereby saving the State of North Carolina the devastation inevitably to result from turning his men loose and unprovided on the spot, and our pursuit across the State. He also wanted to embrace in the same general proposition the fate of all the Confederate armies that remained in existence. I never made any concessions as to his own army or assumed to deal finally and authoritatively in regard to any other, but it did seem to me that there was presented a chance for peace that might be deemed valuable to the Government of the United States, and was at least worthy the few days that would be consumed in conference, and to push an enemy whose commander had so frankly and honestly confessed his inability to cope with me, were cowardly and unworthy the brave men I led. Inasmuch as Gen. Johnston did not feel authorized to exercise power over the armies in Texas, we adjourned to the next day at noon.

"I returned to Raleigh, and conferred freely with all my general officers, every one of whom urged me to conclude terms that might accomplish so complete and desirable an end. All dreaded the necessary laborious march after a fugitive and dissolving army back toward Georgia, over the very country where we had toiled so long. There was but one opinion expressed, and, if contrary ones were entertained, they were withheld, or indulged in only by that class who shun the fight and the march, but are loudest, bravest, and fiercest when danger is past.

"I again met Gen. Johnston on the 18th, and we resumed the conversation. He satisfied me then of his power to disband the rebel armies in Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas,

as well as those in his immediate command, viz.: North Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. The points on which he expressed especial solicitude were lest their States were to be dismembered and denied representations in Congress, or any separate political existence whatever; and the absolute disarming his men would leave the South powerless and exposed to depredations by wicked bands of assassins and robbers. The President's (Lincoln) Message of 1864; his Amnesty Proclamation; General Grant's terms to General Lee, substantially extending the benefit of that Proclamation to all officers above the rank of colonel; the invitation to the Virginia Legislature to reassemble in Richmond, by Gen. Weitzel, with the supposed approval of Mr. Lincoln and Gen. Grant, then on the spot; a firm belief that I had been fighting to reestablish the Constitution of the United States; and last, but not least, the general and universal desire to close a war any longer without organized resistance, were the leading facts that induced me to pen the 'memorandum' of April 18, signed by myself and Gen. Johnston. It was designed to be, and so expressed on its face, as a mere 'basis' for reference to the President of the United States and constitutional Commander-in-Chief, to enable him, if he chose, at one blow to dissipate the power of the Confederacy which had threatened the national safety for years. It admitted of modification, alteration, and change. It had no appearance of an ultimatum, and by no false reasoning can it be construed into an usurpation of power on my part."

Some complaint had appeared in the public press that the terms offered to Gen. Lee were too lenient. At the same time the assassination of President Lincoln took place, and public indignation was greatly aroused. In the midst of the excitement the memorandum of terms between Gen. Sherman and Gen. Johnston was received by the Government. It was as follows:

Memorandum or basis of agreement made this 18th day of April, A. D. 1865, near Durham's Station, and in the State of North Carolina, by and between Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, commanding the Confederate Army, and Maj.-Gen. W. T. Sherman, commanding the Army of the United States in North Carolina, both present:

1.—The contending armies now in the field to maintain their status quo until notice is given by the commanding-general of either one to its opponent, and reasonable time, say forty-eight hours, allowed.

2.—The Confederate Armies now in existence to be disbanded and conducted to the several State capitals, there to deposit their arms and public property in the State arsenal, and each officer and man to execute and file an agreement to cease from acts of war and abide the action of both State and Federal authorities. The number of arms and munitions of war to be reported to the Chief of Ordnance at Washington City, subject to future action of the Congress of the United States, and in the mean time to be used solely to maintain peace and order within the borders of the States respectively.

3.—The recognition by the executive of the United States of the several State Governments on their officers and Legislatures taking the oath prescribed by the Constitution of the United States, and where conflicting State Governments have resulted from the

war, the legitimacy of all shall be submitted to the Supreme Court of the United States.

4.—The reestablishment of all Federal Courts in the several States, with powers as defined by the Constitution and laws of Congress.

5.—The people and inhabitants of all States to be guaranteed, so far as the Executive can, their political rights and franchise, as well as their rights of person and property, as defined by the Constitution of the United States and of States respectively.

6.—The executive authority of the Government of the United States not to disturb any of the people by reason of the late war so long as they live in peace and quiet, abstain from acts of armed hostility, and obey laws in existence at any place of their residence.

7.—In general terms, war to cease, a general amnesty, so far the executive power of the United States can command, or on condition of disbandment of the Confederate Armies, and the distribution of arms and resumption of peaceful pursuits by officers and men, as hitherto composing the said armies, not being fully empowered by our respective principals to fulfil these terms, we individually and officially pledge ourselves to promptly obtain necessary authority and to carry out the above programme.

W. T. SHERMAN, Major-General,
Commanding the Army of the United States in North Carolina.

J. E. JOHNSTON, General,
Commanding Confederate States Army in North Carolina.

This was at once made public, accompanied with the following statement from the Secretary of War, Mr. Stanton:

This proceeding of General Sherman was unapproved for the following among other reasons:

1.—It was an exercise of authority not vested in General Sherman, and on its face shows that both he and Johnston knew that he (Sherman) had no authority to enter into such arrangement.

2.—It was a practical acknowledgment of the Rebel government.

3.—It undertook to reestablish the Rebel State governments that had been overthrown at the sacrifice of many thousand loyal lives and an immense treasure, and placed arms and munitions of war in the hands of the Rebels at their respective capitals, which might be used as soon as the armies of the United States were disbanded, and used to conquer and subdue the loyal States.

4.—By the restoration of the Rebel authority in their respective States, they would be enabled to reestablish slavery.

5.—It might furnish a ground of responsibility by the Federal Government to pay the Rebel debt, and certainly subjects loyal citizens of the Rebel States to the debt consummated by the Rebels in the name of the State.

6.—It puts in dispute the existence of loyal State governments, and the new State of Western Virginia, which had been recognized by every department of the United States Government.

7.—It practically abolished the confiscation laws, and relieved Rebels of every degree who had slaughtered our people, from all pains and penalties for their crimes.

8.—It gave terms that had been deliberately, repeatedly, and solemnly rejected by President Lincoln, and better terms than the Rebels had ever asked in their most prosperous condition.

9.—It formed no basis of true and lasting peace, but relieved Rebels from the pressure of our victories, and left them in condition to renew their effort to overthrow the United States Government, and subdue the loyal States, whenever their strength was recruited and an opportunity should offer.

At the same time the Secretary of War issued the following instructions to Gen. Grant:

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, April 21, 1865.

GENERAL: The memorandum or basis agreed upon between Gen. Sherman and Gen. Johnston, having been submitted to the President, they are disapproved. You will give notice of the disapproval to General Sherman, and direct him to resume hostilities at the earliest moment.

The instructions given to you by the late President, Abraham Lincoln, on the 3d of March, by my telegraph of that date addressed to you, express substantially the views of President Andrew Johnson, and will be observed by Gen. Sherman. A copy is herewith appended.

The President desires that you proceed immediately to the headquarters of Gen. Sherman and direct operations against the enemy.

Yours truly,

EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.
To Lieut.-Gen. GRANT.

COPY OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN'S INSTRUCTIONS.

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, March 3, 1865.

To Lieut.-Gen. GRANT:

The President directs me to say to you that he wishes you to have no conference with Gen. Lee, unless it be for the capitulation of Gen. Lee's army, or on some minor and purely military matter. He wishes me to say that you are not to decide, discuss, or confer upon any political question. Such questions the President holds in his own hands, and will submit them to no military conferences or conventions. Meantime you are to press to your utmost your military advantages.

EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

Perhaps it may not be out of place to insert here the reasons briefly given by Gen. Sherman in his report, for his proceedings. They are as follows:

Immediately on my return to Raleigh I despatched one of my staff, Major Hitchcock, to Washington, enjoining him to be most prudent and careful to avoid the spies and informers that would be sure to infect him by the way, and to say nothing to anybody until the President could make known to me his feelings and wishes in the matter.

The news of President Lincoln's assassination, on the 14th of April (wrongly reported to me by telegraph as having occurred on the 11th), reached me on the 17th, and was announced to my command on the same day, in Field Orders No. 56. I was duly informed of its horrible atrocity and probable effects on the country. But when the property and interests of millions still living were involved, I saw no good reason why to change my course, but thought rather to manifest real respect for his memory by following after his death that policy, which, if living, I felt certain he would have approved, or at least not rejected with disdain.

Up to that hour I had never received one word of instruction, advice, or counsel as to the plan or policy of the Government, looking to a restoration of peace on the part of the Rebel States of the South. Whenever asked for an opinion on the points involved, I had always avoided the subject. My letter to the Mayor of Atlanta has been published to the world, and I was not rebuked by the War Department for it. My letter to Mr. — of Savannah, was shown by me to Mr. Stanton, before its publication, and all that my memory retains of his answer is that he said, like my letters generally, it was sufficiently emphatic, and would not be misunderstood. Both these letters asserted my belief that according to Mr. Lincoln's Proclamation and Message, when the people of the South had laid down their arms and submitted to the lawful powers of the United States, *ipso facto*, the war was over as to them; and furthermore, that if any State in rebellion would conform to the Constitution of the United States, cease war, elect Senators and Representatives to Congress, if admitted (of which

each House of Congress alone is the judge), that State becomes instantaneously much in the Union as New York or Ohio. Nor was I rebuked for these expressions, though it was universally known and commented on at the time. And again Mr. Stanton in person at Savannah, speaking of the terrific expense of the war and difficulty of realizing the money for the daily wants of Government, impressed me most forcibly with the necessity of bringing the war to a close as soon as possible for financial reasons.

On the morning of April 24th Gen. Grant arrived at Gen. Sherman's headquarters, and the latter was informed that the memorandum was disapproved, without reasons assigned, and he was ordered to give the forty-eight hours notice, and resume hostilities at the close of that time. Gen. Sherman immediately despatched the following note to Gen. Johnston:

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, RALEIGH, April 24, 1865.

Gen. Johnston, Commanding Confederate Armies:

I have replies from Washington to my communications of April 18. I am instructed to limit my operations to your immediate command, and not to attempt civil negotiations. I therefore demand the surrender of your army, on the same terms as were given to Gen. Lee, at Appomattox, of April 9, purely and simply.

W. T. SHERMAN, Maj.-Gen.

Gen. Grant, although properly in command, left all the further measures to be executed by Gen. Sherman, and the presence of the former was even unknown to Gen. Johnston, who replied as follows:

[Telegram.]

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE TENNESSEE,
IN THE FIELD, April 25, 1865.

Major-Gen. Sherman, U. S. A.

Your despatch of yesterday received. I propose a modification of the terms you offered; such terms for the army as you wrote on the 18th; they also modified according to change of circumstances, and a further armistice to arrange details and meeting for that purpose.

JOS. E. JOHNSTON, General.

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, RALEIGH, April 25, 1865.

Gen. Johnston: I will meet you at the same place as before, to-morrow, at 12 o'clock noon.

W. T. SHERMAN, Major-General.

[Telegram.]

Major-Gen. W. T. Sherman, Commanding U. S. Forces:

GENERAL: I have had the honor to receive your despatch of yesterday, summoning this army to surrender on the terms accepted by Gen. Lee at Appomattox Court House. I propose, instead of such surrender, terms based on those drawn up by you on the 18th for disbanding this army, and a further armistice and a conference to arrange these terms.

The disbanding of Gen. Lee's army has afflicted this country with numerous bands having no means of subsistence but robbery—a knowledge of which would, I am sure, induce you to agree to other conditions. Most respectfully, your obedient servant,

J. E. JOHNSTON, General.

[Telegram.]

GREENSBORO, April 26, 1865—2 A. M.

Major-Gen. Sherman through Gen. Butler:

I will meet you at the time and place you designate. Is armistice with *status quo* renewed?

J. E. JOHNSTON, General.

Terms of a Military Convention entered into this twenty-sixth (26th) day of April, 1865, at Bennett's House, near Durham Station, North Carolina, between General Joseph E. Johnston, commanding the Confederate Army, and Major-General W. T. Sherman, commanding the United States Army in North Carolina.

All acts of war on the part of the troops under Gen.

Johnston's command to cease from this date. All arms and public property to be deposited at Greensboro, and delivered to an ordnance officer of the United States Army. Rolls of all the officers and men to be made in duplicate, one copy to be retained by the commander of the troops, and the other to be given to an officer to be designated by Gen. Sherman. Each officer and man to give his individual obligation in writing not to take up arms against the Government of the United States until properly released from this obligation. The side-arms of officers and their private horses and baggage to be retained by them.

This being done, all the officers and men will be permitted to return to their homes, not to be disturbed by the United States authorities so long as they observe their obligation and the laws in force where they may reside.

W. T. SHERMAN, Major-General,
Commanding U. S. Forces in North Carolina.
J. E. JOHNSTON, General,
Commanding C. S. Forces in North Carolina.
Approved:—U. S. GRANT, Lieut.-General.
RALPH, N. C., April 26, 1865.

On the next day Gen. Sherman issued the following order:

Special Field Orders No. 65.

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, RALEIGH, N. C., April 27, 1865.

The General Commanding announces a further suspension of hostilities and a final agreement with Gen. Johnston, which terminates the war as to the armies under his command and the country east of the Chattahoochee.

Copies of the terms of the convention will be furnished Major-Gens. Schofield, Gillmore, and Wilson, who are specially charged with its execution in the Department of North Carolina, Department of the South, and at Macon and Western Georgia.

Capt. Myers, Ordnance Department U. S. Army, is hereby designated to receive the arms, etc., at Greensboro. Any commanding officer of a post may receive the arms of any detachment, and see that they are properly stored and accounted for.

Gen. Schofield will procure at once the necessary blanks, and supply the other Army Commanders, that uniformity may prevail, and great care must be taken that all the terms and stipulations on our part be fulfilled with the most scrupulous fidelity, while those imposed on our hitherto enemies be received in a spirit becoming a brave and generous army.

Army commanders may at once loan to the inhabitants such of the captured mules, horses, wagons, and vehicles as can be spared from immediate use, and the Commanding Generals of Armies may issue provisions, animals, or any public supplies that can be spared to relieve present wants, and to encourage the inhabitants to renew their peaceful pursuits, and to restore the relations of friendship among our fellow-citizens and countrymen.

Foraging will forthwith cease, and when necessity or long marches compel the taking of forage, provisions, or any kind of private property, compensation will be made on the spot; or, when the disbursing officers are not provided with funds, vouchers will be given in proper form, payable at the nearest military depot.

By order of Major-Gen. W. T. SHERMAN,
L. M. DATTON, Ass't Adjutant-General.

Special Field Orders No. 66.

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, RALEIGH, N. C., April 27, 1865.

Hostilities having ceased, the following changes and dispositions of troops in the field will be made with as little delay as practicable:

1. The 10th and 23d corps will remain in the Department of North Carolina, and Major-Gen. J. M. Schofield will transfer back to Major-Gen. Gillmore,

commanding the Department of the South, the two brigades formerly belonging to the division of Brevet Major-Gen. Grover, at Savannah. The 2d division cavalry corps, Brevet Major-Gen. J. Kilpatrick commanding, is hereby transferred to the Department of North Carolina, and Gen. Kilpatrick will report in person to Major-Gen. Schofield for orders.

2. The cavalry command of Maj.-Gen. George Stoneman will return to East Tennessee, and that of Brevet Major-Gen. J. H. Wilson will be conducted back to the Tennessee River, in the neighborhood of Decatur, Alabama.

3. Major-Gen. Howard will conduct the Army of the Tennessee to Richmond, Virginia, following roads substantially by Lewisburg, Warrenton, Lawrenceville, and Petersburg, or to the right of that line. Major-Gen. Slocum will conduct the Army of Georgia to Richmond by roads to the left of the one indicated for Gen. Howard, viz., by Oxford, Boydtown, and Nottoway Court House. These armies will turn in at this point the contents of their ordnance trains and use the wagons for extra forage and provisions. These columns will be conducted slowly and in the best of order, and will aim to be at Richmond ready to resume the march by the middle of May.

4. The Chief Quartermaster and Commissary of the Military Division, Gens. Easton and Beckwith, after making the proper dispositions of their departments here, will proceed to Richmond and make suitable preparations to receive those columns and to provide them for the further journey.

By order of Major-Gen. W. T. SHERMAN,
L. M. DATTON, Ass't Adjutant-General.

On the same day Gen. Johnston issued the following notice of surrender to his troops:

General Orders No. 18.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE TENNESSEE,
April 27, 1865.

By the terms of a military convention made on the 26th instant, by Major-Gen. W. T. Sherman, United States Army, and Gen. J. E. Johnston, Confederate States Army, the officers and men of this army are to bind themselves not to take up arms against the United States until properly relieved from the obligation, and shall receive guarantees from the United States officers against molestation by the United States authorities, so long as they observe that obligation and the laws in force where they reside. For these objects duplicate muster-rolls will be made, and after the distribution of the necessary papers the troops will march under their officers to their respective States, and there be disbanded—all retaining personal property. The object of this convention is pacification to the extent of the authority of the commanders who made it. Events in Virginia, which broke every hope of success by war, imposed on its general the duty of sparing the blood of this gallant army, and saving our country from further devastation, and our people from ruin.

J. E. JOHNSTON, General.

On the 2d of May he issued the following farewell to his army:

General Orders No. 22.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE TENNESSEE,
NEAR GREENSBORO, May 2, 1865.

COMRADES: In terminating our official relations, I expect you to observe the terms of the pacification agreed upon, and to discharge the obligations of good and peaceful citizens to the powers as well as you have performed the duties of soldiers in the field. By such a course you will secure comfort and restore tranquility to your country. You will return to your homes with the admiration of our people, won by the courage and noble devotion you have displayed in this long war. I shall always remember with pride the loyal support you have given me. I part from you with regret, and bid you farewell with feelings

of cordial friendship, and with earnest wishes that you may prosper. J. E. JOHNSTON, General.
J. E. KENNARD, Colonel, etc.

The number of men surrendered and paroled was not far from 31,000; 108 pieces of artillery were parked, with limbers, caissons, etc., complete. About 15,000 small arms were surrendered, and but little ammunition. A large number of men strayed away with guns, horses, mules, and wagons. A body of the cavalry, under Gen. Hampton, went south in the direction in which it was supposed Mr. Davis was moving. They subsequently disappeared, and their officers were classed among those paroled.

The column of Gen. Wilson, which has been already mentioned, was organized at Gen. Thomas's headquarters, in Nashville, for a cavalry expedition into Alabama. It was finely equipped in every respect, with plenty of good men, mostly veterans, horses, ammunition, supplies, pontoons, and wagons. The final rendezvous was Gravelly Springs, above Eastport, on the Tennessee River, and Selma, Montgomery, and Mobile. It numbered more than 15,000 men, consisting of the 1st division under Gen. McCook, the 2d under Gen. Long, the 4th under Gen. Upton, and the 5th under Gen. Hatch. The latter, however, was retained in reserve at Eastport. The movement commenced from Chickasaw on the 22d of March. Some of the enemy, consisting of Gen. Roddy's cavalry, were soon met, and driven back with constant skirmishing thirty miles to Plantersville. Here they made a stand on April 1st, until their flank was threatened, when they retired. The loss of each side in killed and wounded, thus far, was estimated at less than a hundred; three guns and two hundred prisoners were captured by Gen. Wilson. Pursuit was now made by the divisions of Gens. Upton and Long to Selma. There the enemy was found on April 2d, in line of battle outside of their works. Gen. Long having arrived first, formed and dismounted his men in the night, while the 4th division came up on the left. In the morning the skirmish line was advanced, and a brisk charge made. In a short time the enemy were driven from the field, and the intrenchments captured. Selma was immediately occupied. The killed and wounded of the Union forces was about two hundred, and that of the enemy supposed to be less. One hundred guns, one hundred and fifty officers, two thousand men, with many horses, mules, and supplies, were captured. The arsenal, with large stores of powder, percussion caps, shells, all the Confederate magazines, works, and buildings, four large furnaces, including the Red Mountain and Central iron works and machine shop, some dwellings, and vast stores of cotton were destroyed. On the 4th, Cahawba, a little southwest of Selma, was surrendered, and about seventy Federal prisoners were recovered. From Selma Gen. Wilson moved eastward, capturing Montgomery, West Point, Griffin, Lagrange, Colum-

bus, and Macon. The following despatches from Macon relate his further proceedings:

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF TENNESSEE,
April 21, 1865—9:30 A. M.

To Major-Gen. W. T. Sherman, through headquarters of Gen. Beauregard:

My advance received the surrender of this city with its garrison this evening. Gen. Cobb had previously sent me, under flag of truce, a copy of the telegram from Gen. Beauregard, declaring the existence of an armistice between all the troops under your command and those of Gen. Johnston. Without questioning the authority of this despatch, or its application to my command, I could not communicate orders in time to prevent the capture. I shall therefore hold the garrison, including Major-Gens. Cobb and G. W. Smith, and Brig.-Gen. McCall, prisoners of war.

Please send me orders. I shall remain here a reasonable length of time to hear from you.

J. H. WILSON, Brevet Maj.-Gen. U. S. A.

HEADQUARTERS CAVALRY CORPS, MILITARY DIVISION
MISSISSIPPI, MACON, GA., April 21, 1865.

Major-Gen. W. T. Sherman, through Gen. Johnston:

Your despatch of yesterday is just received. I shall at once proceed to carry out your instructions. If proper arrangements can be made to have sugar, coffee, and clothing sent from Savannah to Augusta, they can be brought hither by the way of Atlanta by railroad, or they can be sent by boat directly to this place from Darien. I shall be able to get forage, bread, and meat from Southeastern Georgia. The railroad from Atlanta to Dalton or Cleveland cannot be repaired in three months. I have arranged to send an officer at once, via Eufaula, to Gen. Canby, with a copy of your despatch. Gen. Cobb will also notify Gen. Taylor of the armistice. I have about three thousand prisoners of war, including Gens. Cobb, Smith, McCall, Mercer, and Robertson. Can you arrange with Gen. Johnston for their immediate release? Please answer at once. I shall start a staff officer to you to-morrow.

J. H. WILSON, Brevet Major-Gen. Comm'g.

Gen. Sherman, after the surrender of Gen. Johnston, went to Hilton Head, and caused supplies to be forwarded at once to Gen. Wilson. On May 1st Gen. Upton's division was sent to Augusta, and Gen. McCook's to Tallahassee, to receive the surrender of the garrisons and take charge of the public property, and execute the paroles required by the terms of surrender.

At the same time that Gen. Wilson was advancing against Selma and Montgomery, a movement was in progress for the capture of Mobile. This city was occupied by about fifteen thousand troops under Gen. Richard Taylor. The defences of the city had been most carefully constructed, and were under the command of Gen. Maury. In the harbor the enemy had several vessels, some of which were iron-clads; in addition to which its defences were regarded as almost impregnable. The Federal forces consisted of the 18th army corps under Gen. Granger, and the 16th under Gen. A. J. Smith, Gen. Canby being in chief command. Attached to these was a division of cavalry and a division of colored troops. With this force a strong fleet was in coöperation.

Mobile is situated on the west bank of the Mobile River, immediately above its entrance into the bay, and thirty miles north of the Gulf of Mexico. The site of the town is a level

sandy plain, sufficiently elevated for drainage. The enemy had supposed that the attack would be made on the west, and on this side the city was most strongly fortified, but to no purpose in the final attack. The 16th corps, Gen. A. J. Smith, was landed on Dauphin Island, opposite Mobile Point, and reached Fort Gaines on March 12th. All the cavalry under Gen. Grierson, crossing Pontchartrain, reached Mobile Point, and on the 18th, every thing being in readiness, the march commenced. A brigade of the 3d division of the 16th corps, about two thousand strong, left Dauphin's Island to effect a landing on Cedar Point, above Fort Powell, and to clear the way for the rest of the corps. On the previous day a brigade of the 2d division of the 13th corps was landed on Mobile Point, to proceed as the advance of the corps on the mainland on the east side of the bay. At the same time Gen. Steele, in command of a division of colored troops at Pensacola and Barrancas, commenced a march across to Blakely on the Tensaw River, about twelve miles north of east of Mobile. On the 18th, the whole 13th corps under Gen. Granger followed the advance brigade, marching by land along the shore of Bon Secour Bay, which forms the southeasterly corner of Mobile Bay, near its mouth, and just north of Mobile Point, on which is Fort Morgan. Fish River, running south on the east side of Mobile Bay, empties into Bon Secour Bay, and the rendezvous of the army was fixed about eight miles from its mouth. On the 19th the 16th corps, under Gen. Smith, were taken in transports and moved across Mobile Bay, and disembarked at the rendezvous up the river by the night of the 21st. On the 22d and 23d the 13th corps, under Gen. Granger, which had been delayed in its march by the bad roads, began to arrive. Slight skirmishing occurred with the enemy along the route. The advance toward Spanish Fort at the head of Mobile Bay, on the east side, was made on the 25th. The 13th corps was on the left, direct for the fort, and the 16th corps on the right moving toward Blakeley. Constant skirmishing was kept up by the enemy, and the road was found to be thickly planted with torpedoes. On the 27th both corps marched into position, to invest Spanish Fort, and the enemy fell back toward Blakeley. At the same time the fleet got under way, and proceeded up the bay to Howard's Landing, below the fort. The Metacomet, Stockdale, Milwaukee, Cincinnati, Albatross, Winnebago, Genesee, and Osage, were ordered in toward the shore, and opened a cannonade, which the enemy did not return. The communication between the city and the fort was cut off by the fleet, with the loss of the Milwaukee and Osage blown up by torpedoes. The land forces brought up the artillery, and the appearance of a regular siege was presented. The fleet of the enemy at a distance also occasionally opened fire on the troops. On April 3d the investment was complete, and a fire was opened upon it both by land and water, which resulted

in silencing the guns of the enemy by midnight. An hour afterwards the fort was surrendered with its dependencies. The number of men made prisoners was five hundred and thirty-eight and twenty-five officers. Gen. Canby reported that the major part of the garrison escaped by water. There was found in the fort five mortars and twenty-five guns.

Meanwhile Gen. Steele left Pensacola March 19th, and marched through Pollard toward Mobile. On the 25th he encountered the 6th Alabama cavalry at Mitchell's Creek, and a sharp contest ensued, in which the enemy were routed. Thence he continued his march toward Blakeley, and came in on the right of Gen. Canby.

After the surrender of Spanish Fort, the gunboat Octorara opened fire on Forts Tracy and Huger, near the mouth of the Tensaw River, but both works were abandoned by the enemy after spiking eight heavy guns. Blakeley was now invested by the gunboats in front, which had advanced up the river after the surrender of the forts and the removal of torpedoes, and by the troops on the land side. The works were carried by assault on April 9th, and two thousand four hundred prisoners and twenty guns taken. On the next day, the 10th, the enemy commenced evacuating Mobile, which was completed on the 11th by their retreat with their fleet up the Alabama River. On the next day it was surrendered to Gen. Canby and Rear-Admiral Thatcher, and occupied by the corps of Gen. Granger. Gen. Canby reported that he found in Mobile and its defences over one hundred and fifty guns, a very large amount of ammunition, and supplies of all kinds, and about one thousand prisoners. The Federal loss had been two thousand five hundred men, and that of the fleet fifty men.

On April 19th an officer of Gen. Taylor's staff arrived at Gen. Canby's headquarters with a flag of truce to make terms for the surrender of the troops east of the Mississippi. On May 4th surrender was executed. The delegation upon the Union side consisted of Gens. Canby, Osterhaus, Andrews; Col. Christenson; Capts. Barrett and Perkins; and, by invitation of Gen. Canby, Admiral Thatcher. At Citronelle, Alabama, where the conference was held, were found Gen. Taylor and staff, Commander Farland, and Lieut. Commander Myers, of the Confederate navy, and a large concourse of other officers. After considerable discussion and consultation, ending at 7:30 P. M., the following conditions were agreed to and signed as the terms of surrender:

Memorandum of the conditions of the surrender of the forces, munitions of war, etc., in the department of Alabama, Mississippi, and East Louisiana, commanded by Lieut.-Gen. Richard Taylor, Confederate States army, to Major-Gen. Edward R. S. Canby, United States army, entered into on the 4th day of May, 1865, at Citronelle, Alabama:

1. The officers and men to be paroled until duly exchanged or otherwise released from the obligations of their parole by the authority of the Government of

the United States. Duplicate rolls of all officers and men surrendered to be made, one copy of which will be delivered to an officer appointed by Major-General Canby, and the other appointed by Lieut.-Gen. Taylor, officers giving their individual paroles, and commanders of regiments, battalions, companies, or detachments signing a like parole for the men of their respective commands.

2. Artillery, small arms, ammunition, and other property of the Confederate Government, to be turned over to the officers appointed for that purpose on the part of the Government of the United States. Duplicate inventories of the property surrendered to be prepared, one copy to be retained by the officer delivering, and the other by the officer receiving it, for the information of their respective commands.

3. The officers and men paroled under this agreement will be allowed to return to their homes, with the assurance that they will not be disturbed by the authorities of the United States as long as they continue to observe the conditions of their paroles and the laws in force where they reside, except that persons resident of Northern States will not be allowed to return without permission.

4. The surrender of property will not include the side-arms, or private horses, or baggage of officers.

5. All horses which are in good faith the private property of enlisted men will not be taken from them; the men will be permitted to take such with them to their homes to be used for private purposes only.

6. The time and place of surrender will be fixed by the respective commanders, and will be carried out by commissioners appointed by them.

7. The terms and conditions of the surrender to apply to the officers and men belonging to the armies lately commanded by Gens. Lee and Johnston, now in this department.

8. Transportation and subsistence to be furnished at public cost for the officers and men after surrender to the nearest practicable point of their homes.

R. TAYLOR, Lieut.-General.
E. R. S. CANBY, Maj.-General.

On the same day and at the same time and place, Commodore Farrand surrendered to Rear-Admiral Thatcher all the naval forces of the enemy then blockaded on the Tombigbee River, on the same terms as were granted by Gen. Canby to Gen. Taylor. The squadron was delivered up at Nanna Hubba Bluff on May 9th. The following vessels were surrendered: Jeff. Davis, Robert Watson, Magnolia, Marengo, St. Charles, Commodore Farrand, General Beauregard, Duke, Sumter, St. Nicholas, Reindeer, Admiral.

Among the officers surrendered were Commodore Ebenezer Farrand, of Florida; Commodore L. Rousseau, of Louisiana; Capt. Patrick W. Murphy, of North Carolina; Commander C. ap. R. Jones, of Virginia; Lieut. Julien Myers, of Georgia; Lieut. James D. Johnston, of Kentucky; Lieut. Chas. W. Hays, of Alabama; Lieut. Charles P. McGary, of North Carolina; Lieut. Robert T. Chapman, of Alabama; Lieut. F. B. Renshaw, of Florida; Lieut. E. Lloyd Winder, of Maryland; Lieut. John R. Eggleston, of Mississippi; Lieut. C. C. Simons, of Virginia; Lieut. John W. Bennett, of Maryland; Lieut. Thomas L. Harrison, of Virginia; Lieut. Joseph Fry, of Florida; Lieut. W. P. A. Campbell, of Tennessee; Lieut. Julian M. Spencer, of Maryland; Lieut. James McBaker, Lieut. Edgar L. Lambert, and 110 others.

The detached forces of the enemy in various places east of the Mississippi were severally surrendered upon the same terms as embraced in those of the commanding officers, and by the middle of the month of May hostilities had ceased everywhere except west of the Mississippi River.

On learning the news of Gen. Lee's surrender, Gen. Kirby Smith, in command of the enemy's forces in Texas, issued the following order:

HEADQUARTERS TRANS-MISSISSIPPI DEPARTMENT, }
SHERREPORT, LA., April 21, 1865.

Soldiers of the Trans-Mississippi Army:

The crisis of our revolution is at hand. Great disasters have overtaken us. The Army of Northern Virginia and our Commander-in-Chief are prisoners of war. With you rests the hopes of our nation, and upon your action depends the fate of our people. I appeal to you in the name of the cause you have so heroically maintained—in the name of your fireides and families, so dear to you—in the name of your bleeding country, whose future is in your hands. Show that you are worthy of your position in history. Prove to the world that your hearts have not failed in the hour of disaster, and that at the last moment you will sustain the holy cause which has been so gloriously battled for by your brethren east of the Mississippi.

You possess the means of long resisting invasion. You have hopes of succor from abroad. Protract the struggle, and you will surely receive the aid of nations who already deeply sympathize with you.

Stand by your colors—maintain your discipline. The great resources of this department, its vast extent, the numbers, the discipline, and the efficiency of the army, will secure to our country terms that a proud people can with honor accept, and may, under the Providence of God, be the means of checking the triumph of our enemy and securing the final success of our cause.

E. KIRBY SMITH, General.

At the same time public meetings were held in Texas, and resolutions to maintain the contest were adopted. The Federal Government immediately despatched a large force to New Orleans, under the command of Gen. Sheridan, preparatory to a campaign in Texas. Meanwhile, Col. Barret fought the last battle of the war. He had conducted a body of troops, on May 11th, from 800 to 500 strong, from Brazos to seize a camp of the enemy about fifteen miles above, on the Brownsville road, at Palmetto Ranch. His object was to secure horses and cattle. The camp of the enemy was captured and burned. But being delayed to secure horses, he was overtaken by a body of cavalry under Gen. Slaughter, with three pieces of artillery. A retreat was made with the enemy in pursuit, and a loss of about seventy-five men ensued, who were chiefly made prisoners. The following is Gen. Slaughter's report of the affair:

HEADQUARTERS WESTERN SUB-DISTRICT, TEXAS, }
IN THE FIELD, May 13, 1865.

Captain L. G. Aldrich, Assistant Adjutant-General: We attacked the enemy—about eight hundred strong—this evening at 8 o'clock, and drove him in confusion eight miles, killing and wounding about thirty and capturing eighty prisoners, with many arms and accoutrements. Owing to the scattered condition of the men, a halt was ordered. Captain Carrington's command coming up, he was again attacked and driven within one mile of Brazos, when

darkness put an end to the pursuit. Had not our artillery horses broken down, we would, doubtless, have captured the whole command.

I cannot speak too highly of the sagacity of Colonel Ford and the gallantry of his command. Our loss was four or five severely wounded. We did not have three hundred in the fight, large numbers not having arrived.

J. E. SLAUGHTER, Brigadier-General Com.
Official: L. G. ALDRICH, Ass't Adjutant-General.

But the surrenders of Gens. Johnston and Taylor decided the course of events in the Trans-Mississippi Department. On the 23d of May, Brig.-Gen. Brent and several staff officers reached Baton Rouge, Louisiana, to consult with Gen. Canby on the terms of the surrender of Gen. Kirby Smith's army. The terms were arranged, and the surrender made on the 26th. They were as follows:

Terms of a military convention, entered into this 26th day of May, 1865, at New Orleans, La., between Gen. E. Kirby Smith, Confederate States army, commanding the Department of Trans-Mississippi, and Major-General E. R. S. Canby, United States army, commanding army and division of West Mississippi, for the surrender of the troops and public property of the military and naval authorities of the Trans-Mississippi Department:

1. All acts of war and resistance against the United States, on the part of the troops under Gen. Smith, shall cease from this date.

2. The officers and men to be paroled until duly exchanged, or otherwise released from the obligation of their parole by the authority of the Government of the United States. Duplicate rolls of all officers and men paroled to be retained by such officers as may be designated by the parties hereto—officers giving their individual paroles, and commanders of regiments, battalions, companies, and detachments signing a like parole for the men of their respective commands.

3. Artillery, small arms, ammunition, and other property of the Confederate States, including gunboats and transports, to be turned over to the officers appointed to receive the same on the part of the Government of the United States; duplicate inventories of the property to be surrendered to be prepared, one copy to be returned by the officer delivering, and the other by the officer receiving it, for the information of their respective commanders.

4. The officers and men paroled under this agreement will be allowed to return to their homes, with the assurance that they will not be disturbed by the authorities of the United States as long as they continue to observe the conditions of their parole and the laws in force where they reside; except that persons resident in the Northern States, and not excepted in the amnesty proclamation of the President, may return to their homes on taking the oath of allegiance to the United States.

5. The surrender of property will not include the side-arms, or private horses, or baggage of officers.

6. All horses which are, in good faith, the private property of enlisted men, will not be taken from them; the men will be permitted to take such with them to their homes, to be used for private purposes only.

7. The time, mode, and place of paroling and surrender of property will be fixed by the respective commanders, and it will be carried out by commissioners appointed by them.

8. The terms and conditions of this convention to extend to all officers and men of the army and navy of the Confederate States, or any of them, being in or belonging to the Trans-Mississippi Department.

9. Transportation and subsistence to be furnished at public cost for the officers and men (after being

paroled) to the nearest practicable point to their homes.

S. B. BUCKNER,
Lieutenant-General and Chief of Staff,
for General E. KIRBY SMITH.
P. JOS. OSTERHAUS,
Major-General Volunteers and Chief-of-Staff,
for Major-General E. R. S. CANBY,
Commanding Military Division West. Mississippi
J. N. GALLAGHER, Assistant Adjutant-General.

Additional terms were made later in the day for the rendezvous of the paroled troops in the trans-Mississippi Department near their homes and also for the surrender of the Confederate navy under Capt. Carter.

The surrender of these armies left the military occupation of the rebellious States by the Federal forces unresisted and complete. The plan now adopted by the Government was, to retain in each State a sufficient military force to preserve peace, and to put down any opposition which might arise, and to disband the remainder of its armies, and to restore to civil rights all citizens who should take the oath prescribed in the amnesty proclamation of President Lincoln, which may be found on a subsequent page. The effect of this was to oblige the person taking it to sustain the Federal Government and all its past acts relative to the emancipation of slaves.

The Army of the Potomac and the army under Gen. Sherman, with the exception of a comparatively small force retained in Virginia and North Carolina, were marched to the neighborhood of Washington, for a grand review and final dispersion. The review took place on the 22d and 23d of May. The mustering out of service was then commenced, and completed in the manner stated below. Gen. Sherman took leave of his troops by issuing the following order:

Special Orders No. 67.

HEADQUARTERS MIDDLE DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, WASHINGTON, D. C. May 30, 1865.
The General Commanding announces to the Armies of the Tennessee and Georgia that the time has come for us to part. Our work is done, and armed enemies no longer defy us. Some of you will be retained in service until further orders. And now that we are about to separate, to mingle with the civil world, it becomes a pleasing duty to recall to mind the situation of national affairs when, but a little more than a year ago, we were gathered about the twining cliffs of Lookout Mountain, and all the future was wrapped in doubt and uncertainty. Three armies had come together from distant fields, with separate histories, yet bound by one common cause—the union of our country and the perpetuation of the Government of our inheritance. There is no need to recall to your memories Tunnel Hill, with its Rocky Face Mountain, and Buzzard Boost Gap, with the ugly forts of Dalton behind. We were in earnest, and paused not for danger and difficulty, but dashed through Snake Creek Gap, and fell on Resaca, then on to the Etowah, to Dallas, Kennesaw; and the heats of summer found us on the banks of the Chattahoochee, far from home and dependent on a single road for supplies. Again we were not to be held back by any obstacle, and crossed over and fought four heavy battles for the possession of the citadel of Atlanta. That was the crisis of our history. A doubt still clouded our future; but we solved the problem, and destroyed Atlanta, struck boldly across the State of Georgia, secured all the main arteries of life to our enemy, and Christmas found us at Savannah. Waiting there only long

enough to fill our wagons, we again began a march, which for peril, labor, and results, will compare with any ever made by an organized army. The floods of the Savannah, the swamps of the Combahee and Edisto, the high hills and rocks of the Santee, the flat quagmires of the Pedee and Cape Fear Rivers, were all passed in midwinter, with its floods and rains, in the face of an accumulating enemy; and after the battles of Averysboro and Bentonville we once more came out of the wilderness to meet our friends at Goldsboro. Even then we paused only long enough to get new clothing, to reload our wagons, and again pushed on to Raleigh, and beyond, until we met our enemy, suing for peace instead of war, and offering to submit to the injured laws of his and our country. As long as that enemy was defiant, nor mountains, nor rivers, nor swamps, nor hunger, nor cold, had checked us; but when he who had fought us hard and persistently offered submission, your General thought it wrong to pursue him further, and negotiations followed which resulted, as you all know, in his surrender. How far the operations of the army have contributed to the overthrow of the Confederacy, of the peace which now dawns on us, must be judged by others, not by us. But that you have done all that men could do has been admitted by those in authority; and we have a right to join in the universal joy that fills our land because the war is over, and our Government stands vindicated before the world by the joint action of the volunteer armies of the United States.

To such as remain in the military service your General need only remind you that successes in the past are due to hard work and discipline, and that the same work and discipline are equally important in the future. To such as go home, he will only say, that our favored country is so grand, so extensive, so diversified in climate, soil, and productions, that every man may surely find a home and occupation suited to his tastes; and none should yield to the natural impotence sure to result from our past life of excitement and adventure. You will be invited to seek new adventure abroad; but do not yield to the temptation, for it will lead only to death and disappointment.

Your General now bids you all farewell, with the full belief that, as in war you have been good soldiers, so in peace you will make good citizens; and if, unfortunately, new war should arise in our country, Sherman's Army will be the first to buckle on the old armor and come forth to defend and maintain the Government of our inheritance and choice.

By order of Major-General W. T. SHERMAN.
L. M. DAYTON, Assistant Adjutant-General.

At a later date Lieut.-Gen. Grant issued the following address to all the armies:

General Orders No. 108.

WAR DEPARTMENT, ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., June 2, 1865.

Soldiers of the Armies of the United States:

By your patriotic devotion to your country in the hour of danger and alarm, your magnificent fighting, bravery, and endurance, you have maintained the supremacy of the Union and the Constitution, overthrown all armed opposition to the enforcement of the laws and of the proclamations forever abolishing slavery—the cause and pretext of the rebellion—and opened the way to the rightful authorities to restore order and inaugurate peace on a permanent and enduring basis on every foot of American soil. Your marches, sieges, and battles, in distance, duration, resolution, and brilliancy of results, dim the lustre of the world's past military achievements, and will be the patriot's precedent in defence of liberty and right in all time to come. In obedience to your country's call you left your homes and families and volunteered in its defence. Victory has crowned your valor, and secured the purpose of your patriotic hearts; and with the gratitude of your countrymen

and the highest honors a great and free nation can accord, you will soon be permitted to return to your homes and families, conscious of having discharged the highest duty of American citizens. To achieve these glorious triumphs and secure to yourselves, your fellow-countrymen, and posterity the blessings of free institutions, tens of thousands of your gallant comrades have fallen and sealed the priceless legacy with their lives. The graves of these a grateful nation bedews with tears, honors their memories, and will ever cherish and support their stricken families.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

On May 5th an order was issued by Gen. Halleck, in command of the James River, declaring that all persons found in arms after May 26, against the authority of the United States in Virginia or North Carolina, would be treated as robbers and outlaws. A similar order was subsequently issued by the War Department, to be enforced in all States east of the Mississippi River. This caused the disbandment of all guerrilla organizations:

On April 29th the President issued the following proclamation:

EXECUTIVE CHAMBER, WASHINGTON, April 29, 1865.

Being desirous to relieve all loyal citizens and well-disposed persons residing in the insurrectionary States from unnecessary commercial restrictions, and to encourage them to return to peaceful pursuits, it is hereby ordered:

1. That all restrictions upon internal, domestic, and coastwise commercial intercourse be discontinued in such part of the States of Tennessee, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and so much of Louisiana as lies east of the Mississippi River, as shall be embraced within the lines of the national military occupation, excepting only such restrictions as are imposed by the acts of Congress, and regulations in pursuance thereof prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, and approved by the President, and excepting also from the effect of this order the following articles, contraband of war, to wit: Arms, ammunition, and all articles from which ammunition is manufactured; gray uniforms and cloth, locomotives, cars, railroad iron and machinery for operating railroads, telegraph wires, insulators, and instruments for operating telegraph lines.

2. All existing military and naval orders in any manner restricting internal, domestic, and coastwise commercial intercourse and trade with or in the localities above named, be and the same are hereby revoked, and that no military or naval officer in any manner interrupt or interfere with the same, or with any boats or other vessels engaged therein under proper authority pursuant to the regulations of the Secretary of the Treasury. ANDREW JOHNSON.

In relation to prisoners of war those who had been delivered on parole to Federal officers were declared exchanged, and those confined in the Southern States were released. The following orders were issued by the War Department respecting Confederate prisoners:

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, May 7, 1865.

Ordered—That all prisoners of war, except officers above the rank of colonel, who, before the capture of Richmond, signified their desire to take the oath of allegiance to the United States and their unwillingness to be exchanged, be forthwith released on their taking said oath, and transportation furnished them to their respective homes.

In respect to all other prisoners of war, further orders will be issued.

The Commissary-General of Prisoners will issue the necessary regulations for preserving the requisite

record of prisoners of war to be released under this order, the record to set forth the name of the prisoner, his place of residence, the organization to which he belonged, the time and place of capture, &c. The oaths of allegiance will be administered by commanding officers of the prisons, camps, and forts, who will send by telegraph daily reports of prisoners released to the Commissary-General of Prisoners. These reports will be consolidated for each day, and transmitted to the Secretary of War.

By order of the **SECRETARY OF WAR.**
James A. Hardie, Brevet Brig.-Gen., Inspector-Gen.
U. S. Army.

WAR DEPARTMENT, ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
WASHINGTON, June 6, 1865.

The prisoners of war at the several depots in the North will be discharged, under the following regulations and restrictions:

1. All enlisted men of the rebel army, and petty officers and seamen of the rebel navy, will be discharged upon taking the oath of allegiance.

2. Officers of the rebel army not above the grade of captain, and of the rebel navy not above the grade of lieutenant, except such as have graduated at the United States Military or Naval Academy, and such as held a commission in either the United States army or navy at the beginning of the rebellion, may be discharged upon taking the oath of allegiance.

3. When the discharges hereby ordered are completed, regulations will be issued in respect to the discharge of officers having higher rank than captains in the army or lieutenants in the navy.

4. The several commanders of prison stations will discharge each day as much of the prisoners hereby authorized to be discharged as proper rolls can be prepared for, beginning with those who have been longest in prison and from the most remote points of the country, and certified rolls will be forwarded daily to the Commissary-General of Prisoners of those discharged. The oath of allegiance only will be administered. But notice will be given that all who desire will be permitted to take the oath of amnesty after their release, in accordance with the regulations of the Department of State respecting the amnesty.

5. The Quartermaster's Department will furnish transportation to all released prisoners to the nearest accessible point to their homes, by rail or by steamboat.

By order of the President of the United States.

E. D. TOWNSEND, Asst Adjutant-General.

Subsequently a commission was organized at Washington to investigate the treatment of Federal prisoners at Andersonville, and for the trial of the officer in command. Its proceedings will be found on subsequent pages.

The charitable organizations which had been called into existence by the war, now found the necessity for their services removed. In the brief but bloody campaigns of March and April, 1865, the Sanitary Commission continued its humane and noble work. The sick and wounded were cared for, their friends informed of their situation, their pensions, bounties, and back pay collected, and when the armies were disbanded the Soldiers' Homes were thrown open all along their various routes to welcome them, and agents of the Commission met them at railroad stations and steamboat landings to invite them to the homes and lodges, and protect them as far as possible from fraud. The Commission also greatly increased its claim agencies, which, without fee or reward, collected the arrearages and pay due to the soldiers, and established at its central office

in Washington, with branches in all the principal cities, a bureau of information and employment, to secure to all soldiers desiring employment such situations as they were capable of filling. The receipts of the Commission were large during the spring months, but its disbursements were still larger. On the 1st of June, 1865, a second Sanitary Fair was opened at Chicago, Ill., for the purpose of raising funds for the maintenance of the claim agencies and other organizations of the Commission, which it was deemed desirable to continue in operation. About \$325,000 above all expenses was received from this fair. On the 1st of July, 1865, the Aid Societies, auxiliary to the Commission, ceased their coöperative work, though many of them became auxiliary to the Commission as claim agencies. It was officially announced on the 26th of April, 1865, that the contributions to the Commission from California to that date amounted to \$1,199,675.51; those of Nevada to \$99,512.46; Oregon, \$75,597.56; and Washington Territory, \$20,753.93—making a total from the Pacific slope of \$1,895,539.45. The Metropolitan Fair in New York yielded \$1,184,146.72, and the Central Fair in Philadelphia, \$1,085,398.96. The final campaign of the war demanded new efforts from the Christian Commission, and its agents labored with new zeal and energy. No official statement of its receipts during these months was made, but they are understood to have approached half a million of dollars, which was expended for the promotion of the physical, intellectual, and religious welfare of the soldiers and sailors. As the war closed the Commission disbanded and discontinued its work.

The Union Commission found, as it expected, a sphere of wider usefulness in the closing scenes of the war, and in the suffering which followed among the poorer classes of whites in the Southern States, and was actively engaged in endeavoring to improve their condition. It subsequently coöperated with the Freedmen's Bureau, the Western Sanitary Commission, and other similar institutions, in their useful labors.

A reduction of the naval force was made at the same time when the armies were disbanded. Volunteer officers resigned, men were discharged, and all vessels not needed for future service were sold. The steamer Webb, which had been used as a ram by the enemy on the Red River throughout the war, ran the blockade on that river, and passed down the Mississippi about April 24th, making an attempt to escape to the West Indies. Being pursued after passing New Orleans, and discovering the steamer Richmond coming up the river, her commander, Edward G. Reed, ran her ashore, and setting her on fire, escaped, with nearly all the crew, to the swamps. The vessel was consumed. All the other vessels in the Confederate service were surrendered, as has been stated, except the Shenandoah, which was in Australia at the close of the war. She continued her operations, and caused great destruction

among the whale-ships on the northwest coast of America. Subsequently her commander, learning the state of affairs, proceeded to England, and surrendered his vessel to the British Government.

Mr. Davis, who had acted as President of the insurrectionary States, on the evacuation of Richmond hurried to Danville, Va., and immediately issued the following proclamation:

DANVILLE, VA., April 5, 1865.

The General-in-Chief found it necessary to make such movements of his troops as to uncover the capital. It would be unwise to conceal the moral and material injury to our cause resulting from the occupation of our capital by the enemy. It is equally unwise and unworthy of us to allow our energies to falter and our efforts to become relaxed under adversities, however calamitous they may be.

For many months the largest and finest army of the Confederacy, under command of a leader whose presence inspires equal confidence in the troops and the people, has been greatly trammelled by the necessity of keeping constant watch over the approaches to the capital, and has thus been forced to forego more than one opportunity for promising enterprise. It is for us, my countrymen, to show by our bearing under reverses, how wretched has been the self-deception of those who have believed us less able to endure misfortunes with fortitude than to encounter dangers with courage.

We have now entered upon a new phase of the struggle. Relieved from the necessity of guarding particular points, our army will be free to move from point to point to strike the enemy in detail far from his base. Let us but will it and we are free.

Animated by that confidence in spirit and fortitude which never yet failed me, I announce to you, fellow-countrymen, that it is my purpose to maintain your cause with my whole heart and soul; that I will never consent to abandon to the enemy one foot of the soil of any one of the States of the Confederacy. That Virginia—noble State—whose ancient renown has been eclipsed by her still more glorious recent history; whose bosom has been bared to receive the main shock of this war; whose sons and daughters have exhibited heroism so sublime as to render her illustrious in all time to come—that Virginia, with the help of the people and by the blessing of Providence, shall be held and defended, and no peace ever be made with the infamous invaders of her territory.

If by the stress of numbers we should ever be compelled to a temporary withdrawal from her limits, or those of any other border State, again and again will we return, until the baffled and exhausted enemy shall abandon in despair his endless and impossible task of making slaves of a people resolved to be free.

Let us, then, not despond, my countrymen; but, relying on God, meet the foe with fresh defiance and with unconquered and unconquerable hearts.

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

Subsequently, on understanding the true state of affairs, he proceeded further south with his family, designing to escape from the country by some port on the seacoast, but was captured at Irwinsville, Wilkinson County, Ga., on May 10th, with his family, his Postmaster-General Reagan, his Private Secretary, Harrison, and others, with a train of five wagons and three ambulances. The captors were Lieut.-Col. Pritchard, of the 4th Michigan cavalry, and a body of his men. They belonged to the corps of Gen. Wilson. Davis was removed to Fort-

ress Monroe, and retained as a prisoner in close confinement.

On paroling the Southern armies the number of men who presented themselves was small. A general consolidation of the remnants of regiments and battalions had been made some months previous, and the new regiments contained about one-third the original number. The rolls of Gen. Hardee's corps presented the following results: Ten regiments consolidated numbered only 237 men; three regiments, 210; twenty regiments, 627; eleven regiments, 819; five regiments, 456, representing 10,000 men on the original rolls; one regiment, 201; eight regiments, 424, representing 10,000 Texas troops; one regiment, 40 left out of 1,200; reserve artillery, ten batteries, 560; seven regiments, 419; eighteen regiments, 719.

Single regiments consolidated, and not represented above, showed the following numbers on their rolls: 21, 82, 16, 46, 124, 22, 50, 31, 185, 24, 41, 65, 180, 35, 50, 11, 42, 40, 100. Eight companies consolidated amounted to 38 men; five companies, 66; ten companies, 82; eleven companies, 59; ten companies, 65; fifteen companies, 64; ten companies, in one case, 81; in another, 69.

The number of men surrendered in the different armies amounted to 174,223, as follows:

Army of Northern Virginia, commanded by Gen. Lee,	27,908
Army of Tennessee, and others, commanded by Gen. Joseph E. Johnston.....	81,948
Army of Gen. Jeff. Thompson in Missouri.....	1,973
Miscellaneous paroles in the Department of Virginia,	9,072
Paroled at Cumberland, Md., and other stations.....	9,877
Paroled by Gen. McCook in Alabama and Florida.....	6,429
Army of the Department of Alabama, under Lieut.-Gen. Taylor.....	42,293
Army of the Trans-Mississippi Department, under Gen. E. K. Smith.....	17,856
Paroled in the Department of Washington.....	8,890
Paroled in Virginia, Tennessee, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, and Texas.....	18,922
Surrendered at Nashville and Chattanooga, Tenn.....	5,029

In addition to those surrendered at the close of the war, there were in the Federal custody, between January 1st and 20th of October of the same year, 98,802 prisoners of war. Of these 1,958 enlisted in the Federal service. After the cessation of hostilities 63,442 were released, and 33,127 were delivered in exchange.

It appears by the official reports of March 1st, 1865, that the aggregate Federal military force of all arms, officers and men, was 965,591, to wit:

Available force present for duty.....	602,598
On detached service in the different military departments.....	182,538
In field hospitals or unfit for duty.....	85,028
In general hospitals or on sick leave at home.....	142,419
Absent on furlough or as prisoners of war.....	81,665
Absent without leave.....	19,958
Grand aggregate.....	965,591

This force was augmented on the 1st of May, 1865, by enlistments, to the number 1,000,516 of all arms, officers and men. The aggregate available force present for duty on the 1st of March was distributed in the different commands as follows:

Army of the Potomac.....	108,373
Headquarters military division of the Mississippi....	17
Department of the Cumberland.....	62,626
Department of the Tennessee.....	45,649
Left wing Army of Georgia.....	31,644
Cavalry Corps military division of the Mississippi....	37,410
Headquarters military division of west Mississippi....	24
Reserve brigades mil'y division of west Mississippi...	18,743
Department of the Gulf.....	25,625
Department of Arkansas.....	24,509
Department of the Mississippi.....	24,151
Sixteenth Army Corps.....	14,395
Headquarters military division of the Missouri.....	13
Department of the Missouri.....	18,557
Department of the Northwest.....	4,781
Headquarters middle military division.....	841
Cavalry forces middle military division.....	12,980
Nineteenth Army Corps.....	6,613
Middle Department.....	2,089
Department of Washington.....	24,056
Department of West Virginia.....	15,517
Department of Pennsylvania.....	890
Department of the East.....	7,463
Department of Virginia.....	45,986
Department of North Carolina.....	34,945
Department of the South.....	11,510
Department of Kentucky.....	10,655
Northern Department.....	11,229
Department of the Pacific.....	7,024
Department of New Mexico.....	2,501
Grand total.....	602,593

Four days after the surrender of Gen. Lee's army a public notice was given by the War Department that orders would speedily be issued to stop all drafting and recruiting; to curtail purchases of arms, ammunition, quartermaster and commissary supplies, and reduce the expenses of the military establishment; to reduce the number of general and staff officers to the actual necessities of the service; and to remove all military restrictions upon trade and commerce, so far as might be consistent with the public safety.

On the 28th of April, 1865, it was ordered that returns be made of the volunteer forces in the field, with a view to their immediate reduction, and regulations were prepared and promulgated for their muster out and discharge. In executing this work rendezvous were established in the field, as well as in most of the States. At the field rendezvous all surplus property was taken possession of by the staff officers of the respective supply departments, and the muster-out rolls and other discharge papers prepared under the direction of corps commissaries of musters and their assistants. Corps and department commanders were instructed to see that the work was pushed with energy, using for that end the division and brigade commanders, with their respective staff officers, to superintend it. As soon as a regiment or other organization had its muster-out papers prepared, it was placed *en route* to its State for payment and final discharge. At the State rendezvous was located the chief mustering officer of the State, or one or more of his assistants, with paymasters, quartermasters, commissaries of subsistence, and ordnance officers, whose duties were the payment and final discharge of the troops; their care whilst awaiting the same; the reception of the public property turned in by them, and their transportation to their homes after discharge.

By the foregoing arrangements the entire

force of commissaries and assistant commissaries of musters for troops in the field were made available for the work, in connection with the chief and other State mustering officers. The most experienced mustering officers and those most familiar with the regimental records were secured; the records from which the mustering-out data was to be obtained were readily accessible, and the loss of records whilst the regiments were *en route* from the field to their States, was avoided. Regimental officers were held to a rigid accountability in preparing the records, and the interests of the enlisted men thus protected. Order and discipline was maintained whilst troops were *en route* to the States and after arrival therein. Troops were comfortably cared for up to the moment they were paid off and ready to start for their homes. Dissatisfaction among them was obviated and causes for complaint removed, and all public property easily secured and readily accounted for.

The arrangements for the care of discharged troops being completed, orders to muster out and discharge the forces from service were issued as follows:

April 29.—All recruits, drafted men, substitutes, and volunteers remaining at the several State depots.

May 4.—All patients in hospitals, except veteran volunteers and veterans of the First Army Corps (Hancock's).

May 8.—All troops of the cavalry arm whose terms of service would expire prior to October 1.

May 9.—All officers and enlisted men whose terms would expire prior to May 31, inclusive.

May 17.—All organizations of white troops in the Army of the Potomac whose terms of service would expire prior to September 30, inclusive.

May 18.—All organizations of white troops in Maj.-Gen. Sherman's command, whose term of service would expire prior to September 30, inclusive.

May 29.—All light artillery in the Army of the Potomac, Ninth Army Corps, Army of Georgia, and Army of the Tennessee.

May 29.—All organizations of white troops whose terms of service would expire prior to September 30, inclusive, in armies and departments, except Departments of the East, New Mexico, Pacific, and Northern.

June 2.—All surplus light artillery; that only absolutely required by the necessities of the service in the respective armies and departments to be retained.

June 5.—All dismounted cavalry, all infantry in the Northern Department and Department of the East, and all cavalry in the Department of the East.

June 16.—All troops in the Department of the Pacific whose terms of service would expire prior to October 1.

June 17.—All enlisted men of the Veteran Reserve Corps who would have been entitled

to their discharge had they remained with their regiments.

June 28.—18,000 veterans (infantry) of the Army of the Potomac; 15,000 of the Army of the Tennessee (then consisting of the remaining regiments of the Army of Georgia and Army of the Tennessee); and 7,000 of the Middle Military Division.

June 30.—All surplus troops, except in the Department of the Gulf, Army of the Tennessee, Provisional Corps Army of the Potomac, and First Army Corps. Strength of commands, for all arms, to be reduced to the minimum necessary to meet the requirements of the service.

July 1.—All remaining veteran regiments of the Army of the Tennessee and Provisional Corps Army of the Potomac (that corps was the remnant of the Army of the Potomac).

July 6.—The remainder of the Army of the Tennessee.

July 7.—The remainder of the Provisional Corps Army of the Potomac.

July 21.—All cavalry in the Department of Virginia except two regiments, all in the Department of North Carolina except one regiment, and all in the Middle Department except one regiment.

August 1.—All white troops, infantry, cavalry, and artillery, in the Department of Texas, which, in the judgment of Maj.-Gen. Sheridan, could be dispensed with.

August 3.—The same order was extended to the Department of Louisiana.

August 14.—Additional infantry and heavy artillery (white) in military departments, as follows: Virginia, 5,000; North Carolina, 8,000; Washington, 8,000; Mississippi, 2,000; Kentucky, 5,000; Middle, 6,000.

August 21.—3,000 additional white troops in the Department of Arkansas.

September 8.—All surplus troops in the Department of Washington, so as to reduce that command to 6,000 officers and men of all arms.

September 8.—All organizations of colored troops which were enlisted in the Northern States.

October 9.—All the remaining forces (white) of the cavalry arm east of the Mississippi.

October 9.—All troops on the Pacific coast, as many as possible immediately; the remainder on the arrival of the last battalion of the 14th United States Infantry.

October 10.—All troops in New Mexico; one regiment immediately, the remainder on the arrival of certain regular troops.

In addition to the foregoing, and from time to time, as the services of the troops could be dispensed with, sixty-eight regiments, seven companies, and six battalions, were ordered mustered out.

The rapidity with which the work was executed will be apparent from the fact that to August 7, 640,806 troops had been mustered out; August 22, 719,388; September 14, 741,-

107; October 15, 783,205; November 15, 800,968.

The command of Maj.-Gen. Sherman (Army of the Tennessee and Army of Georgia), and the Army of the Potomac, were first to complete their musters-out entirely. Regiments commenced leaving Gen. Sherman's command, then numbering, present and absent, 116,183 officers and men, from the rendezvous near Washington, on the 29th of May, and on the 1st of August the last one of the regiments mustered out left Louisville, Ky., to which point the command (after the musters-out therefrom were partly completed) was transferred, and the armies composing it merged into one, called the Army of the Tennessee. The work of mustering out the troops was not continuous, it having been interrupted and delayed by the transfer of the two armies from Washington to Louisville, and their subsequent consolidation.

Regiments commenced leaving the Army of the Potomac (when numbering, including Ninth Corps, 162,851 officers and men, present and absent), from rendezvous near Washington, on the 29th of May, and about six weeks thereafter (July 19) the last regiment started for home. During the interval the work, like that from Gen. Sherman's command, was not continuous, it being interrupted and delayed by the movement of the Sixth Corps from Danville, Va., to Washington, and the consolidation, by orders of June 28th, of the remaining portion of the army into a provisional corps, numbering, present and absent, 22,699 officers and men.

Thus, for the two commands in question, and between the 29th of May and the 1st of August (two months), 279,084 officers and men, present and absent, were mustered out and placed *en route* to their homes. Including other armies and departments, the number was increased by August 7 (two months and seven days) to 640,806 officers and men.

From the foregoing it will be seen that the mass of the forces discharged were mustered out by September 14, or within two and a half months from the time the movements of troops homeward commenced. The average per month during that time was 296,442.

The soldiers of the Southern armies rapidly disappeared by returning to their homes. In all cases of prisoners of war the Federal Government furnished, gratuitously, transportation.

The military organization then adopted by the Government consisted of five grand divisions, which were subdivided into nineteen departments, as follows:

1. The Department of the East, Maj.-Gen. Joseph Hooker to command, to embrace the New England States, New York, and New Jersey. Headquarters at New York city.

2. The Middle Department, Maj.-General W. S. Hancock to command, to embrace the States of West Virginia, Maryland (excepting the counties of Montgomery, that part of Anne

Arundel lying south of the Annapolis and Elk Ridge Railroad, and excluding the city of Annapolis, Prince George's, Calvert, Charles, and St. Mary's, the county of Loudon, and the Shenandoah valley as far south as and including Rockingham County, in Virginia, the States of Delaware and Pennsylvania. Headquarters at Baltimore.

3. The Department of Washington, Maj.-Gen. C. C. Augur to command, to embrace the District of Columbia, the counties of Montgomery, that part of Anne Arundel lying south of the Annapolis and Elk Ridge Railroad, and including the city of Annapolis. Prince George's, Calvert, Charles, and St. Mary's, in Maryland, and Alexandria and Fairfax Counties in Virginia. Headquarters at Washington.

4. The Department of the Ohio, Maj.-Gen. E. O. C. Ord to command, to embrace the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan. Headquarters at Detroit.

5. The Department of the Tennessee, Maj.-Gen. George Stoneman to command, to embrace the State of Tennessee. Headquarters at Knoxville.

6. The Department of Kentucky, Maj.-Gen. John M. Palmer to command, to embrace the State of Kentucky, and Jeffersonville and New Albany, in Indiana. Headquarters at Louisville.

7. The Department of the Missouri, Maj.-Gen. John Pope to command, to embrace the States of Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, and Kansas, and the Territories of Colorado, Utah, Nebraska, Dakota, New Mexico, and Montana. Headquarters at St. Louis.

8. The Department of Virginia, Maj.-Gen. Alfred H. Terry to command, to embrace the State of Virginia, excepting Alexandria, Fairfax, and Loudon Counties, and the Shenandoah valley as far south as and including Rockingham County. Headquarters at Richmond.

9. The Department of North Carolina, Maj.-Gen. J. M. Schofield to command, to embrace the State of North Carolina. Headquarters at Raleigh.

10. The Department of South Carolina, Maj.-Gen. Daniel E. Sickles to command, to embrace the State of South Carolina. Headquarters at Charleston.

11. The Department of Georgia, Maj.-Gen. James B. Steedman to command, to embrace the State of Georgia. Headquarters at Augusta.

12. The Department of Florida, Maj.-Gen. John G. Foster to command, to embrace the State of Florida. Headquarters at Tallahassee.

13. The Department of Mississippi, Maj.-Gen. Thomas J. Wood to command, to embrace the State of Mississippi. Headquarters at Vicksburg.

14. The Department of Alabama, Maj.-Gen. C. R. Wood to command, to embrace the State of Alabama. Headquarters at Mobile.

15. The Department of Louisiana, Maj.-Gen.

E. R. S. Canby to command, to embrace the State of Louisiana. Headquarters at New Orleans.

16. The Department of Texas, Maj.-Gen. H. G. Wright to command, to embrace the State of Texas. Headquarters at Galveston.

17. The Department of Arkansas, Maj.-Gen. J. J. Reynolds to command, to embrace the State of Arkansas and the Indian Territory. Headquarters at Little Rock.

18. The Department of the Columbia, Brig.-Gen. F. Steele to command, to embrace the State of Oregon, and Territories of Washington and Idaho. Headquarters at Fort Vancouver.

19. The Department of California, Maj.-Gen. Irvin McDowell to command, to embrace the States of California and Nevada, and Territories of New Mexico and Arizona. Headquarters at San Francisco.

1. The military division of the Atlantic, Maj.-Gen. George G. Meade to command, to embrace the Department of the East, Middle Department, Department of Virginia, Department of North Carolina and Department of South Carolina. Headquarters at Philadelphia.

2. The military division of the Mississippi, Maj.-Gen. W. T. Sherman to command, to embrace the Department of the Ohio, Department of the Missouri, and Department of Arkansas. Headquarters at St. Louis.

3. The military division of the Gulf, Maj.-Gen. P. H. Sheridan to command, to embrace the Department of Louisiana, Department of Texas, and Department of Florida. Headquarters at New Orleans.

4. The military division of the Tennessee, Maj.-Gen. G. H. Thomas to command, to embrace the Department of the Tennessee, Department of Kentucky, Department of Georgia, Department of Mississippi, and Department of Alabama. Headquarters at Nashville.

5. The military division of the Pacific, Maj.-Gen. H. W. Halleck to command, to embrace the Department of the Columbia and the Department of California. Headquarters at San Francisco.

Some Indian hostilities existed on the plains and adjacent to the overland routes to the Pacific coast. This was a source of great annoyance and required the employment of many troops, and added considerably to the expenses of the military department. During the year several Indian councils were held, and large military expeditions were sent against the hostile tribes and bands.

On the following pages will be found a statement or list of battles and skirmishes of the war, in which the loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners was estimated to be not less than one hundred. Those skirmishes of quite small or trifling losses have not been included. The estimates were those most carefully given after the action occurred, except in more important battles, where the result on the Federal side is official.

ARMY OPERATIONS.

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STATISTICS OF BATTLES.

PLACE.	DATE.	FEDERAL LOSSES.				CONFEDERATE LOSSES.			
		Killed.	Wounded.	Prisoners.	Guns.	Killed.	Wounded.	Prisoners.	Guns.
1861.									
Fort Sumter, S. O.	April 12, 13.		5		140				
Baltimore, Md.	April 19.	4	80			9	Many.		
Philippi, Va.	June 3.	2	9	2		16	Unk'n.	26	
Big Bethel, Va.	June 10.	16	84	6		8	90		
Vienna, Va.	June 17.	8	13	24					
Booneville, Mo.	June 17.	9	9	20		25	50	15	
Camp Cole, Mo.	June 18.	25	52	23		4	20		
Falling Waters, Va.	July 2.	8	10			21	50	10	
Carthage, Mo.	July 5.	13	81			300	K. & W.	45	
Rich Mountain, Va.	July 11.	11	85			60	140		6
Beverly, Va. (Pegram's surrender).	July 12.							600	
Carrick's Ford, Va.	July 14.	9	12			20	10	50	
Bull Run, Va.	July 21.	451	1,011	1,460		269	1,453	Many.	
Drum Spring, Mo.	Aug. 2.	8	80			40	44		
Wilson's Creek, Mo.	Aug. 10.	228	721	291		421	1,800		
Hatteras Inlet.	Aug. 28, 29.	1	9			49	51	715	30
Onaifox Ferry, Va.	Sept. 10.	16	103			Unk'n.			
Chest Mountain Pass, Va.	Sept. 12.	9	9	60		80	90	90	
Lexington, Mo. (Mulligan's surrender).	Sept. 12, 20.	43	103	1,624		25	75		
Papinsville, Mo.	Sept. 21.	17	Many.			40	Many.	100	
Chapmansville, W. Va.	Sept. 23.	4	9			20	50	47	
Greenbrier, Va.	Oct. 3.	8	82			100	75	13	
Hillsboro, Ky.	Oct. 8.	3	2			11	29	22	
Santa Rosa Island, Fla.	Oct. 9.	14	29	24		Unk'n.	350	86	
Bell's Bluff, Va.	Oct. 21.	223	266	455		86	264	9	
Springfield, Mo.	Oct. 25.	15	27	10		106	Unk'n.	27	
Kennedy, Va.	Oct. 26.	2	15			90	15	500	
Fort Royal, S. C.	Nov. 7.	8	23			Not	Rep'ted.	2,500	43
Belmont, Mo.	Nov. 7.	90	173	235		261	427	273	
Piketon, Ky. (surrender).	Nov. 9.	Not	Rep'ted.			400	K. & W.	2,000	
Vienna, Va.	Dec. 3.	45	K., W., & M'g.			Not	Rep'ted.		
Camp Alleghany, Va.	Dec. 13.	21	107			20	96		
Shawnee Mound.	Dec. 17.							150	
Milford, Mo.	Dec. 18.	2	8					1,300	
Draesville, Va.	Dec. 20.	7	61	8		70	143	44	
1862.									
Kennedy, Va.	Jan. 8.					15	Several.	20	2
Middle Creek, Ky.	Jan. 10.	9	25			40	Many.	25	
Mt Spring, Ky.	Jan. 19, 20.	38	194			190	180	89	10
Fort Henry, Tenn. (captured).	Feb. 6.	40	K. & W.			5	10	88	20
Rosake Island, N. C.	Feb. 7, 8.	33	200			16	89	2,527	13
Fort Donelson, Tenn.	Feb. 13-16.	446	1,735	150		231	1,007	18,329	40
Valverde, New Mexico.	Feb. 21.	62	140			150	K. & W.		
Pittsburg Landing, Tenn. (naval affair).	March 1.	5	6			20	200		
Pea Ridge, Ark.	March 6-8.	212	926	174		1,100	2,500	1,600	13
Hampton Roads, Va. (Merrimac, etc.).	March 8, 9.	201	108	40		7	17		
New Madrid, Mo.	March 13.	51	K. & W.			100	Unk'n.	25	
Newbern, N. C.	March 14.	91	466			64	101	413	64
Winchester, Va.	March 22, 23.	108	440	24		1,000	K. & W.	300	3
Apache Canon, New Mexico.	March 23.	20	54	35		50	100	93	1
Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing, Tenn.	April 6, 7.	1,614	7,721	5,963		1,733	8,012	959	
Island No. Ten, Tenn. (surrendered).	April 7.	Small.				17	Many.	6,300	70
Fort Pulaski, Ga.	April 11.	1					4	860	47
Huntsville, Ala. (captured).	April 11.							200	
Lee's Mills, Va.	April 16.	85	190	9		20	75	50	
Cumden, N. C.	April 19.	14	99	14		70	K. & W.		
South Mills, N. C.	April 19.	11	30			15	35		
Fort Macon, N. C.	April 25.	1	11			7	18	450	30
Neosho, Mo.	April 26.					80	K. & W.	62	
Forts Jackson and St. Philip, and N. Ori's	April 14-23.	36	193			185	197	400	150
Williamsburg, Va.	May 5.	280	888	623		700	1,000	800	
West Point, Va.	May 7.	300	K. & W.	500		1,000	K. & W. & M'g.		
New Bridge, Va.	May 22.	Small.				60	50	81	
Louisburg, Va.	May 28.	10	40			50	60	100	4
Winchester, Va. (Banks' retreat).	May 22-26.	88	155	711		Not	Rep'ted.		
Hamover Court-House, Va.	May 29.	53	826			250	K. & W.	610	
Seven Pines and Fair Oaks.	May 31-June 1.	800	3,627	1,223	4	2,800	3,897	1,300	
Fort Pillow, or Wright, Tenn. evacuated	June 5.	1	3			150	400		
Memphis, Tenn. surrendered.	June 6.		1			60	K. & W.	75	
Cross Keys, Va.	June 8.	125	500			800	K. & W.		
Fort Republic, Va.	June 8, 9.	67	361	574		1,000	K., W., & P'ia.		
Secessionville (James Island), S. C.	June 16.	35	472	123		40	100		
St Charles, Ark.	June 17.	125	K. & W.			150	K. & W.	30	
Oak Grove, Va.	June 25.	80	200			500	K., W., & M'g.		
Mechanicsville.	June 26.	200	K., W., & M'g.			450	K., W., & M'g.		
March 1862.									
Grimes' Mill, Va.	June 27.								
Peach Orchard, Va.	June 29.								
Savage's Station, Va.	June 29.								
White Oak Swamp, Va.	June 30.	1,565	7,701	5,953		20,000	K., W., & P'ia.		
Glendale, Va.	June 30.								
Turkey Bend, Va.	June 30.								
Malvern Hill, Va.	July 1.								
Booneville, Ky.	July 1.	41				65			
Memphis, Tenn.	July 18.	38	62	800		50	100		
Ind. Territory. (General Blunt).	July 15.					200	K. & W.		
Baton Rouge, La.	Aug. 5.	60	161	29		400	650	Many.	

STATISTICS OF BATTLES—(Continued).

PLACE.	DATE.	FEDERAL LOSSES.				CONFEDERATE LOSSES.			
		Killed.	Wounded.	Prisoners.	Gun.	Killed.	Wounded.	Prisoners.	Gun.
1862.									
Cedar Mountain, Va.....	Aug. 9.....	450	660	290		750	1,100		
Clarendon, Ark.....	Aug. 11.....	Many.	Many.			Many.	Many.	700	
Gallatin, Ky.....	Aug. 22.....	100	Many.	850		Not	Rep'ted.		
Kettle Run, Va.....	Aug. 27.....	800	K. & W.			800	K. & W.	1,900	
Groveton, or Manassas, Va.....	Aug. 29.....	6,080	K. & W.			12,000	K. & W.	& Pria	
Bull Run, Va. (2d battle).....	Aug. 30.....	500	4,000	3,000		700	3,000		
Chantilly, Va.....	Sept. 1.....	1,800	K., W., & M'g.			800	K., W., & M'g.		
Richmond, Ky.....	Aug. 29, 30.....	200	700	2,000		250	500		
Button's Lane, Tenn.....	Sept. 1.....	5	75	92		179	221		
Washington, N. C.....	Sept. 6.....	8	86			83	100		
Fayette C. H., W. Va.....	Sept. 10.....	100	K. & W.						
South Mountain, Md.....	Sept. 14.....	443	1,506	76		500	2,848	1,500	
Harper's Ferry, Va., surrendered.....	Sept. 18, 19.....	50	120	11,583	47	1,500	K. & W.		
Antietam, Sharpsburg, Md.....	Sept. 17.....	2,010	9,416	1,048		3,500	16,999	2,600	
Munfordsville, Ky.....	Sept. 16, 17.....	50	K. & W.	4,100		Many.	Many.		
Inka, Miss.....	Sept. 19, 20.....	144	598	40		268	692	561	
Shepardstown, Md.....	Sept. 20.....	200	800	800		Many.	Many.		
Augusta, Ky.....	Sept. 27.....	9	15	96		90	K. & W.		
Newtonia, Mo.....	Sept. 29.....	50	80	120		220	250		
Corinth, Miss., and pursuit.....	Oct. 3, 4-6.....	865	2,407	249		1,423	5,692	2,587	1
Perryville, Ky.....	Oct. 8.....	820	2,585	620		1,800	3,000	300	
Pocotaligo, S. C.....	Oct. 22.....	48	258	5		Not	Rep'ted.		
Lagrange, Tenn.....	Nov. 11.....		2			16		134	
Sinking Creek, W. Va.....	Nov. 25.....					3		118	
Cane Hill, Ark.....	Nov. 23.....	8	82			75	300	60	
Coffeeville, Miss.....	Dec. 5.....	5	50	60		60	280		
Prairie Grove, Ark.....	Dec. 7.....	495	500	A few.		1,500	K., W., & Pria.		
Hartsville, Tenn.....	Dec. 7.....	55	Unkn.	1,200		Not	Rep'ted.		
Fredericksburg, Va.....	Dec. 13.....	1,128	9,105	2,073		1,200	2,400	700	
Kinston, N. C.....	Dec. 14.....	40	120			50	75	400	
Holly Springs, Miss.....	Dec. 19.....	40	160	1,950					
London, Ky. (Curtis' raid).....	Dec. 21.....							550	
Van Buren, Ark.....	Dec. 27, 28.....	7						120	
Vicksburg, Miss.....	Dec. 27-29.....	191	932	756		500	K., W., & M'g.		
1863.									
Stone River, Tenn.....	Dec. 31, '62, to Jan. 4, '63	8,485	K. & W.	4,000	40	10,000	K. & W.	500	8
Galveston, Texas.....	Jan. 1.....	800	K., W., & M'g.			50	K., W., & M'g.		
Red Mound, Tenn.....	Jan. 1.....	20	100	60		100	200	400	
Springfield, Mo.....	Jan. 7, 8.....	17	50			800	K., W., & M'g.		1
Arkansas Post, Ark.....	Jan. 11.....	129	831	17		560	K. & W.	4,720	1
Duval's Bluff & Des Arc, Ark., captured.....	Jan. 18.....							150	
Dover, Tenn.....	Jan. 31.....	Trifling.				385	K., W., & Pria.		
Fort Donelson, Tenn.....	Feb. 4.....	126	K. & W.			140	400	130	
Spring Hill, Tenn.....	March 5.....	400	K. & W.	1,200		180	450		
Unionville, Tenn.....	March 7.....					180	K., W., & Pria.		
Port Hudson, La. (naval battle).....	March 14.....	65	K. & M.			Not	Rep'ted.		
Vaught's Hill, Tenn.....	March 20.....	48	K., W., & M'g.			192	K., W., & M'g.		
Brentwood, Tenn.....	March 25.....	1	4	800		10	K. & W.		
Somerset, Ky.....	March 31.....	10	25			290	K., W., & Pria.		
Charleston Harbor, S. C. (naval attack).....	April 7.....	2	13			7			1
Franklin, Tenn.....	April 10.....	100	K., W., & M'g.			800	Many.		1
Greenland Gap, Va.....	April 25.....	15		60		100	Many.		
Cape Girardeau, Mo.....	April 26.....	6	6			275	K. & W.		1
Grierson's raid, Miss.....	Ap. 17-M'y 2.....	Small.						1,000	
Stoneman's raid, Va.....	Ap. 27-M'y 8.....	150	K., W., & M'g.			100	K. & W.	500	
Streight's raid.....	Ap. 11-M'y 6.....	12	69	1,466	2	500	K. & W.		
Grand Gulf, Miss. (naval battle).....	April 29.....	26	54			Unkn.			
Port Gibson, Miss.....	May 1.....	130	728			1,150	K. & W.	500	
Chancellorsville, etc., Va.....	May 1-4.....	15,000	K. & W.	1,700		15,000	K. & W.	5,000	
Tupelo, Miss.....	May 6.....	Trifling.				Many.		90	
Horse Shoe, Ky.....	May 10.....	25	K. & W.			100	K. & W.		
Raymond, Miss.....	May 12.....	69	841	82		969	K., W., & M'g.		
Jackson, Miss.....	May 14.....	40	240	6		450	K., W., & M'g.		29
Champion Hills, Miss.....	May 16.....	426	1,843	259		2,500	K. & W.	1,900	
Big Black River, Miss.....	May 17.....	29	242			600	K. & W.	2,500	29
Vicksburg, Miss. (two assaults).....	May 18-23.....	2,600	K., W., & M'g.			Heavy.			
Green Swamp, N. C.....	May 22.....	67	K. & W.			202	K., W., & Pria.		
Fort Hudson, La. (assault).....	May 27.....	900	K., W., & M'g.			600	K., W., & M'g.		
Glendennin's raid, Va.....	May 20-28.....	Trifling.						111	
Trione, Tenn.....	June 4.....	Trifling.				200	K. & W.		
Milliken's Bend, La.....	June 8.....	810	K. & W.			125	Many.		
Beverly Ford, Va.....	June 9.....	850	K., W., & M'g.			750	K., W., & M'g.		
Winchester, Va.....	June 14.....	1,800	K., W., & M'g.			850	K., W., & M'g.		
Port Hudson, La.....	June 14.....	950	K., W., & M'g.			Unkn.			
Aldie, Va. (cavalry battle).....	June 18.....	50	K. & W.			100	K. & W.	112	1
Middleburg, Va. (cavalry battle).....	June 21.....	Small.				100	K. & W.		
Brashear City, La.....	June 22.....	Not	Rep'ted.	1,800		Not	Rep'ted.		
Shelbyville to Tullahoma, Tenn. (Rosecrans' advance).....	June 24-26.....	85	463	18		Many.	Many.	1,634	
Donaldsonville, La.....	June 27.....	Small.				400	K. & W.	125	
Donaldsonville, La. (naval attack).....	June 28.....	Not	Rep'ted.			64	16	120	
Hanover Junction, Pa. (cavalry fight).....	June 30.....	12	48			75	K. & W.	60	
Gettysburg, Pa.....	July 1-3.....	2,897	13,718	6,643		23,000	K. & W.	13,621	206
Vicksburg, Miss., surrendered.....	May 23-J'y 4.....	245	3,688	808		9,000	K. & W.	81,277	

ARMY OPERATIONS.

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STATISTICS OF BATTLES—(Continued).

PLACE.	DATE.	FEDERAL LOSSES.				CONFEDERATE LOSSES.			
		Killed.	Wounded.	Prisoner.	Guns.	Killed.	Wounded.	Prisoner.	Guns.
1863.									
Helena, Ark.	July 4.	850	K. & W.			2,500	K. & W.	& Pris.	
Monterey, Va.	July 5.	None.				Unk'n.	900	1,700	
Big Black River.	July 5.	Not	Rep'ted.			Not	Rep'ted.	2,000	
Lebanon, Ky., surrender.	July 5.	Small.		400		Not	Rep'ted.		
Jones' raid, Md.	July 7.	Small.						648	3
Port Hudson, La., surrender.	July 8.	None.				None.		5,500	51
Eizenl, Miss.	July 11.	None.						900	
Yazoo City, Mich. captured.	July 18.	Small.				Not	Rep'ted.	500	6
Falling Waters, Md.	July 14.	None.						1,500	2
Elk Creek, Ark.	July 14.	10	80			80	24	100	
Jackson, Miss.	July 16.	1,000	K. & W.	& M'g.		800	400	W. & P.	
Fort Wagner, S. C.	July 10-18.	1,000	K. & W.	& M'g.		500	281		
Honey Springs, Ind. Ter.	July 18.	9	50			50	75	95	3
Morgan's raid, Ky., Ind. & Ohio.	J'y 24-J'y 26	Small.				8,000	K. & W.	& Pris.	6
Manassas Gap, Va.	July 23.	80	80			Unk'n.			
Wytheville, Va.	July 23.	65	K. & W.			75	K. & W.	120	2
Upper Missouri, Dak. Ter., Indian battle.	Aug. 7.	4	6			150	K. & W.		
Panerville, Mo.	Aug. 15.	Small.				65	K. & W.		
Lawrence, Kan. (sacked and burned).	Aug. 21.	205	Many.			40			
Averill's raid, Va.	Aug. 25-30.	100	K. & W.	& M'g.		Many.		80	
White Stone Hill, Dak. T. Indian battle.	Sept. 5.	61	K. & W.			300		800	
Morris Island, S. C. (capture of forts).	Sept. 6.							75	19
Fort Sumter, (boat attack).	Sept. 8.	3		114					
Cumberland Gap, Tenn., captured.	Sept. 9.	None.						3,000	4
Tilford, E. Tenn., captured.	Sept. 9.			300					
Chickamauga, Ga.	Sept. 19, 20.	1,644	9,262	5,445	36	18,000	K. & W.	& M'g.	
Anderson's K. Roads, Tenn.	Oct. 1.	Small.				70	K. & W.	900	
Shelbyville, Tenn. (cavalry fight).	Oct. 6.	Trifling.				100	Many.		
Farmington, Tenn.	Oct. 8.	29	150			125	K. & W.	800	4
Fort Scott, Kansas, (Quantrell's attack on Blunt).	Oct. 10.	59	3						
Calpepper, Va. (cavalry engagements).	Oct. 10, 11.	150	K. & W.	& M'g.		400	K. & W.	& M'g.	
Bristoe Station, Va.	Oct. 14.	51	839			1,200	K. & W.	450	5
Backland's Mills, Va.	Oct. 19.	200	K. & W.	& M'g.		Not	Rep'ted.		
Philadelphia, Tenn.	Oct. 21, 22.	400	K. & W.	& Pris.		Heavy.			
Pine Bluff, Ark.	Oct. 25.	17	39	1		53	104	83	
Brown's Ferry and Wauhatchie, Tenn.	Oct. 27-29.	76	839	93		1,500	K. & W.	& M'g.	
Bayou Courtenay, La.	Nov. 3.	13	100	59		100	Many.	900	
Eggs'ville, Tenn.	Nov. 6.	580	K. & W.	& Pris.	16	Not	Rep'ted.		
Rappahannock Station, Va.	Nov. 7.	400	K. & W.			Unk'n.		1,896	7
Campbell's Station, Tenn.	Nov. 16.	400	K. & W.			1,000	K. & W.	& Pris.	
Kearville, Tenn.	Nov. 17-D. 4	600	K. & W.	& Pris.		1,600	K. & W.	& Pris.	
Chattanooga, Tenn.	Nov. 23-25.	4,000	K. & W.			9,000	K. & W.	6,000	42
Chickamauga Station, Ga.	Nov. 28.							500	4
Ringgold, Ga.	Nov. 27.	800	K. & W.			Many.		800	
Locust Grove and Mine Run, Va.	Nov. 26, 27.	1,000	K. & W.	& Pris.		2,500	K. & W.	& Pris.	
Pocahontas, Miss.	Dec. 2, 3.	123	K. & W.	40		15			
Bea's Station, Tenn.	Dec. 14.	700	K. & W.	& Pris.	94	900	K. & W.		
Avrill's raid, Va.	Dec. 8-21.	6				Not	Rep'ted.	900	
Epiley Co., Mo.	Dec. 25.	Small.				85	K. & W.	115	
Clarkston, Tenn.	Dec. 28.	Small.				Several.		121	
1864.									
Newbern, N. C.	Feb. 3, 4.	212	K. & W.	& M'g.		800	K. & W.		
Sherman's Meridian Expedition, Miss.	Feb. 3-M'h 4	170	K. & W.	& M'g.		400	K. & W.	200	
Smith's raid.	Feb. 11-25.	Small.						800	
Okatie, Fla.	Feb. 20.	1,200	K. & W.	& M'g.		Not	Rep'ted.		
Tunnel Hill, Ga.	Feb. 22-25.	75	K. & W.			Not	Rep'ted.	800	
Kilpatrick's raid, Va.	Feb. 23-M. 4	Not	Rep'ted.			Unk'n.		500	
Fort De Russay, La.	March 14.	7	41			6		825	
Satchitoches, La.	March 21.	None.	None.			8		282	
Paducah, Ky.	March 25.	12	40			800	1,000		
One River, La.	March 28.	80	K. & W.			700	K. & W.	& Pris.	
Sabine Cross Roads, La.	April 8.	1,800	K. & W.	2,700		1,500	K. & W.	& M'g.	
Pleasant Hill, La.	April 9.	3,700	K. & W.	& M'g.		2,000	K. & W.	& M'g.	
Fort Pillow, Tenn. massacre	April 12.	600		100		Not	Rep'ted.		
Plymouth, N. C.	April 17-20.	150	N. Rep.	1,700		1,500	K. & W.		
One River, La.	April 23.	850	K. & W.			400	K. & W.		
Wilderness, Va.	May 5-18.	3,288	12,278	6,784	22	3,500	16,000	8,400	22
Rocky Faced Ridge to Dallas, Ga.	May 18-J'e 1	800	4,500	1,030	8	600	2,100	4,000	
Palmer's Creek and Drury's Bluff, Va.	May 15.	422	2,880	210		700	2,000	600	
New Market, Va.	May 15.	120	560	240		85	820		
Spottsylvania C. H., &c., Va.	May 19-25.	2,296	9,086	606		4,000	15,500	6,000	
Newbern, W. Va.	May —	400	K. & W.	& M'g.		670	K. & W.	& M'g.	
Cold Harbor and vicinity, Va.	June 1-6.	1,705	9,042	2,406		1,700	8,500	1,500	
Lost Mountain, Kenesaw Mountain, and Little Kenesaw, Ga.	June 5-30.	1,370	6,500	800		1,100	4,500	8,500	
Piedmont, Va.	June 5.	130	650			450	1,450	1,670	
Mt. Sterling and Cynthiana, Ky.	June 9.	28	140	20		280	700	500	
Gastown, Miss.	June 12.	400	1,800	3,500		180	475		
Iron Lynchburg, Va.	June 10-18.	430	1,920	530		250	700	430	
Mobile and Alabama (naval battle).	June 19.	1	3			40	10		
Petersburg, Va. (Smith's assault).	June 15-19.	1,198	6,853	1,614	4	3,500	K. & W.	& Pris.	
Weldon Railroad, Va.	June 22, 23.	604	2,494	2,217		806	K. & W.	200	
Moseley Bridge, Md.	July 9.	1,200	K. & W.	& M'g.		400	K. & W.	& M'g.	
First battle near Atlanta, Ga.	July 20.	1,738	K. & W.	& M'g.		5,000	K. & W.	& M'g.	

STATISTICS OF BATTLES—(Continued.)

PLACE.	DATE.	FEDERAL LOSSES.				CONFEDERATE LOSSES.			
		Killed.	Wounded.	Prisoners.	Genl.	Killed.	Wounded.	Prisoners.	Genl.
1864.									
Second battle near Atlanta, Ga.	July 22.	8,732	K., W., & M'g.		10	12,000	K., W., & M'g.		
Third battle near Atlanta, Ga.	July 28.	600	K., W., & M'g.			5,000	K., W., & M'g.		
Petersburg, Va. (explosion of mine).	July 30.	419	1,679	1,910		800	K. & W.	200	
Stoneman's raid, Ga.	July 26-31.	800	K. & W.	2,500	12	Unkn.			
Mobile Harbor, Ala. (Farragut's attack).	Aug. 5-28.	280	K. & W.			2,150	K., W., & Pria.		60
Deep Bottom, Va.	Aug. 18.								
N. of James River, Va.	Aug. 18.	5,000	K., W., & Pria.			8,000	K., W., & Pria.		
Near Petersburg, Va.	Aug. 13-22.	212	1,155	8,176		4,000	K., W., & Pria.		
Near Petersburg, Va.	Aug. 25.	117	546	1,769	9	1,500	K., W., & Pria.		
Jonesboro, Ga., and vicinity.	Aug. 28-S. 1.	1,600	K., W., & M'g.			5,500	K., W., & Pria.		27
Ocoquan Creek, Va.	Sept. 12.	800	K., W., & M'g.			850	K. & W.	80	
Winchester and Opequan Creek, Va.	Sept. 19.	520	2,600	140		8,500	K. & W.	4,500	5
Fisher's Hill, Va.	Sept. 22.	2,800	K., W., & M'g.			5,500	K., W., & Pria.		29
Chaffin's Farm, &c., Va.	Sept. 29, 30.	141	788	1,756		2,500	K. & W.	800	15
Allatoona Pass, Ga.	Oct. 6.	750	K., W., & M'g.			1,800	K., W., & M'g.		
Fisher's Hill, Va., or Strasburg.	Oct. 8.	580	K., W., & M'g.			1,900	K., W., & M'g.		11
Cedar Creek, or Middletown, Va.	Oct. 19.	7,000	K., W., & Pria.		20	5,500	K., W., & Pria.		49
Price's campaign in Mo.	Oct. 11-28.	1,200	K., W., & M'g.			8,500	K. & W.	1,838	12
Morristown, Tenn.	Oct. 28.	81	K., W., & M'g.			570	K., W., & Pria.		6
Hatcher's Run, Va.	Oct. 27.	156	1,047	699		1,200	K., W., & Pria.		
Fort Sedgewick, Va.	Nov. 5-8.	70	K., W., & Pria.			180	K., W., & Pria.		
Fayetteville, Ark.	Nov. 3.	Not	Rep'ted.			1,000	K., W., & M'g.		
Atlanta, Ga.	Nov. 11.	20	K. & W.					900	
Bull Gap, &c., East Tenn.	Nov. 14-18.	600	K., W., & Pria.			Small.			
Columbia, Tenn.	Nov. 24-28.	800	K., W., & M'g.			600	K., W., & M'g.		
Franklin, Tenn.	Nov. 30.	158	1,088	1,104		1,750	K., W., & M'g.	702	
Pocotaligo, S. C.	Dec. 4, 6.	840	K., W., & M'g.			800	K., W., & M'g.		
Fort McAllister, Ga., captured.	Dec. 14.	280	K., W., & M'g.					450	
Nashville, Tenn., and pursuit of Hood.	Dec. 15, 16-29.	7,000	K., W., & M'g.			15,000	K. & W.	15,896	76
Ashbyville and Hopkinsville, Ky.	Dec. 17, 18.	Not	Rep'ted.					800	3
Stoneman's raid in East Tenn. and Va.	Dec. 6-20.	Small.				600	1,000	2,000	30
Savannah, Ga., evacuated.	Dec. 20-21.								200
Fort Fisher, N. C. (first attack).	Dec. 25.	250	K. & W.			80			
1865.									
Fort Fisher, N. C., captured.	Jan. 12-15.	750	K., W., & M'g.			2,400	K., W., & Pria.		50
Hatcher's Run, Va.	Feb. 6.	282	1,062	186		1,200	K., W., & M'g.		
Fort Anderson, N. C.	Feb. 19.	60	K. & W.			470	K., W., & Pria.		40
Wilmington, N. C., occupied.	Feb. 22.	200	K. & W.					700	48
Columbia, S. C., captured.	Feb. 17.	20	K. & W.						450
Charleston, S. C., surrendered.	Feb. 18.								
Sheridan's raid, Va., Waynesboro, Staunton, &c.	Feb. 27-M. 26.	52	K. & W.			800	K. & W.	1,500	14
Kinston, N. C.	March 10, 11.	650	K. & W.	1,500	8	2,400	K., W., & Pria.		
Avery'sboro, N. C.	March 16.	77	477			108	K., W., & M'g.	540	
Bentonville, N. C.	March 19.	191	1,168	287		267	1,200	1,625	
Fort Steadman, Va.	March 25.	171	1,286	968		8,200	K. & W.	1,581	
Hatcher's Run and Five Forks, Va.	M'ch 29-A. 3.	5,000	K. & W.			4,500	K. & W.	7,000	
Assault on Petersburg, Va.	April 2.	5,000	K. & W.			5,000	R. & W.	8,000	14
Deatonville, Va.	April 6.	1,000	K. & W.			Not	Rep'ted.	7,700	
Farmville and High Bridge, Va.	April 7.	1,000	K. & W.			800	K. & W.		
Appomattox Station.	April 8.	Small.				500	K. & W.		
Wilson's expedition, Ala. and Ga.	M. 20-May 9.	99	568	28		1,900	K. & W.	6,820*	268
Surrender of Lee.	April 9.							26,000	170
Mobile besieged and captured.	M. 20-Apr. 12.	2,200	K. & W.			2,000	K. & W.	4,000	360
Surrender of Johnston.	April 26.							29,924	108
Stoneman's raid in Va. and N. C.	M. 14-Apr. 18.	Small.				800	K. & W.	2,000	14
Surrender of Taylor and Rebel fleet.	May 4-9.							10,000	50
Capture of Davis.	May 10.							90	
Surrender of Sam Jones in Florida.	May 10.							8,000	40
Surrender of Kirby Smith.	May 26.							20,000	150

* Beside 59,878 prisoners paroled.

As has been already said, the preceding statements are chiefly designed to show, in a tabular form, the more important engagements, with the date on which they occurred. The losses, when considered either comparatively or as that of either side, in such a vast number of actions, no one would at present assume accurately to state. An evidence of the difficulty in obtaining results of this kind is shown in a recent number of "Harper's Magazine," in which the accomplished editor thus estimates the losses of the seven days' battles before Richmond:

Of the Confederate commanders, Jackson, D. H. Hill, Longstreet, A. P. Hill, Holmes, and Pendleton, give their exact losses. The losses of Magruder and

Huger can be made up very closely from the reports of their brigade commanders. Barksdale says that "one-third of his brigade fell upon the field: it numbered about 2,400, which would make the loss 800." Cobb puts his loss in killed and wounded at "nearly 500." McLaws, 97 killed, 456 wounded. D. R. Jones, 103 killed, 708 wounded. Ransom, 69 killed, 354 wounded. Mahone, 63 killed, 216 wounded. Armistead, two regiments, estimated 320 killed and wounded. Wright, 55 killed, 243 wounded. In all, 8,984; of whom 656 were killed, and 8,328 wounded. Of the cavalry and reserve artillery we find mention of about 20 killed and 104 wounded. The missing in A. P. Hill's division are not given; the number was evidently small, probably about 100. In Magruder's command we find about 400 missing in about two-thirds of the brigades; we set down the whole at 600. From the foregoing data we have compiled the following table of killed, wounded, and missing:

ARMY OPERATIONS.

85

UNION.					CONFEDERATE.				
	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Total.		Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Total.
McCall.....	258	1,240	1,581	3,074	Jackson.....	876	1,892	14	2,982
Sumner.....	187	1,076	848	2,111	D. H. Hill.....	714	3,192	48	8,954
Heintzelman.....	180	1,051	888	2,073	Longstreet.....	768	3,429	237	4,429
Keyes.....	60	507	201	777	A. P. Hill.....	619	3,251	100 (?)	8,970
Porter.....	620	2,460	1,194	4,373	Magruder and Huger.....	656	3,828	800 (?)	4,584
Franklin.....	245	1,818	1,179	2,737	Holmes.....	8	50		62
Engineers and Cavalry.....	19	63	118	199	Artillery and Cavalry.....	20	104		194
Total.....	1,583	7,709	5,958	15,249	Total.....	8,151	15,255	999	19,405

The following is a list of the officers of the War Department at the close of the year 1864; of the General Officers of the Regular Army in service subsequent to July, 1861; and of the Major and Brigadier-Generals of the Volunteer Army in service on January 1, 1865, showing also where and how such general officers were employed at that date. It should be stated that, since the close of the war, many of the brigadier-generals have been promoted.

DEPARTMENT OFFICERS.

Officers not thus * designated are graduates of the Military Academy.

EDWIN M. STANTON, of Pennsylvania, *Secretary of War.*
 PETER H. WATSON, 1st Assistant Secretary of War. JOHN POTTS, *Chief Clerk.*
 CHARLES A. DANA, 2d Assistant Secretary of War.
 HENRY W. HALLOCK, *Chief of Staff.*

OFFICE.	NAME.	RANK.	Date of Commission.	Entry into service.	Born in.	Appointed from.
Adjutant General.....	Lorenzo Thomas.....	Brig.-Gen'l.	8 Aug., 1861.	1 July, 1838.	Delaware.....	Delaware.....
Judge Advocate General.....	Joseph Holt*.....	Colonel.	8 Sept., 1862.	8 Sept., 1862.		Dist. Columbia.....
Inspector General.....	Randolph B. Marcy.....	do.	9 Aug., 1861.	1 July, 1833.	Massachusetts.....	Massachusetts.....
do.	Delos B. Sackett.....	do.	1 Oct., 1861.	1 July, 1845.	New York.....	New York.....
do.	Henry Van Rensselaer.....	do.	12 Nov., 1861.	1 July, 1831.	New York.....	New York.....
do.	Edmund Schriver.....	do.	13 Mar., 1862.	1 July, 1833.	Pennsylvania.....	New York.....
Signal Officer Army.....	Albert J. Myer*.....	do.	8 Mar., 1863.	18 Sept., 1854.	New York.....	New York.....
Quartermaster General.....	Montgomery C. Meigs.....	Maj.-Gen'l.	15 May, 1861.	1 July, 1836.	Georgia.....	Pennsylvania.....
Comm. General of Sub.....	Amos B. Eaton.....	Brig.-Gen'l.	29 June, 1864.	1 July, 1826.	New York.....	New York.....
Surgeon General.....	Joseph K. Barnes.....	do.		15 June, 1840.	Pennsylvania.....	Pennsylvania.....
Paymaster General.....	Timothy P. Andrews*.....	Colonel.	6 Sep., 1862.	23 May, 1822.	Ireland.....	Dist. Columbia.....
Chief of Engineers.....	Richard Delafield.....	Brig.-Gen'l.		24 July, 1813.	New York.....	New York.....
Chief Ordnance Dep't.....	Alexander B. Dyer.....	do.		1 July, 1837.	Virginia.....	Missouri.....

GENERAL OFFICERS OF THE REGULAR ARMY IN SERVICE SINCE JULY, 1861.

NAME AND RANK.	Date of Commission.	Entry into service.	Born in.	Appointed from.	REMARKS.
<i>Lieutenant-Generals.</i>					
Winfield Scott.....	25 June, 1841...	3 May, 1803...	Virginia.....	Virginia.....	Retired Nov. 1, 1861.
Cyrus S. Grant.....	2 Mar., 1864...		Ohio.....	Illinois.....	
<i>Major-Generals.</i>					
George B. McClellan.....	14 May, 1861...	1 July, 1846...	Pennsylvania.....	Ohio.....	Resigned Nov. 8, 1864.
John C. Fremont*.....	14 May, 1861...	7 July, 1833...	South Carolina.....	California.....	Resigned June 4, 1864.
Henry W. Halleck.....	19 Aug., 1861...	1 July, 1839...	New York.....	California.....	
John E. Wool*.....	16 May, 1862...	14 April, 1812...	New York.....	New York.....	Retired.
Cyrus S. Grant.....	4 July, 1863...		Ohio.....	Illinois.....	Promoted.
Montgomery C. Meigs.....		1 July, 1836...	Georgia.....	Pennsylvania.....	By brevet.
Joseph G. Totten.....	21 April, 1864...	1 July, 1805...	Connecticut.....	Connecticut.....	By brevet. Died in Wash- [ington April 22, 1864.
William T. Sherman.....	12 Aug., 1861...		Ohio.....	Ohio.....	
Philip H. Sheridan.....	8 Nov., 1864...		Massachusetts.....	Ohio.....	
George G. Meade.....	10 Aug., 1864...				
George H. Thomas.....					
<i>Brigadier-Generals.</i>					
John E. Wool.....	25 June, 1861...	14 April, 1812...	New York.....	New York.....	Promoted.
William S. Harney*.....	14 June, 1858...	13 Feb., 1818...	Louisiana.....	Louisiana.....	Retired August 1, 1863.
John V. Sumner.....	16 Mar., 1861...	8 Mar., 1819...	Massachusetts.....	New York.....	Died March 21, 1863.
Joseph K. F. Mansfield.....	14 May, 1861...	1 July, 1827...	Connecticut.....	Connecticut.....	Died September 18, 1863, of [wounds received at
Ira McDowell.....	14 May, 1861...	1 July, 1838...	Ohio.....	Ohio.....	Retired. [Antietam.
Robert Anderson.....	15 May, 1861...	1 July, 1825...	Kentucky.....	Kentucky.....	
William S. Rosecrans.....	16 May, 1861...	1 July, 1842...	Ohio.....	Ohio.....	
Philip St. G. Cooke.....	12 Nov., 1861...	1 July, 1827...	Virginia.....	Virginia.....	
John Pope.....	14 July, 1862...	1 July, 1842...	Kentucky.....	Illinois.....	
Joseph Hooker.....	20 Sept., 1862...	1 July, 1837...	Massachusetts.....	California.....	
James R. McPherson.....	1 Aug., 1863...		Ohio.....	Ohio.....	Killed near Atlanta, July [23, 1864.
George G. Meade.....	3 July, 1863...		Spain.....	Dist. Columbia.....	
William T. Sherman.....	4 July, 1863...		Ohio.....	Ohio.....	Promoted.
George H. Thomas.....	27 Oct., 1863...		Virginia.....	Virginia.....	
Winfield S. Hancock.....	12 Aug., 1864...		Pennsylvania.....	Pennsylvania.....	
Andrew H. Reeder.....			Pennsylvania.....	Pennsylvania.....	Declined.
James W. Ripley.....	3 Aug., 1864...	1 June, 1814...	Connecticut.....	Connecticut.....	Retired.
Joseph G. Totten.....		1 July, 1805...	Connecticut.....	Connecticut.....	Promoted.
John M. Schofield.....	20 Nov., 1864...				
Orville O. Howard.....	21 Dec., 1864...				

LIST OF MAJOR AND BRIGADIER-GENERALS OF VOLUNTEERS, SHOWING WHERE AND HOW SA
GENERAL OFFICERS WERE EMPLOYED JANUARY 1, 1865.

NAME AND RANK.	STATION.	HOW EMPLOYED.
<i>Major-Generals.</i>		
John A. Dix.....	New York city.....	Commanding department of the East.
Nathaniel P. Banks.....	Washington, D. C.....	Before Committee on Conduct of War.
Benjamin F. Butler.....	Bermuda Hundred, Va.....	Commanding department of Virginia and North Carolina.
David Hunter.....	Washington, D. C.....	Awaiting orders.
Ethan A. Hitchcock.....	Washington, D. C.....	Commissioner of exchange of prisoners.
Irwin McDowell.....	San Francisco, Cal.....	Commanding department of the Pacific.
Ambrose E. Burnside.....	Providence, R. I.....	Awaiting orders.
William S. Rosecrans.....	Cincinnati, Ohio.....	Awaiting orders.
John Pope.....	Milwaukee, Wis.....	Commanding department of the Northwest.
Samuel R. Curtis.....	Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.....	Commanding department of Kansas.
Franz Sigel.....	Bethlehem, Penn.....	Awaiting orders.
Lewis Wallace.....	Baltimore, Md.....	Commanding middle department.
George Cadwalader.....	Philadelphia, Penn.....	Commanding department of Pennsylvania.
Edward O. C. Ord.....	In the field, Va.....	Commanding 24th army corps.
Samuel P. Heintzelman.....	Wheeling, W. Va.....	Member of general court-martial.
Joseph Hooker.....	Cincinnati, Ohio.....	Commanding Northern Department.
Silas Casey.....	Washington, D. C.....	Commanding provisional brigades and member of board.
William H. Franklin.....	Wilmington, Del.....	President of retiring board.
Darius N. Couch.....	In the field, Tenn.....	Commanding 2d division, 23d army corps.
Henry W. Slocum.....	In the field, Tenn.....	Commanding left wing army of Georgia.
John J. Peck.....	New York city.....	Second in command department of the East.
Alexander McD. McCook.....	Baltimore, Md.....	Member of military commission.
John G. Foster.....	Hilton Head, S. C.....	Commanding department of the South.
John G. Parke.....	Army of Potomac.....	Commanding 9th army corps.
Christopher C. Augur.....	Washington, D. C.....	Commanding department of Washington.
Stephen A. Hurlbut.....	New Orleans, La.....	Commanding department of the Gulf.
Gordon Granger.....	Mobile Bay, Ala.....	Commanding district of West Florida and South Alabama.
Lovell H. Rousseau.....	In the field, Tenn.....	Commanding district of Tennessee.
George Stoneman.....	Louisville, Ky.....	Second in command department of the Ohio.
Oliver O. Howard.....	In the field, Ga.....	Commanding right wing army of Georgia.
Daniel E. Sickles.....	New York city.....	Off duty on account of wounds.
Robert H. Milroy.....	Tulahoma, Tenn.....	Commanding defences of Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad.
Daniel Butterfield.....	New York city.....	Member of general court-martial.
Winfield S. Hancock.....	Washington, D. C.....	Organizing 1st army corps.
George Sykes.....	Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.....	Awaiting orders.
David S. Stanley.....	In the field, Ga.....	Commanding 4th army corps. (On temporary leave of absence.)
James S. Negley.....	Pittsburg, Penn.....	Awaiting orders.
John G. Palmer.....	Carlinville, Ill.....	Awaiting orders.
Frederick Steele.....	New Orleans, La.....	Under orders of Major-General Canby.
Abner Doubleday.....	Washington, D. C.....	President of military commission.
Napoleon J. T. Dana.....	Memphis, Tenn.....	Commanding department of the Mississippi.
John A. Logan.....	In the field, Ga.....	Commanding 15th army corps. (On temporary leave of absence.)
James G. Blunt.....	Paola, Kansas.....	Commanding district of South Kansas.
George L. Harttuff.....	New York city.....	President of general court-martial.
Ced. C. Washburne.....	Vicksburg, Miss.....	Commanding district of Vicksburg.
Francis J. Herron.....	Pittsburg, Penn.....	On temporary leave of absence.
Frank P. Blair.....	In the field, Ga.....	Commanding 17th army corps.
Joseph J. Reynolds.....	Little Rock, Ark.....	Commanding department of Arkansas.
John M. Schofield.....	In the field, Tenn.....	Commanding army of the Ohio.
Jullius H. Stahel.....	Baltimore, Md.....	Member of general court-martial.
Carl Schurz.....	Bethlehem, Penn.....	Awaiting orders.
Gouverneur K. Warren.....	Army of Potomac.....	Commanding 5th army corps. (On temporary leave of absence.)
Alfred Pleasanton.....	St. Louis, Mo.....	Second in command department of the Missouri.
Andrew A. Humphreys.....	Army of Potomac.....	Commanding 2d army corps.
Quincy A. Gillmore.....	On tour of inspection of defensive works of the Mississippi.
William F. Smith.....	In mil. div. of W. Mississippi under special order of War Dept.
James B. Steedman.....	In the field, Tenn.....	Serving in department of the Cumberland.
Edward R. S. Canby.....	New Orleans, La.....	Commanding military division of West Mississippi.
Horatio G. Wright.....	Army of Potomac.....	Commanding 6th army corps.
Andrew J. Smith.....	In the field, Tenn.....	Commanding detachment of the army of the Tennessee.
Grenville M. Dodge.....	St. Louis, Mo.....	Commanding department of the Missouri.
John Gibbon.....	Army of Potomac.....	Commanding 2d division, 2d army corps.
Peter J. Osterhaus.....	In the field, Ga.....	Commanding 1st division, 15th army corps.
Joseph A. Mower.....	In the field, Ga.....	Commanding 1st division, 17th army corps.
George Crook.....	Cumberland, Md.....	Commanding department of West Virginia.
Godfrey Weitzel.....	In the field, Va.....	Commanding 25th army corps.
<i>Brigadier-Generals.</i>		
Thomas W. Sherman.....	New Orleans, La.....	Commanding defences of New Orleans.
John D. Cox.....	In the field, Tenn.....	Commanding 3d division, 23d army corps.
Benjamin F. Kelley.....	In the field, W. Va.....	Commanding 2d infantry division department West Virginia.
A. S. Williams.....	Savannah, Ga.....	Commanding 20th army corps.
James B. Ricketts.....	Washington, D. C.....	Severely wounded.
Orlando H. Wilcox.....	Army of Potomac.....	Commanding 1st division 9th army corps.
Henry H. Lockwood.....	Baltimore, Md.....	Commanding 3d sep. brigade 8th army corps.
Samuel D. Sturgis.....	Covington, Ky.....	Awaiting orders.
Henry W. Benham.....	City Point, Va.....	Commanding volunteer engineer brigade.
William F. Barry.....	Savannah, Ga.....	Chief of artillery, military division of Mississippi.
Lawrence P. Graham.....	Annapolis, Md.....	Member of board for examination of invalid officers.
Eleazer A. Paine.....	Monmouth, Ill.....	Awaiting orders.
W. T. Ward.....	In the field, Ga.....	Commanding 3d division 20th army corps.
John G. Barnard.....	City Point, Va.....	Chief engineer of armies operating against Richmond.
Isatis A. Palmer.....	Newbern, N. C.....	Commanding district of North Carolina.
Eeth Williams.....	Army of Potomac.....	Assistant adjutant-general army of Potomac.
John Newton.....	Key West, Fla.....	Commanding district of Key West and Tortugas.

LIST OF MAJOR AND BRIGADIER-GENERALS OF VOLUNTEERS, &c.—(Continued.)

NAME AND RANK.	STATION.	HOW EMPLOYED.
George Wright	Sacramento, Cal.	Commanding district of California.
John M. Brannan	Chattanooga, Tenn.	Chief of artillery, department of Cumberland.
John P. Hatch	Morris Island, S. C.	Commanding 1st sep. brigade, department of South.
Albin Schoepf	Fort Delaware, Del.	Commanding post and military prison.
Thomas J. Wood	In the field, Tenn.	Temporarily commanding 4th army corps.
Richard W. Johnson	Edgefield, Tenn.	Commanding 6th division cavalry corps military division of Miss.
Adolph von Steinwehr	Wallingford, Conn.	Awaiting orders.
George W. Cullum	West Point, N. Y.	Superintendent of military academy.
Thomas J. McKean	Barrancas, Fla.	Commanding district of West Florida.
Zealous B. Tower	In the field, Ga.	Inspector general of fortifications military division of Mississippi.
Jefferson C. Davis	In the field, Ga.	Commanding 14th army corps.
William S. Ketchum	War Department.	On special duty.
John W. Davidson	New Orleans, La.	Chief of cavalry military division of West Mississippi.
Thomas F. Meagher	In the field, Tenn.	On duty in department of the Cumberland.
Andrew Johnson	Nashville, Tenn.	Military Governor of Tennessee.
Eugene A. Carr	Little Rock, Arkansas.	Commanding district of Little Rock.
Thomas A. Davis	Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.	Commanding district of north Kansas.
William H. Emory	In the field, Va.	Commanding 19th army corps.
Marsena R. Patrick	Philadelphia, Penn.	Provost-marshal general armies operating against Richmond.
Orris S. Ferry	Louisville, Ky.	Commanding district of Philadelphia.
Henry M. Judah	Springfield, Ill.	Member of general court-martial and military commission.
John Cook	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding district of Illinois.
John McArthur	Burlington, Iowa.	Commanding 1st division det. of the army of Tennessee.
Jacob G. Lauman	Murfreesboro, Tenn.	Awaiting orders.
Horatio P. Van Cleave	Louisville, Ky.	Commanding post.
Epeod S. Fry	New Orleans, La.	Awaiting orders.
Alexander Asboth	Omaha City, N. T.	Sick in hospital.
Robert B. Mitchell	In the field, Va.	Commanding district of Nebraska.
Crier Grover	Beaufort, S. C.	Commanding 3d division 19th army corps.
Eufus Saxton	Fort Vancouver, W. T.	Commanding district of Beaufort.
Benjamin Alvord	Helena, Ark.	Commanding district of Oregon.
Napoleon B. Buford	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding district of eastern Arkansas.
Nathan Kimball	In the field, Va.	Commanding 1st division 4th army corps.
Charles Devens	Army of Potomac.	Temporarily commanding 34th army corps.
Samuel W. Crawford	Washington, D. C.	Commanding 8d division 5th army corps.
Henry W. Wessells	Savannah, Ga.	Commissary General of prisoners east of Mississippi.
Alfred H. Terry	In the field, Va.	Commanding 3d division 90th army corps.
James H. Carleton	Santa Fé, N. M.	Commanding 1st division 94th army corps.
Abraham Baird	In the field, Ga.	Commanding department of New Mexico.
John C. Robinson	Albany, N. Y.	Commanding 8d division 14th army corps.
Truman Seymour	Army of Potomac.	Commanding district of northern New York.
Henry Prince	Louisville, Ky.	Commanding 8d division 8th army corps.
Max Weber	Hagerstown, Md.	En route to Savannah, Georgia.
Jeremiah C. Sullivan	In the field, Va.	Awaiting orders.
Alma P. Hovey	Indianapolis, Ind.	Commanding 1st sep. brigade department West Virginia.
James C. Veatch	Memphis, Tenn.	Commanding district of Indiana.
William P. Benton	New Orleans, La.	Commanding district of West Tennessee.
John C. Caldwell	Washington, D. C.	Awaiting assignment.
George S. Greene	New York city.	President of military commission.
Samuel P. Carter	Knoxville, Tenn.	Member of G. C. M. (wounded).
Erasmus B. Tyler	Relay House, Md.	Provost-marshal General of East Tennessee.
Charles Griffin	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 1st sep. brigade 8th army corps.
George H. Gordon	Fort Monroe, Va.	Com'dg 1st div. 5th army corps. (On temporary leave of absence.)
Stephen G. Burbridge	Lexington, Ky.	On duty in department of Virginia and North Carolina.
Washington L. Elliott	Mount Roze, Ala.	Commanding district of Kentucky.
Alfonso P. Howe	Washington, D. C.	Commanding 2d division 4th army corps.
Benjamin S. Roberts	New Orleans, La.	Inspector of artillery.
Fit Henry Warren	New York city.	Member of military commission.
Morgan L. Smith	Vicksburg, Miss.	Member of military commission.
Charles Craft	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding post and defences.
Frederick Solomon	Little Rock, Ark.	Commanding prov. division department of Cumberland.
Henry S. Briggs	Washington, D. C.	Commanding 1st division 7th army corps.
James D. Morgan	Savannah, Ga.	Member of general court-martial.
August Willich	Cincinnati, Ohio	Commanding 2d division 14th army corps.
Henry D. Terry	Washington, D. C.	Commanding post.
George F. Shepley	Norfolk, Va.	Member of general court-martial.
John E. Kenly	Salisbury, Md.	Commanding district of Eastern Virginia.
John P. Slough	Alexandria, Va.	Commanding district of eastern shore of Maryland.
Gersham Mott	Army of Potomac.	Military Governor and commanding district of Alexandria.
Henry J. Hunt	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 3d division 2d army corps.
Francis C. Barlow	On leave of absence.	Chief of artillery.
Mason Brayman	Natchez, Miss.	(Wounded).
N. J. Jackson	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding post and defences.
George W. Getty	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 1st division 20th army corps.
Alfred Sully	Dubuque, Iowa.	Com'dg 2d div. 6th army corps. (On temporary leave of absence.)
William W. Averell	Bath, N. Y.	Commanding district of Iowa.
Francis B. Spinola	Brooklyn, N. Y.	Awaiting orders.
Solomon Meredith	Paducah, Ky.	Under trial by court-martial.
Elakim P. Scammon	Jacksonville, Fla.	Commanding district of Western Kentucky.
Robert S. Granger	In the field, Ala.	Commanding district of Florida.
Joseph R. West	Little Rock, Ark.	Commanding district of Northern Alabama.
George L. Andrews	Baton Rouge, La.	Chief of cavalry, department of Arkansas.
Clifton B. Fisk	Macon, Mo.	Commanding district of Baton Rouge and Port Hudson.
Henry B. Carrington	Indianapolis, Ind.	Commanding district of North Missouri.
William Hays	New York city.	Commanding draft rendezvous.
John H. King	In the field, Tenn.	A. A. P. M. G., southern division of New York.
		Commanding 1st brigade 1st sep. division, dep't of Cumberland.

LIST OF MAJOR AND BRIGADIER-GENERALS OF VOLUNTEERS, &c.—(Continued.)

NAME AND RANK.	STATION.	HOW EMPLOYED.
Israel Vogdes.....	Portsmouth, Va.	Commanding defences of Norfolk and Portsmouth.
Adam J. Slemmer.....	Cincinnati, Ohio.	President of board for examination of sick and wounded officers.
Lewis C. Hunt.....	New York city.	Commanding defences of city and harbor.
Thomas H. Neill.....	In the field, Va.	On duty in middle military division.
Thomas G. Pitcher.....	Indianapolis, Ind.	A. A. F. M. G., State of Indiana.
Thomas W. Sweeney.....	Louisville, Ky.	Under trial by court-martial.
Frank Wheaton.....	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 1st division 6th army corps.
William P. Carlin.....	In the field, Ga.	Commanding 1st division 14th army corps.
John S. Mason.....	San Francisco, Cal.	A. A. P. M. G., for California and Nevada.
Romeyn B. Ayres.....	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 2d division 5th army corps.
Richard Arnold.....	Wilmington, Del.	Member of retiring board.
David McM. Gregg.....	Army of Potomac.	Com'dg 2d cavalry division. (On temporary leave of absence.)
William B. Hazen.....	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding 2d division 15th army corps.
Robert O. Tyler.....	Philadelphia, Pa.	Wounded.
Alfred T. A. Torbert.....	In the field, Va.	Chief of cavalry, middle military division.
Gilman Marston.....	Washington, D. C.	On temporary leave of absence.
Michael K. Lawler.....	Memphis, Tenn.	Commanding 1st brig. reserve corps, mil. div. of W. Mississippi.
George D. Wagner.....	Indianapolis, Ind.	Awaiting orders.
William Dwight.....	In the field, Va.	Commanding 1st division 19th army corps.
Lysander Cutler.....	Jackson, Mich.	Commanding draft rendezvous.
James W. McMillan.....	In the field, Va.	Commanding 2d brigade 1st division 19th army corps.
Sullivan A. Meredith.....	St. Louis, Mo.	Member of general court-martial and military commission.
Joseph F. Knipe.....	In the field, Tenn.	Serving with the army of the Tennessee.
E. W. Hincks.....	Hart's Island, N. Y. harbor.	Commanding draft rendezvous.
John D. Stevenson.....	Harper's Ferry, W. Va.	Commanding 8d division department of West Virginia.
James Barnes.....	Point Lookout, Md.	Commanding St. Mary's district and prisoners' camp.
N. C. McLean.....	Lexington, Ky.	Commanding 1st division district of Kentucky.
William Vandever.....	Louisville, Ky.	On general court-martial.
Alex. Schemmelfennig.....	Bethlehem, Pa.	Sick.
Edward Harland.....	Newbern, N. C.	Commanding district of Newbern.
Charles K. Graham.....	In the field, Va.	On special service in department of Virginia and North Carolina.
Samuel Beatty.....	Huntsville, Ala.	Commanding 3d division 4th army corps.
John E. Smith.....	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding 3d division 15th army corps.
Frank S. Nickerson.....	Searsport, Me.	Awaiting orders.
Edward H. Hobson.....	Lexington, Ky.	Commanding 1st brigade 1st division district of Kentucky.
Joseph D. Webster.....	In the field, Ga.	Chief of Major-General Sherman's staff.
William Harrow.....	In the field, Ga.	Commanding 4th division 15th army corps.
Joseph T. Copeland.....	Alton, Ill.	Awaiting orders.
William H. Morris.....	New York city.	Member of general court-martial. (Wounded.)
Thomas H. Ruger.....	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding 1st division 23d army corps.
Elias S. Dennis.....	Memphis, Tenn.	Commanding 2d brig. reserve corps, mil. div. of West Mississippi.
Thomas C. H. Smith.....	Milwaukee, Wis.	Commanding district of Wisconsin.
Charles A. Heckman.....	In the field, Va.	Commanding 3d division 25th army corps.
Mortimer D. Leggett.....	In the field, Ga.	Commanding 3d division 17th army corps.
Davis Tillson.....	Knoxville, Tenn.	Commanding 2d brigade 4th division 23d army corps.
Edward E. Potter.....	Hilton Head, S. C.	Commanding district of Hilton Head.
Albert L. Lee.....	Washington, D. C.	Before Committee on Conduct of War.
Egbert B. Brown.....	Rolla, Mo.	Commanding district of Rolla.
John McNeill.....	St. Louis, Mo.	Under trial by court-martial.
George F. McGinnis.....	New Orleans, La.	On duty in department of Gulf.
Hugh Ewing.....	Louisville, Ky.	Commanding 2d division district of Kentucky.
Daniel Ullman.....	Morgansza, La.	Commanding United States forces.
George J. Stannard.....	St. Albans, Vt.	Severely wounded.
Henry Baxter.....	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 2d brigade 3d division 5th army corps.
John M. Thayer.....	Fort Smith, Ark.	Commanding district of the frontier.
Charles T. Campbell.....	Milwaukee, Wis.	Member of general court-martial. [rebels
Halbert E. Paine.....	New York city.	Commissioner for sending supplies to federal prisoners in hands of
Robert B. Potter.....	Army of Potomac.	Com'dg 2d div. 9th army corps. (On temporary leave of absence.)
Thomas Ewing, jr.....	St. Louis, Mo.	Com'dg district of St. Louis. (On temporary leave of absence.)
J. A. J. Lightburn.....	Clarksburg, W. Va.	Commanding post.
Henry H. Bibles.....	St. Paul, Minn.	Commanding district of Minnesota.
Joseph B. Carr.....	Norfolk, Va.	Commanding sep. brig. dep't of Virginia and North Carolina.
J. J. Bartlett.....	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 3d brigade 1st division 5th army corps.
Patrick E. Connor.....	Camp Douglas, Utah Ter.	Commanding district of Utah.
John P. Hawkins.....	Vicksburg, Miss.	Commanding 1st division U. S. colored troops.
Gabriel R. Paul.....	Newport, Ky.	Severely wounded.
Edward A. Wild.....	In the field, Va.	On duty in 25th army corps.
Edward Ferrero.....	Bermuda Hundred, Va.	Commanding defences of Bermuda Hundred.
Adelbert Ames.....	In the field, Va.	Commanding 2d division 24th army corps.
William Birney.....	In the field, Va.	Commanding 2d division 25th army corps.
Daniel H. Knicker.....	Washington, D. C.	Chief depot quartermaster.
Robert Allen.....	Louisville, Ky.	Chief Q. M. departments of the West.
Eufus Ingalls.....	City Point, Va.	Chief Q. M. armies operating against Richmond.
Gustavus A. De Russey.....	Near Fort Corcoran, Va.	Commanding division 22d army corps.
Alexander Shier.....	Duval's Bluff, Ark.	Commanding 2d division 7th army corps.
Benjamin H. Grierson.....	Memphis, Tenn.	Commanding cavalry division department of Mississippi.
Robert S. Foster.....	In the field, Va.	Com'dg 1st div. 24th army corps. (On temporary leave of absence.)
Judson Kilpatrick.....	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding 3d cavalry military division of Mississippi.
Alexander S. Webb.....	New York city.	Member gen'l court-martial. (Under orders to army of Potomac.)
Alfred N. Duffie.....	Danville, Va.	Prisoner of war.
Walter C. Whitaker.....	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding 2d brigade 1st division 4th army corps.
Wesley Merritt.....	In the field, Va.	Com'dg 1st cav. div. mid. mil. div. (On temporary leave of absence.)
George A. Custer.....	In the field, Va.	Commanding 3d cavalry division middle military division.
William D. Whipple.....	Chattanooga, Tenn.	Chief of Major-General Thomas's staff.
John C. Starkweather.....	Milwaukee, Wis.	Awaiting orders.
Kenner Garrard.....	In the field, Ga.	Commanding 2d cavalry division military division of Mississippi.
Charles R. Woods.....	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding 1st brigade 1st division 15th army corps.
John B. Sanborn.....	Springfield, Mo.	Commanding district of Southwest Missouri.

ARMY OPERATIONS.

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LIST OF MAJOR AND BRIGADIER-GENERALS OF VOLUNTEERS, &c.—(Continued.)

NAME AND RANK.	STATION.	HOW EMPLOYED.
Giles A. Smith	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding 4th division 17th army corps.
Jasper A. Maltby	Vicksburg, Miss.	Commanding brigade district of Vicksburg.
Thomas K. Smith	In the field, Tenn.	Serving with det. of the army of Tennessee.
Walter Q. Gersham	New Albany, Ind.	Wounded.
Manning F. Force	In the field, Ga.	Commanding 1st brigade 8d division 17th army corps.
Robert A. Cameron	Thibodaux, La.	Commanding district of Lafourche.
John M. Corse	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding 4th division 15th army corps.
John A. Rawlins	City Point, Va.	Chief of General Grant's staff.
Alvan C. Gillem	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding Governor's guard.
John W. Turner	Bermuda Hundred, Va.	Chief of staff, department of Virginia and North Carolina.
Henry E. Davies	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 1st brigade 2d cavalry division.
Andrew J. Hamilton	New Orleans, La.	Under orders of Major-General Canby.
Henry W. Birge	In the field, Va.	Commanding 1st brigade 2d division 19th army corps.
James H. Leslie	Palatine Bridge, N. Y.	Awaiting orders.
James H. Wilson	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding cavalry corps, military division of Mississippi.
Adin B. Underwood	Newtonville, Mass.	Wounded.
Augustus L. Cebelain	Memphis, Tenn.	Commanding colored troops, State of Tennessee.
William A. Pile	Port Hudson, La.	Commanding United States force.
John W. Fuller	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding 1st division 17th army corps.
John F. Miller	Nashville, Tenn.	Commanding post.
Philip Regis de Trobriand	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 1st brigade 8d division 2d army corps.
Cyrus Bussey	Little Rock, Ark.	Commanding 2d brigade cavalry division, dept. of Arkansas.
Christopher C. Andrews	Steamer Niagara, Miss. river	En route to Morganza, La. (On duty in department of Gulf.)
Edward M. McCook	In the field, Ga.	Commanding 1st cavalry division, military division of Mississippi.
Lewis A. Grant	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 2d brigade 2d division 6th army corps.
Edward Hatch	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding 5th cavalry division, military division of Miss.
August V. Kantz	In the field, Va.	Commanding cavalry division, dept. of Virginia and N. Carolina.
Francis Fessenden	Washington, D. C.	Member of military commission. (Severely wounded.)
John F. Hartshorn	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 1st division 9th army corps.
Samuel S. Carroll	New York city	Member of general court-martial. (Severely wounded.)
Stemon G. Griffin	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 2d brigade 2d division 9th army corps.
Emory Upton	In the field, Tenn.	Serving in dept. of the Cumberland. [army corps. (Wounded.)
John E. Brooke	Washington, D. C.	Member board for examination of applicants for commissions in 1st
Tolson A. Milica	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 1st division 2d army corps.
Joseph Hayes	Libby prison, Richmond, Va.	Prisoner of war.
Byron E. Pierce	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 2d brigade 8d division 3d army corps.
Selden Connor	Washington, D. C.	Severely wounded.
Joshua L. Chamberlain	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 1st brigade 1st division 5th army corps.
Elbert W. Rice	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding 1st brigade 4th division 15th army corps.
William F. Bartlett	Walthrop, Mass.	Under medical treatment. [perary leave of absence.)
Edward S. Bragg	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 1st brigade 4th division 5th army corps. (On tem-
Martin D. Hardin	Washington, D. C.	Commanding division 22d army corps.
Charles J. Paine	In the field, Va.	Commanding 1st division 25th army corps.
John B. McIntosh	Philadelphia, Pa.	Severely wounded.
George H. Chapman	Winchester, Va.	Member of military commission.
William Grose	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding 8d brigade 1st division 4th army corps.
Joseph A. Cooper	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding 1st brigade 2d division 23d army corps.
John T. Croston	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding 1st brigade 1st cavalry div. mil. div. of Mississippi.
John W. Sprague	Savannah, Ga.	Commanding 2d brigade 1st division 17th army corps.
James W. Keilly	In the field, Tenn.	Commanding 1st brigade 8d division 23d army corps.
Luther P. Bradley	New Haven, Conn.	Wounded. [leave of absence.)
Charles C. Walcutt	In the field, Ga.	Commanding 2d brig. 4th div. 15th army corps. (On temporary
William W. Belknap	In the field, Ga.	Commanding 8d brigade 4th division 17th army corps.
Powell Clayton	Pine Bluff, Ark.	Commanding post.
Joseph A. Haskin	Washington, D. C.	Chief of artillery, department of Washington.
James D. Fessenden	In the field, Va.	Commanding 8d brigade 1st division 19th army corps.
Elit Long	Lexington, Ky.	Wounded.
Thomas W. Eagan	Washington, D. C.	Wounded.
Joseph R. Hawley	In the field, Va.	Commanding 2d brigade 1st division 24th army corps.
William H. Seward, jr.	Martinsburg, W. Va.	Commanding post.
Isaac H. Duval	In the field, Va.	Commanding 1st infantry division, department of W. Virginia.
John Edwards	Fort Smith, Ark.	Commanding 1st brigade district of the frontier.
Thomas A. Smyth	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 8d brigade 2d division 2d army corps.
Ferdinand Van Derveer	Hamilton, Ohio	Under orders to department of Cumberland.
Thomas C. Devin	In the field, Va.	Com'dg 2d brigade 1st cavalry division middle military division.
Alfred Gibbs	In the field, Va.	On duty in 1st cavalry division middle military division.
R. B. McKenzie	Army of Potomac.	Commanding 2d brigade 1st division 6th army corps.
R. B. Hays	In the field, Va.	Com'dg 1st brigade 1st inf. div., department of West Virginia.
James E. Slack	Memphis, Tenn.	Com'dg 2d brig. 2d div. reserve corps, mil. div. of W. Mississippi.
Thomas J. Lucas	Indianapolis, Ind.	On recruiting service.
E. J. Davis	Morganza, La.	Commanding cavalry brigade, department of Gulf.
Joseph Bailey	New Orleans, La.	Commanding cavalry division, department of Gulf.
George L. Ecal	In the field, Va.	Commanding 1st brigade 1st division 19th army corps.
Henry G. Thomas	In the field, Va.	Commanding 8d brigade 1st division 25th army corps.
Cyrus Hamlin	New Orleans, La.	Commanding 8d div. U. S. colored troops, department of Gulf.

RECAPITULATION.

HOW EMPLOYED.	Major Generals.	Brig. Generals.	Aggregate.
On command	45	200	245
Before Committee on Conduct of the War	1	1	2
Awaiting orders	8	12	20
Commissioner for exchange and Commissary General of prisoners	1	1	2
Members of courts-martial, military commissions, &c.	7	20	27
On duty, on account of sickness or wounds	1	14	15
On special duty	2	12	14
On leave of absence	1	2	2
Under trial	8	8
Prisoners of War	2	2
Total	66	267	333

ARMY OPERATIONS.

NAVY DEPARTMENT.

NAME	DUTY.	Place of birth.	Where a citizen.	Date of original appointment.
Gideon Wells	Secretary	Connecticut	Connecticut	7 Mar., 1861
Gustavus V. Fox	Assistant Secretary	Massachusetts	Massachusetts	9 May, 1861
William Faxon	Chief Clerk	Connecticut	Connecticut	19 Mar., 1861
William Plume Moran	Clerk	Virginia	Virginia	8 Dec., 1859
do. do.	Disbursing Clerk			
<i>Bureau of Yards and Docks.</i>				
Joseph Smith	Chief of Bureau	Massachusetts	Massachusetts	25 May, 1846
William P. S. Sanger	Civil Engineer	Massachusetts	Dist. Columbia	15 Sept., 1843
John W. Bronaugh	Chief Clerk	Virginia	Dist. Columbia	4 June, 1849
<i>Bureau of Navigation.</i>				
Charles Henry Davis	Chief of Bureau	Massachusetts	Massachusetts	17 July, 1862
Benjamin F. Greene	Chief Clerk	New Hampshire	New York	19 Feb., 1863
<i>Bureau of Ordnance.</i>				
Henry A. Wise	Chief of Bureau	New York	New York	25 June, 1863
Richmond Aulick	Assistant	Connecticut	Virginia	28 June, 1863
C. E. Graves	Chief Clerk	Vermont	Vermont	9 Aug., 1861
<i>Bureau of Equipment and Recruiting.</i>				
Albert N. Smith	Chief of Bureau	Maine	Massachusetts	30 May, 1863
S. Henriques	Chief Clerk	Sweden	New York	3 Sept., 1862
<i>Bureau of Medicine and Surgery.</i>				
William Whelan	Chief of Bureau	Pennsylvania	Pennsylvania	1 Oct., 1859
Phineas J. Horwitz	Assistant to Bureau	Maryland	Pennsylvania	8 June, 1859
<i>Bureau of Provisions and Clothing.</i>				
Horatio Bridge	Chief of Bureau	Maine	Maine	1 Oct., 1854
Thomas Fildebrown	Chief Clerk	Maine	Maine	1 Sept., 1849
<i>Bureau of Construction and Repair.</i>				
John Lenthall	Chief of Bureau	Dist. Columbia	Pennsylvania	18 Nov., 1853
James W. Deeble	Chief Clerk	Dist. Columbia	Dist. Columbia	6 April, 1861
<i>Bureau of Steam Engineering.</i>				
Benjamin F. Isherwood	Chief of Bureau	New York	New York	25 July, 1863
William H. Allen	Chief Clerk	Connecticut	Wisconsin	9 Jan., 1863

REAR ADMIRALS OF THE NAVY.

NAME	State where born.	State of which a citizen.	Original entry into the service.	Date of present commission.
<i>Active List.</i>				
David G. Farragut*	Tennessee	Tennessee	17 Dec., 1810	16 July, 1863
Louis M. Goldsborough	Dist. Columbia	Maryland	18 June, 1812	16 July, 1863
Samuel F. Dupont	New Jersey	Delaware	19 Dec., 1815	16 July, 1863
Charles Henry Davis	Massachusetts	Massachusetts	19 Aug., 1823	7 Feb., 1863
John A. Dahlgren	Pennsylvania	Pennsylvania	1 Feb., 1826	7 Feb., 1863
David D. Porter	Pennsylvania	Pennsylvania	2 Feb., 1829	4 July, 1863
<i>Retired List.</i>				
Charles Stewart	Pennsylvania	New Jersey	19 Mar., 1793	16 July, 1863
William B. Shubrick	South Carolina	South Carolina	20 June, 1806	16 July, 1863
Joseph Smith	Massachusetts	Massachusetts	16 Jan., 1809	16 July, 1863
Francis H. Gregory	Connecticut	Connecticut	16 Jan., 1809	16 July, 1863
Silas H. Stringham	New York	New York	15 Nov., 1809	16 July, 1863
Samuel L. Breese	New York	New York	17 Dec., 1810	16 July, 1863
Hiram Paulding	New York	New York	1 Sept., 1811	16 July, 1863

COMMODORES OF THE NAVY.

<i>Active List.</i>				
Thomas T. Craven	Dist. Columbia	New York	1 May, 1822	16 July, 1863
Henry K. Hoff	Pennsylvania	South Carolina	25 Oct., 1823	16 July, 1863
Henry H. Bell	North Carolina	New York	4 Aug., 1823	16 July, 1863
William Smith	Kentucky	Missouri	4 Mar., 1823	16 July, 1863
John W. Livingston	New York	New York	4 Mar., 1823	16 July, 1863
Henry K. Thatcher	Maine	Maine	4 Mar., 1823	16 July, 1863
John B. Misonron	South Carolina	South Carolina	27 June, 1824	16 July, 1863
Robert B. Hiltchcock	Connecticut	Connecticut	1 Jan., 1826	16 July, 1863
Stephen C. Rowan	Ohio	Ohio	1 Feb., 1825	16 July, 1863
Joseph Lannan	Connecticut	Connecticut	1 Jan., 1825	29 Aug., 1863
Thomas Turner	Virginia	Pennsylvania	21 April, 1825	18 Dec., 1863
Charles H. Poor	Massachusetts	Dist. Columbia	1 Mar., 1825	9 Jan., 1863
Timothy A. Hunt	Connecticut	Connecticut	1 Feb., 1825	2 Jan., 1863
Sylvanus W. Godon	Pennsylvania	Pennsylvania	1 Mar., 1819	2 Jan., 1863
James S. Palmer	New Jersey	New Jersey	1 Jan., 1825	7 Feb., 1863
William Radford	Virginia	Missouri	1 Mar., 1825	24 April, 1863
John Rodgers	Maryland	Maryland	18 April, 1823	17 June, 1863

* Appointed Vice-Admiral December 31, 1864.

† As Lieutenant.

COMMODORES OF THE NAVY—(Continued).

NAME.	State where born.	State of which a Citizen.	Original entry into the service.	Date of present Commission.
<i>Retired List.</i>				
John D. Sloat.....	New York.....	New York.....	13 Feb., 1800.....	16 July, 1863
William Mervine.....	Pennsylvania.....	New York.....	16 Jan., 1800.....	16 July, 1863
Thomas Crabbe.....	Maryland.....	Pennsylvania.....	15 Nov., 1809.....	16 July, 1863
John C. Long.....	New Hampshire.....	New Hampshire.....	13 June, 1812.....	16 July, 1863
John B. Montgomery.....	New Jersey.....	New Jersey.....	4 June, 1812.....	16 July, 1863
Cornelius K. Stribling.....	South Carolina.....	South Carolina.....	18 June, 1812.....	16 July, 1863
Jeobus B. Sands.....	New York.....	New York.....	18 June, 1812.....	16 July, 1863
Charles H. Bell.....	New York.....	New York.....	18 June, 1812.....	16 July, 1863
Joseph R. Jarvis.....	Massachusetts.....	Maine.....	18 June, 1812.....	16 July, 1863
William C. Nicholson.....	Maryland.....	Maryland.....	18 June, 1812.....	16 July, 1863
Joseph B. Hull.....	New York.....	Connecticut.....	9 Nov., 1813.....	16 July, 1863
William H. Gardner.....	Maryland.....	Pennsylvania.....	6 Dec., 1814.....	16 July, 1863
T. Aloysius Dornin.....	Ireland.....	Maryland.....	9 May, 1815.....	16 July, 1863
Frederick Eagle.....	Pennsylvania.....	Pennsylvania.....	6 Dec., 1814.....	16 July, 1863
John Eddis.....	Rhode Island.....	Virginia.....	30 Nov., 1814.....	16 July, 1863
William W. McKean.....	Pennsylvania.....	Pennsylvania.....	30 Nov., 1814.....	19 July, 1863
Charles Lowndes.....	Maryland.....	Maryland.....	28 Mar., 1815.....	16 July, 1863
John Marston.....	Massachusetts.....	Pennsylvania.....	15 April, 1815.....	16 July, 1863
Henry A. Adams.....	Pennsylvania.....	Pennsylvania.....	15 Mar., 1814.....	16 July, 1863
George F. Pearson*.....	New Hampshire.....	Massachusetts.....	11 Mar., 1815.....	16 July, 1863
John Pope.....	Massachusetts.....	Maine.....	30 May, 1816.....	16 July, 1863
Levin M. Powell.....	Virginia.....	Virginia.....	1 Mar., 1817.....	16 July, 1863
Charles Wilkeat.....	New York.....	New York.....	1 Jan., 1818.....	16 July, 1863
Henry Eagle.....	New York.....	New York.....	1 Jan., 1818.....	16 July, 1863
William M. Glendy.....	Virginia.....	Virginia.....	1 Jan., 1818.....	16 July, 1863
George S. Blake.....	Massachusetts.....	Massachusetts.....	23 April, 1818.....	16 July, 1863
Andrew A. Harwood.....	Pennsylvania.....	Pennsylvania.....	1 Jan., 1818.....	16 July, 1863
Theodore Bailey.....	New York.....	New York.....	1 Jan., 1818.....	16 July, 1863
Hugh Y. Purviance.....	Maryland.....	Maryland.....	3 Nov., 1818.....	16 July, 1863
Cadwalader Ringgold.....	Maryland.....	Maryland.....	4 Mar., 1819.....	16 July, 1863
James L. Lardner.....	Pennsylvania.....	Pennsylvania.....	26 July, 1820.....	16 July, 1862

ASIA. The most important event in the history of Asia, during the year 1865, is the steady progress of the Russians in Central Asia, which resulted in the annexation of a large territory. By a circular letter to its Foreign Ministers, of December 3, 1864, the Russian Government explained to the foreign Governments the reasons for this extension of the frontiers of the empire. In February the newly conquered territory, together with a part of the former possessions in Central Asia, were erected into the new Russian province of Turkistan. In May the Khan of Khokand was defeated by the Russians and killed, and in June the important town of Taskkent was occupied by them. (See RUSSIA.)

In China, the Taepings, although not so formidable since the death of their chief leader as before, continued to harass the Imperial troops, and were, at the close of 1865, not completely subdued. The insurrection of the Mohammedan rebels in northwestern China, which had first broken out in 1862, as well as that of the Nien-fei ("northern rebels"), assumed larger dimensions, and at one time even the capital of the empire, Peking, was threatened.

The relations of China as well as of Japan to the powers of Europe and America, did not undergo any considerable change. Japan evidently adjusts itself to intercourse with foreigners, and prepares to secure many of the advantages of foreign civilization. At the close of the year the Mikado gave his consent to the opening of the two ports of Osacca and Hioga,

on January 1, 1866, to foreign trade. (See CHINA and JAPAN.)

The war of the British Government in India with Bhootan, continued until November, when it was concluded by a treaty of peace. Otherwise the peace of British India as well as that of the native countries and of the French possessions in Farther India, was not disturbed by any difficulties of importance. (See INDIA.)

A civil war in Afghanistan, headed by the brothers of the Ameer, ended in the defeat of the insurgents.

Among the signs of an advancing civilization throughout Asia is the steady increase of railroads, telegraphs, and steamboats. British India in this respect begins to rival the countries of Europe and America. In Asiatic Russia, the great enterprise of a telegraphic connection between America and Europe made uninterrupted progress toward completion. The Indo-European telegraph was finished in February, and messages passed from England to India in twenty-four hours. In Japan the first railroad was finished, to the great astonishment of the natives; and in Persia, the Shah granted the first concession for a railroad from Tiflis to Dzulfah. In China, the first steamer was built at Shanghai, and launched in October.

ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA AND PROGRESS. The compiler of a summary in the *Quarterly Journal of Science* remarks upon the extent to which Astronomy has ceased to be a science prosecuted by a distinct and exclusive set of methods. Thus, in addition to the aid for which it has long been dependent on optical principles and instruments, the science is now indebted for important contributions to the spectroscopy—to chemistry, which plays

* Acting Rear Admiral.

† Exprimanded and suspended for three years from May 1, 1864. Two years of his suspension was remitted by the President, December 27, 1864.

so large a part in the spectrum discoveries, besides determining the composition of meteorites, and leading to important deductions from both sources—to photography, as employed in delineating the solar and lunar surfaces, the positions of stars, &c.—and to electricity, which, besides its many incidental services, is coming into quite general use as a means of the automatic registering (at the moment) of transit observations. As the field of practical astronomy is thus continually enlarged and made to extend into those of its cognate sciences, it becomes more difficult—in fact, within the limits of an annual *résumé*, scarcely practicable—at once to present the progress of the science as a whole, and also to allow to each subordinate topic the distinct and full treatment that may be due to its individual importance. In addition to the points below considered, however, the reader will find others, astronomical proper, and related, included under the titles *Atmosphere*; *Mars*; *Observatories*, &c.

General View.—Among recently formed astronomical societies, is one in Germany, its location being at Heidelberg, and its existence dating from August, 1863. Though its more active membership will, of course, be found in the Germanic States, yet this society will include on its list savants of all countries. Its purpose appears to be to enter upon the fundamental questions of astronomical science, and to undertake those long and difficult problems which are usually too exacting for the time and facilities of the individual astronomer.

About the beginning of the year 1864, M. Leverrier, director of the Imperial Observatory at Paris, took the requisite steps for enlisting astronomers and the educated classes of the empire in the formation of a society, apparently to consist in a large and somewhat general membership, and designed for the cultivation of astronomical and meteorological—if not, generally, of physical—science. The association, the plan of which has been approved by the Emperor, is to be under the direction of M. Leverrier, and to have its central office in the Imperial Observatory. The moderate contributions required of the members are to be employed in developing the director's great meteorological enterprise, and in furnishing an outfit of implements to the observatories of the southern provinces. In April, 1865, the association had already expended some 2,500 livres in the general furtherance of scientific objects, besides assigning 1,000 francs to aid M. Cazin's inquiries into the dynamical theory of heat; 700 francs to aid those of M. Terquem, as to the vibrations of plates, rods, and cords; 500 francs for those of M. Gernez, on the rotatory power of quartz at high temperatures; and 500 also to MM. Gauguain and Diacon, to aid their researches in electricity and the spectrum analysis.

In the United States, the most important movement in the way of association for scientific ends has been the organization, in 1863, of

the recently constituted National Academy of Sciences. Of the field of operations of this Society, however, embracing, as it is intended to do, the mathematical and physical sciences generally, the subjects of astronomy will of course form but a part.

In the death of Captain James M. Gilliss, U. S. N., which occurred at Washington, February 9th, 1865, and in that of Professor George P. Bond, at Cambridge, on the 17th of the same month, astronomical science in the United States has suffered a very severe loss. Biographical notices will appear in the proper place in this volume.

The director of the Royal Observatory of Turin, and one of the most distinguished among astronomers and mathematicians of his time, Baron J. B. Plana, died at the city named, January 20th, 1864, in his eighty-third year. His greatest work was perhaps his "Theory of the Moon's Movements," 1832; but his labors were varied and extensive—the latest volume of Transactions of the Turin Academy containing no less than seven elaborate memoirs from his pen. Sir William Rowan Hamilton, late Astronomer Royal for Ireland, died on the 2d of September, 1865, at the age of sixty years.

The gold medal of the Royal Astronomical Society, London, was, in 1862, awarded to Mr. W. De la Rue, for his astronomical researches, and especially for his applications, in these, of photography; and in 1863, to Professor Argelander, for his survey of the northern heavens.

The gold medal of the Society was, in 1865, at the meeting of February 10th, awarded to Professor G. P. Bond, of the Harvard College Observatory. The President, Mr. W. De la Rue, accompanied his announcement of the award with a most flattering but well-deserved eulogy on the labors and achievements of Professor Bond in connection with astronomical science, instancing the evidences to be found in recently published volumes of the *Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College*; his magnificent work on the great comet of 1858; the contributions made by him to the theory of planetary perturbations; his monographs on Saturn; the part he rendered in perfecting a plan for recording by the electric method the times of transit of stars across vertical lines on transparent mica, attached to the diaphragm of the spider-line micrometer; the photographing of the moon's surface, first successfully accomplished by him, with the aid of Messrs. Whipple & Black, of Boston; and an unfinished work upon the nebula of Orion. The distinguished astronomer, however, did not live to learn of the honors designed for him—his death having occurred February 17th, just one week after the date of the award.

At the public sitting of the French Academy, early in February, 1865, the Lalande medal, the highest astronomical prize in its gift, was awarded to Mr. Richard Carrington, of Redhill, for his observations upon and plates of the solar spots.

Measurements of Arcs of Parallel, and of Meridian.—Under the direction, during his lifetime, of F. G. W. Struve, and of Sir Henry James and others, the work of measuring the immense arc of the parallel running from Orsk, on the Ural River, to Valentia, on the western coast of Ireland, has now been for some years going forward. This arc embraces about 75° of longitude, thus forming more than one-fifth of an entire parallel. In carrying out these determinations of the true differences of longitudes, great aid is derived from the employment of the electric telegraph. Under the arrangements of Professor Argelander and M. Otto Struve for continuing this work, observations were made during the summer and fall of 1864, with a view to determine the exact differences of longitude of Greenwich with Bonn, with Nieuport, and with Haverford-West—these operations being directed by Colonel Forsch and Captain Zyliniski (of the Russian service), and Dr. Thiel (attached to the University of Bonn).

Another survey of an arc of parallel is also being carried on in India, this being commonly spoken of as the great Indian Arc, and the work as the Indian Trigonometrical Survey.

Dr. Otto Torrell reported, in the fall of 1863, the progress made during the summer of that year in the surveys preliminary to the measurement of an arc of the meridian at Spitzbergen. The proposed arc is $4\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ in length, extending from Ross Island, at the extreme north, to Hope Island, at the extreme south, of Spitzbergen. The surveys in 1863 extended over $1^\circ 50'$ of this distance, being chiefly directed to the selection of suitable stations, and of a favorable locality for the measurement of a base line: they were to be continued in the summer of 1864.

Parallax and Distance of the Sun, and of the Moon.—In the Memoirs of the Royal Astronomical Society, vol. 33, Mr. E. J. Stone has a paper on the "Determination of the Sun's Mean Equatorial Horizontal Parallax, from Declination Observations of Mars and Stars, made during the Opposition of 1862, at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich; the Royal Observatory, Cape of Good Hope; and the Government Observatory, Williamstown, Victoria." In this paper, presented May 13th, 1864, Mr. Stone's conclusion is, that the sun's mean horizontal parallax is, without doubt, already determined to the first decimal place, namely, as $8''.9$; while he thinks the value $8''.943$, has the greatest probability in its favor. Mr. Hansen, by calculations from lunar theory, has lately arrived at the value $8''.9159$; Dr. Winnecke, at that of $8''.964$.

Among the modes of estimating the sun's distance, however, independent of parallax, are those based on determinations of the velocity of light. Professor Phillips, in his address before the British Association, 1865, alludes to M. Foucault's wonderful achievement in determining the velocity of light in its movement

"through all the vast planetary space of millions and thousands of millions of miles, more exactly than had been inferred by astronomers from observations of the satellites of Jupiter," though the experimental proof requisite to this result had been condensed "into his own apartment," and "within a tract of thirty feet." M. Foucault's achievement is, indeed, a remarkable one, and his numerical result doubtless gives very closely, the velocity of light in the dense atmosphere at the earth's surface. A correspondent of the *Reader*, October 7th, 1865, calls attention, however, to the admitted fact that light, in passing through material media, moves faster as the medium is rarer; and he suggests the probability that the velocity of light in the inter-planetary spaces, where no material medium (at least of the ordinary sort) is supposed to exist, may be greater than it is in the denser portions of our atmosphere. He concludes that, taken alone, the result of M. Foucault's experiment cannot be considered a sufficient warrant for the deduction that the estimated distance of the earth must be materially reduced. Still, the tendency of late years to admit an increase in the value of the solar parallax coincides with the result of Foucault's experiment, in requiring a diminution in the previous estimates of the sun's distance; and it may be said that this is the conclusion to which, on a variety of grounds, the minds of astronomers are now tending.

Meantime, Mr. Breen has corrected Adams' constant of the lunar parallax, by $0''.38$, increasing it to $8422''.70$. The constant so increased is adopted in the *Nautical Almanac* for 1867. Its acceptance implies a diminution of the moon's mean distance from the earth equal to about 26 miles.

Preparation for Observing the Transit of Venus, 1882.—Whatever values for the solar parallax and the sun's distance may be finally arrived at, it has become admitted that, as deduced from observations on the two transits of Venus last occurring—those of the years 1761 and 1769—the former was too small, and the latter, accordingly, too great. Authorities state that the two transits of Venus across the sun's disc next to occur, will take place in the years 1874 and 1882; but, having met with no account of preparations for observing that of 1874, the writer infers that this transit is not expected to be one favorable for observation. The importance, then, which must at this time attach to the observation of the more favorable one, that of 1882, may be understood from what has been stated in the preceding section.

A proposal for a new expedition toward the North Pole having been, in the early part of 1865, discussed before the Royal Geographical Society, London, the Astronomer Royal addressed to its President, Sir R. I. Murchison, a letter in which he favors, instead, a South Polar expedition. This, he argues, while it might afford information on a point of vital importance to astronomy—the question whether the proper

stations can be found in the antarctic regions for observation of the transit—could doubtless be rendered at the same time not less profitable than an arctic exploration, by combining with this main purpose, those of observations in connection with geography, geology, hydrography, magnetism, meteorology, natural history, and other subjects for which the localities may be suitable.

Prof. Airy had previously discussed, in an elaborate paper, the circumstances of the coming transit, and especially in reference to the selection of stations for observation, his paper being published in the "Monthly Notices" (R. A. S.). In explanation, it may be stated, that the method of determining the sun's distance by means of the transit, depends on a comparison of the lengths of time occupied in the passage of the planet across the solar disc, as witnessed from different points on the earth's surface; and the result is more nearly correct in proportion as the differences in the apparent duration of the transit are made to approach nearer to the maximum of possible difference (this geometrical maximum being expressed by 2.00). The transit of 1882 will occur on the 6th of December; its duration will be *nearly six hours*, namely, from about 2 hours to about 8 hours, Greenwich mean solar time. Now, the instant and place (true perhaps to a second of time and arc) at which the planet will enter and leave the solar disc, are known; and, of course, also, exactly how the earth will be hanging in space at the time—how its axis will be situated in reference to the plane of the ecliptic, and to the line of the apparent path of the planet across the solar disc. Suppose a plane cutting the centre of the earth, and tangent to the sun's limb at the point of the planet's ingress upon the disc: then, of two sets of observers at points on the two sides of the earth remote from this plane, one set will (as its distance approaches a semi-diameter of the earth) see the ingress accelerated, while the other set will, in like proportion, see it retarded. Suppose another plane, cutting the centre of the earth and the point of the planet's egress from the disc: in like manner, observers on the two sides of the earth remote from this plane will respectively see the egress retarded and accelerated. The *desiderata*, then, are suitable stations for observing, at both or all of which the sun shall be visible at 2 hours and at 8 hours Greenwich mean time; while at one set of these, the ingress shall be accelerated and the egress retarded, and at the other the ingress shall be retarded, and the egress accelerated—thus securing the greatest practicable difference of apparent durations of the transit.

Prof. Airy finds that the latter of these two conditions is well answered by stations on the seaboard of the United States (those toward the Gulf of Mexico having the advantage of a higher sun at egress), and at Bermuda. At these places the duration of transit is shortest; along the Atlantic seaboard, the mean retardation of ingress is 0.95, the mean acceleration of

egress 0.83 nearly: total shortening, 1.78 (possible maximum, 2.00). At Bermuda, the parallactic values are, for ingress, 0.9, and for egress 0.9: total shortening, 1.80.

For the parts of the earth, however, at which the duration of transit will be longest, the choice of stations is more limited and the practical difficulties are greater. The station must be on the antarctic continent, and at some point at which the brief descent (in a practicable latitude) of the sun at that season below the horizon shall occur and terminate between the hours of 2 and 8 Greenwich mean time. As the sun will be low at best, it is further desirable that the hour angles of these two times shall be as nearly equal as possible. The requirements can only be satisfied by a location in about 65° S. lat. and about 105° E. long.; and therefore somewhere between Sabrina Land and Repulse Bay. The value for acceleration of ingress would here be 0.95, that for retardation of egress about 0.66: total lengthening, 1.61. Combining this with observations at Bermuda, the whole difference of durations would be 3.41 (geometrical maximum, 4.00). Supposing the latitude 65° S., and the sun's south polar distance 67° 27', the sun's altitude at each observation would be 4° 6'; which, if the sky were not liable to banks of haze near the horizon, and the weather should prove favorable, would suffice. A point on the antarctic continent nearly opposite that now considered, would show the sun at both ingress and egress; but the total lengthening would be only about 0.6, against 1.61 near Sabrina Land.

In accordance with these conclusions, Mr. Airy, in the letter before referred to, urges an early exploration of the region between this coast and Repulse Bay; and he then continues:

"The points to be ascertained are—(1) whether the coast is accessible on December 6th; (2) whether a latitude of 65° can be reached; (3) whether the sun can usually be seen well on December 6th at three hours on each side of the lower meridian. * * * Should the answer to the first or third of these questions be negative, then it would be proper to examine other portions of the South Continent, say in longitude not very different from 5^h [75°] West, but with no particular restriction, except that of gaining the highest possible South latitude. And the only point for inquiry would be, how well the sun can usually be seen on December 6th, at 2^h and 8^h Greenwich mean solar time."

Asteroids.—Mr. Pogson, of Madras, announced the discovery, May 3d, 1864, of a supposed new asteroid, and to which he assigned the name and number, Sappho (80). T. Oppolzer, in a letter to Mr. Airy, asserted, from comparison of the elements of the two, the identity of this planet with M. D'Arrest's, known as Freya (76). Mr. Pogson, in a later note, admitted this identity, remarking that the name Sappho is thus at liberty for future use. Astronomers seem not yet to have changed the

numbering of the subsequent discoveries to correspond with this conclusion. Evidently, however, not to speak of this asteroid (80), all the numbers now assigned must be considered as subject to alteration, so long as there remains a doubt in regard to (75) and (77); unless, indeed, these numbers shall be indefinitely left blank.

M. Tempel, of Marseilles, discovered, September 30th, 1864, a new planet having the brightness of a star of the 10th [one account says of the 11-12th] magnitude, and to which he assigned the name and number, Terpsichore (81). Dr. Luther, of Bilk, November 27th, 1864, detected another asteroid, Alcmena (82). At Naples, April 26th, 1865, M. de Gasparis discovered a new planet, which, in commemoration of Dante and of the sixth centennial return in this year of his natal day, he designated Beatrix, the number being considered (83). August 26th, 1865, Dr. Luther added yet another to the list of known minor planets: to this, which is of a brightness corresponding to the tenth magnitude, he has assigned the designation of Clio (84).

Thus, the list of new-found asteroids for 1864, and to August, 1865, must for the present stand as follows:

1864.	(80)	[Sappho?]by Mr. Pogson.
"	(81)	Terpsichoreby M. Tempel.
"	(82)	Alcmenaby Dr. Luther.
1865.	(83)	Beatrixby M. de Gasparis.
"	(84)	Clioby Dr. Luther.

Humboldt had called attention to some remarkable differences between the planets lying without and those within the "asteroid planet," or asteroid zone. The superior planets are large, are of comparatively low density, rotate in somewhere near 10 hours, are much flattened at their poles, and are admitted to have 21 satellites; while the inferior planets are smaller, are more dense, rotate in periods of near 24 hours, are less flattened, and are as yet known to have but one moon—our own satellite. Prof. Pierce has shown how a true planetary ring of cosmical matter could be sustained for a long period just within the orbit of Jupiter. Now, Mr. D. Trowbridge (*Amer. Jour. of Science*, 1864-'65) concludes that an influence of the same kind would sustain rings successively farther and farther in, to the Mercurial ring; so that each of them in succession would be longer, than were the superior planets severally, in aggregating into a planetary body. And this circumstance, he thinks, suffices to explain the differences of the inferior from the superior planets, above indicated.

Again, dividing 360° by 80, the number of the planetoids known early in 1864, we obtain for each an average space of $4\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ only of the circle; so that already we have approximately a ring of these bodies. But it is not to be supposed that the end of these discoveries is reached; and it is probable that much the larger proportion of their entire number are objects too small for detection by our best telescopes. The most rational theory of meteoric

stones is that they are small asteroids. Some of the thousands of these bodies, moving in eccentric orbits, and subject to extraordinary perturbations, may become satellites to some of the large planets, and finally fall into them as aëroliths. It is curious that the orbits of some of the known asteroids intersect. The mean depth in space, measured on a radius from the sun, of the whole zone of the asteroids, lies, so far as yet determined, between the limits of the orbit of Feronia, 2.145 (times the earth's mean distance from the sun), and Maximiliana, 3.452 (times the earth's mean distance)—a breadth, therefore, of 1.807 (times the mean radius of the earth's orbit).

M. H. Faye, whose view is also that of a connection of the asteroids with meteoric bodies, calls attention to the confirmatory circumstance that the successive discoveries of asteroids have proceeded steadily to bodies of less and less size: while those found in the beginning of the century rank among stars of the 7-8th magnitude, some of the more recently found do not exceed the 12-13th magnitude. He is led to infer also that other rings of asteroidal bodies can exist in other regions of the solar system—a supposition already familiar to physicists.

Jupiter.—Upon this planet, spots of definite shape and place are traceable in the dark spaces between the bright belts; and Prof. Phillips implies, from the analogy of the former appearances with some which characterize the surface of Mars, that upon Jupiter, as has been inferred in the case of Mars, these permanent spots may indicate features—say outlines of land and water—on the planet's surface. The *belts*, on the contrary, change in extent, outline, and number, being constant only in their direction—that parallel to the planet's rotation—and in the color, which is that of cloud reddened by morning or evening sunshine, and not equally so in every part. (*See MARS.*)

Saturn.—Mr. Proctor, in his work entitled "Saturn and its System," maintains in regard to the rings the hypothesis first advanced by Cassini, to the effect that the perfect ring form is an appearance only, and is due to the flight of "disconnected satellites so small and so closely packed that, at the immense distances to which Saturn is removed, they seem to form a continuous mass." It may at the least be said, that the most recent views in cosmical philosophy rather support than contradict this theory.

Satellites.—Mr. Lassell, temporarily residing at Malta, sent thence in 1864, to the Royal Astronomical Society, letters giving a *résumé* of his observations at that place. He finds but *four* satellites for the planet Uranus, and but *one* for Neptune; though he suggests that another and very distant satellite of the latter planet may also exist.

One of Mr. Lassell's communications is accompanied with a table, calculated by Mr. Marth, giving the long-desired ephemeris of the five inner satellites of Saturn. Of these satellites, Tethys appears to be, by its brightness and the

position of its orbit, the most suitable for observation.

The Planetary System; Questions relating to its Origin, and its probable Stability.—In an article entitled "The Density, Rotation, and Relative Age of the Planets" (*Amer. Jour. of Science*, 2d series, vol. xxxvii.—date of May, 1864), Prof. G. Hinrichs, of the Iowa State University, examines the doctrine of the "Stability of the Solar System." This doctrine he characterizes as a hypothesis merely. Admitting the existence of an ethereal medium filling space, he proceeds to examine the places and characteristics of the planetary bodies; and is led to the conclusion that a displacement of their orbits, such as would be the effect of the resistance of the supposed medium, has occurred and will continue to go on, the tendency being to the ultimate extinction of the system. He remarks that "the absence of positive signs of resistance in the observed motion of the planets, does not prove its non-existence; for if the earth approaches the sun by 10 feet every year, this resistance could not be said to be nothing—yet, assuming Kepler's third law as applying to the same planet in different distances, we easily find that the year would be shortened only *one second in a thousand years*, by this resistance!"

The author endeavors to show that, as in the geological examination of terrestrial strata, so we can determine the relative ages of the *celestial strata*—the planets and their moons—infering this, it would appear, from the comparative amounts of deviation or dislocation exhibited in their present actual orbits, from a certain regular or mathematical order (such as that expressed in the law of Bode or Titius), which it is assumed should characterize their intervals. He argues that the actual distances of the planets successively from the sun, show a higher age for the exterior over the interior planets, in about the ratio of three to one; that, as marks of increasing age, it will be found that the nearest satellites have approached their primaries; that the entire system of orbits becomes gradually closer; and that the regularity and symmetry of distances disappears more and more. Among the author's conclusions are, that the satellites of Jupiter, not less than the primary planets, exemplify the law that relative age increases with distance from the central body; that in an increasing irregularity, as should be true, the lunar world of Saturn shows as older than that of Jupiter, and that of Uranus as still older; that the views of the planetary ages arrived at are in harmony with the nebular hypothesis, and are further confirmed by a consideration of the densities of the planets; while the hypothesis just named finds support also in the law of their rotation. Finally, he supposes that the lost transitory force of the planetary bodies may be converted into magnetism.

In the 39th volume of the Journal last quoted (dates of January and May, 1865), Prof. Hin-

richs has an article entitled "Introduction to the Mathematical Principles of the Nebular Theory, or Planetology." In this he discusses at length, and, as in the former, from both physical and mathematical considerations, the grand hypothesis—the original conception of which is credited alike to Kant and Laplace—which affirms the origin of the solar system in a diffused or nebulous matter primarily filling its space, this matter having from the first or becoming affected with a movement of rotation, and its subsequent behavior being such as must result through the agency of various attractions and of heat. In the course of this discussion, the author claims to have established what is substantially a new law of the planetary and lunar distances—while he also admits its similarity to the law of Titius, and speaks of it as comprehending and correcting the latter—namely: that "the intervals between the abandonment of the different orbs of the same system are equal;" or, in other words, that the planetary distances correspond to equal intervals of time. He finds in the investigation now considered a general confirmation of the views of the preceding paper, and supposes that, of four successive cosmical days or ages (the characters of which he traces), the *fourth* corresponds with the present. With some other physicists, he anticipates a period when all the planetary bodies of our system will have fallen into the sun; and when the aggregated mass will remain as a mere "cosmic fossil," but in itself as susceptible of instructive investigation as is some fossil shell in the hands of the geologist of our time!

In the 38th volume of the same Journal (July, 1864), Prof. D. Kirkwood, of the Indiana State University, has a paper "On Certain Harmonies of the Solar System," in which he treats of the rotations of the planets, their distances, &c., and the mean distances of the periodic comets. He argues that, granting an ether, having the properties of a material fluid, it must undergo condensation about the sun and other large bodies; and that, either from its existing in the primitive solar spheroid, or—rejecting the nebular theory—from the gradually extending influence of the solar and planetary motions, the ether itself must have acquired a movement of rotation about the sun in the same direction with that of the planets. Even admitting, then, the supposed ether—though there are physicists who doubt both its existence and the necessity for any such medium—still, its resistance to bodies moving in orbits of small eccentricity and in the direction of the sun's rotation, must be considered an infinitesimal quantity. Another and more brief paper by the same writer, on the planetary distances, appears in the Journal quoted, for January, 1865.

Mr. D. Trowbridge, in the course of a long article upon the "Nebular Hypothesis" (*Amer. Jour. of Science*, November, 1864, and January, 1865), coincides in the conclusion of Prof.

Kirkwood, to the effect that, if an ethereal medium exists, it should have acquired a rotatory movement in the general direction of that of the planets.

Mr. Trowbridge also deduces, from the principle that the *invariable plane* of the solar system must be the invariable plane of the primitive solar spheroid, the conclusion that the first planetary ring abandoned must have been situated nearly in this plane, and hence, that the outermost planet of the solar system should move in an orbit whose inclination to the ecliptic is nearly the same as that of the principal plane of the solar system. Now, by an extremely exact determination, M. Lespiault finds the inclination of the invariable plane to be $1^{\circ} 41'$, while the inclination of the orbit of Neptune—the outermost planet yet known—is $1^{\circ} 46' 59''$,—a correspondence within $6'$ of a degree, and one that, when we reflect on the necessarily disturbing effect through immense ages of the planetary perturbations, is quite as near as could be anticipated.

Comets.—The most recent enumeration met with of the comets of 1863, reverses the order of those previously given as IV and V of that year, that seen by M. Tempel, November 4th, being now reckoned as Comet IV, and that of M. B  cker as Comet V, of the year in question. The same account credits the discovery of Comet VI of 1863 to M. Respighi—time, December 28th.

The comet at first designated I, of 1864, was discovered by M. Tempel, July 5th; its appearance was that of a diffused nebulosity, $3\text{--}4'$ in diameter: perihelion, September 7.05, *Marseilles* mean time; movement retrograde. August 5th, this comet was seen at Charleston, S. C., by Acting-Master Tillinghast of the iron-clad *Catskill*, it being then visible to the naked eye. Comet II—light very faint; July 29d, by Donati, at Florence: its perihelion, October 11.088, *Berlin* mean time; motion retrograde. Comet III—also very faint; September 9th, by Donati. According to its calculated elements, this comet passed its perihelion before those heretofore known as I and II of the same year. Comet IV—December 11th, by M. B  cker, at Nauen, near *Berlin*. Comet V—December 30th, by M. Bruhns, at *Leipzig*: perihelion, December 27.77; motion retrograde. All these comets may be said to have been telescopic.

Comet I, 1865, was of large size, visible in the Southern hemisphere, in the months of January and February. As seen at *Rio Janeiro*, January 24th, the tail was 26° in length. M. Moesta computed its elements, and, February 20th, observed a second tail, very faint, branching out to the north from the principal one. Perihelion, January 14.3367.

Celestial Atlas.—M. Ch. Dien, of France, has lately published a celestial atlas, in 20 maps, the projection employed corresponding to the development of a sphere of 65 centimetres in diameter. This atlas contains more

than 100,000 stars and nebulae, and is believed to surpass in accuracy of detail all its predecessors.

Survey of the Southern Celestial Hemisphere.—An arrangement has been entered into by which the directors of three Southern observatories, Mr. Pogson at *Madras*, Mr. Ellery at *Melbourne*, and Sir T. Maclear at the *Cape*, divide this work among them; the boundaries adopted for five successive zones of the celestial hemisphere being, *the equator*, 20° , 40° , 60° , 80° —the last zone of course stretching to the pole. The previous catalogues of Taylor, Weisse, and Oeltzen, of stars in southern latitudes—the two last named embracing from the equator to 31° S.,—are, by allowing for the precession, to be reduced to the epoch 1875.

Sirius.—Much interest is at present felt in observations upon this star, especially in view of the question whether Mr. Clark's supposed "companion" star (1862) is really such—whether *Sirius* is indeed one of a multiple group, or again, whether the telescope has actually detected one or more planets attendant on this brilliant orb. Mr. T. H. Safford, of *Cambridge Observatory*, 1863, infers from the apparent participation of the less brilliant star in the proper motion of *Sirius* itself, that the former must be physically connected with the latter; and while concluding that in this companion star, probably, the body disturbing the movements of *Sirius* has been actually found, he urges the continuance for several years of observations and measurements with a view to determine these questions.

M. Otto Struve, in a communication, May 13, 1864, states the result of his observations thus far, on the changes of distance and angle of position of the small star in reference to the large one, to be to the effect that the juxtaposition of the two stars is more probably accidental; though he does not regard this view as being yet finally established.

Meanwhile, M. Goldschmidt has recently asserted that, with an object-glass of little more than four inches aperture, he has detected not only Mr. Clark's companion star but five additional stars which he judges to possess a like relation to *Sirius*. Secchi, at *Rome*, later detected along with the former also several contiguous luminous points; but he raises the question whether these may not be illusions—such as, possibly, might arise from something in the action of the instrument itself on the light. The question of the possibility of detecting planetary systems about some of the fixed stars, first raised by Sir J. Herschel many years ago, is one of intense interest; but no conclusion in the case can as yet be drawn from the observations above mentioned.

Parallax of Minute Stars.—The supposition that the most conspicuous fixed stars were also the nearest, or, in other words, that in intrinsic magnitude and brightness the stellar bodies are nearly alike, and their apparent differences of magnitude really the effect of differences of dis-

tance—a supposition for some time questioned by certain physical explorers—appears to be in fair way of receiving an answer in the negative. M. Krüger, it appears, has been employing the excellent heliometer of Bonn upon two stars, one of the 8.9th, and the other of the 9th magnitude, in which Argelander had pointed out a large amount of proper motion—not less, in the latter case, than $1''.2$ annually. Thirty-six comparisons of the former with two other suitably placed stars, yielded a parallax of $0''.260$ —probable error, $0''.020$; and forty-five comparisons of the latter in like manner, a parallax of $0''.247$ —probable error, $0''.021$. These results, if confirmed by future measures, bring those inconspicuous objects actually nearer to us than Polaris, Arcturus, or even Sirius; and a fact of this sort must suggest very remarkable speculations as to the probable structure of the universe.

Reference may here be made to Mr. J. Wharton's article (*Amer. Jour. of Science*, September, 1865), entitled, "Speculations upon a possible Method of determining the Distance of certain variably colored Stars," this method depending on an assumed relation of successive colors of the same star to changes in its place, from a perigee to an apogee.

Herschel's Catalogue of Nebulae and Clusters of Stars.—In the year 1864 was published, as the first part of the 154th volume of the "Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society," a catalogue of nebulae and clusters of stars, by Sir J. F. W. Herschel. This catalogue embraces not less than 5,079 objects, arranged in tabular form, with the right ascension and north polar distance for January 0, 1860, and the annual precession in right ascension and north polar distance for 1880, besides ample references and a general description. Of all those objects much the larger number bear the initials of the Herschels, father and son, having been discovered, computed, and catalogued by one or the other of these distinguished astronomers. This publication is opportune, in view of the circumstance that if the University of Melbourne, Australia, secures a reflector of the highest power, one of its principal uses will be the examination and exact delineation of the numerous and wonderful objects of this class presented in the southern hemisphere. The present work includes all the now known clusters and nebulae, north and south, so arranged that the observer can at once turn his instrument directly on each, and can tell if he encounters any new object of either class.

Nebulae.—The subject of variability of nebulae received notice in the volumes of this CYCLOPÆDIA for 1862-'63; and certain new questions which the singular phenomena presented by some of these bodies had raised in the minds of astronomers, were there indicated. The results now to be chronicled are of a more definite and (in some respects) also of a more remarkable character.

Mr. F. Abbott presented to the Royal Astronomical Society, November 13, 1868, a

paper in relation to the variable star, γ Argus, and the surrounding nebula, the latter of which has been declared the largest and finest in the southern hemisphere. As the earliest instance of ascertained variation in the appearance of a nebula, he cites the fact of the change detected by Sir William Herschel, 1783–1811, in that surrounding θ Orionis, which Huyghens had delineated about the year 1656. Recently, besides M. D'Arrest, many other astronomers, including Bond, Struve, Bouillard, and Pogson, have attested the fact of such changes.

Sir J. Herschel having, when at the Cape in 1838, carefully examined γ Argus with an 18-inch reflector, found in its aspect at the time no sign of a resolution into stellar masses; but he suggests that in extensive nebulae subordinate centres of attraction may become established, and that the whole mass may in time become transformed into a number of discrete bodies, assuming ultimately the condition of a cluster of stars. Mr. Abbott, comparing the Cape description with the appearances detected in present observations (1863)—and especially in view of the fact that the latter are seen by aid of a power no higher than that of a 5-foot achromatic—concludes that the condition which Herschel had suggested as possible is, in the nebula under consideration, already in part carried out. The delineation of 1838 shows within the outlines of this nebula a vacant space somewhat in form of a dumb-bell, being compressed at the middle, but at the ends surrounded by the nebular expansion; while in the most dense part of the latter was then situated the star, γ Argus. The later observations above referred to show the open space in "the form of a crooked billet, wide in the centre and open at both ends, with γ Argus situated within the open space," and here surrounded with what appeared as stars, numerous and brilliant, some of them blue, and others ruddy in color. The apparent change of place of the star being manifestly not a real change in right ascension, the dense portion of the nebula, toward the east, must itself have receded, leaving the star without its border, while the ends of the vacant space also became open. Further, while in 1838 the star γ appeared of the first magnitude, it showed in 1863 only the sixth.

In a later paper of Mr. Abbott, before the same Society, he speaks of the "changes that are constantly taking place in the surrounding nebula of γ Argus," and he states that every new observation he makes convinces him the more that the whole nebula is breaking up into stars [Mr. Huggins, see below, might say, the appearance of stars]. The form of the open space is now different again from what it was in 1863; and the stars surrounding that known as γ present decided colors—blue, green, and red, the two former predominating—so that the telescope now shows " γ standing out sharp and clear amidst a large field full of richly-colored gems, with only a very small patch of nebulous matter."

The resolution some years since of certain nebulae, by means of telescopes of high power, into what appeared to be congeries of stars, gave rise for a time to the anticipation that all nebulae might in fact be so resolvable. Indeed, the opinion came to be expressed by some that nebulae were but immensely distant systems of suns, to which our own stellar system, with its supposed rim in the galaxy, was comparable. Now, however, it appears that the conclusions to which the telescope unaided was leading, are to be corrected by the revelations of the spectroscope: the *mathematics* of the rays, that were leading the scientific judgment astray, are to be checked by the disclosures of (what we may call) their *chemistry*. (See SPECTRUM OBSERVATIONS.) True, a resolution of some nebulae, even into actual stars, would not have proved all nebulae to possess the like constitution; and so, now, the proof by the spectroscope, in one or more instances of resolution, that the apparent stars so obtained are not real stars, does not at once establish the conclusion that no nebulae whatever are in reality star-clusters.

Messrs. Huggins and Miller having recently (1864) examined with the spectroscope the light of several nebulae, including one or more which some astronomers regarded as having been shown to be star-clusters, found that their light did not give the continuous spectrum indicative of an origin in incandescent solid or liquid matter, but a gas spectrum only, and in most cases consisting of three bright lines or bands, the principal part of the space of an ordinary spectrum being dark; while, in some instances, the third line could not be seen, and in one at least, that of the "dumb-bell" nebula in Vulpecula, only the brightest of the three lines—agreeing in position with the brightest line of *nitrogen*—was detected. It thus became desirable, as a conclusive test, to analyze the light of some nebula which was supposed to have been with certainty resolved into stars. A highly suitable instance offered itself in the great nebula of the "sword-handle" of Orion, the brighter portions of which, near the trapezium, were held, by Lord Rosse, Prof. Bond, Herschel, and others, to be distinctly separated under a powerful telescope into stars. Analyzing, now, the light from the brightest part of this nebula, near the trapezium, Mr. Huggins found it to present only the three bright lines before met with, indicating a gaseous constitution of the supposed clustering stars of this portion. On the other hand, each of the four bright stars forming the trapezium gave a continuous spectrum; while none of these gave dark absorption lines in the positions corresponding to the bright lines of the nebular spectrum, and in three of the four cases the spectrum was brighter at the position of those lines than were the nebular lines by themselves. Finally, by successive observations of its different portions, it was found that the whole of this great nebula, so far as it lies within the power of an 8-inch achromatic, emits

light identical in character, the light from one part differing from that from another in intensity only.

The real constitution, then, of this nebula, alike in its supposedly "resolved" and in its irresolvable portions, must be the same. Hence, again, the separation of part of a nebula into what appear to be stars, does not of itself prove that the bright points so obtained are *true stars*. On the contrary, these star-like points must now be regarded as being, at least in some nebulae, themselves merely gaseous bodies—denser aggregations, it would appear, of the gaseous matter of which such nebulae are at large composed; and the question has been raised whether it may not be by the continual motion of these denser masses that the apparent permanence of the general form of nebulae is maintained.

Admitting, now, the validity of the inferences just indicated, it is no longer necessary to suppose the nebulae in reference to which such conclusions hold, to be situated at so enormous distances from our system as had of late come to be believed. Some of the nebulae may be much nearer to us than has been imagined; and with this supposition the fact of changes in form in some of them (above alluded to) is not at variance, if indeed the latter does not lend to the former direct confirmation. It now becomes desirable, accordingly, to examine as to whether a *proper motion* may not be detected in some of these bodies.

In another point of view, if the nebulous expansions in the heavens be, in any cases, the visible material of stellar systems, forming or to be formed, their spectrum would in such cases be expected to give a variety of lines and groups, showing the existence of a variety of chemical elements. The three bright lines obtained by Mr. Huggins in analyzing the light of nebulae, and which have been supposed to indicate *nitrogen*, *hydrogen*, and a third substance at present unknown, could by possibility be characteristic of matter in its most primary forms. At least, a progressive formation of some sort is suggested by the presence in some nebulae of more condensed portions, and even of a nucleus; and nebulae which give a continuous spectrum, and yet show little indication of resolvability, such as the great nebula in Andromeda, may still be gaseous, and may by loss of heat or by other forces have become crowded with portions of matter in a more condensed and opaque condition.

Astronomical Works and Memoirs.—In addition to those works and papers already mentioned in this article, and in others in this volume appertaining to astronomical subjects, may here be named the following: *A Treatise on Astronomy*, by Prof. Elias Loomis, of Yale College, 338 pp., 8vo, New York, 1865; *Astronomical and Meteorological Observations made at the U. S. Naval Observatory during the Year 1862*, by Capt. J. M. Gilliss, U. S. N., Superintendent, 700 pp., 4to, Washington, 1863;

Thoughts on the Influence of Ether in the Solar System: Its Relations to the Zodiacal Light, Comets, the Seasons, and Periodical Shooting Stars, by Alexander Wilcocks, M. D., published in the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, vol. xiii., Part I., having been read before the Society named, May 20, 1864; a report *On the Right Ascension of the Pole Star as Determined from Observation*, by Mr. T. H. Safford, Assistant at the Observatory of Harvard College; and, as among papers having an astronomical bearing and read at the meetings of the National Academy of Sciences—in January, 1864—one by Prof. B. A. Gould, on the *Reduction of the Observations of Fixed Stars, made by J. J. Lepaute D'Agelet, 1788-'85, to the Equinox of 1800*; one by Prof. B. Pierce, on the *Saturnian System*; and one by Prof. S. Alexander, on *Observations of the Planet Venus near the Times of her Inferior Conjunction, September 28, 1863, and subsequently*; and also—in January, 1865—one by Prof. Pierce, on the *Tables of the Moon*.

ATMOSPHERE. It is no longer a new thought that the advance of scientific knowledge shows continually more and more how the subject-matters of the various sciences connect intimately one with another, and how the investigation of physical problems of apparently the most unlike character so often leads their explorers to a common ground and compels them to appeal to the same class of facts. Thus, the connection of auroras with magnetic phenomena of the earth's surface has come to be well established; and it is stated that observations of M. Quetelet indicate a connection also between the former and the so-called shooting stars. But further, both the phenomena of meteors and of auroras are now likely to be appealed to for the decision of such questions as those of the actual extent of an atmosphere above the earth, the constitution of its uppermost or remotest portions, and the possible existence of a diffused nebular or cosinical matter in space, beyond the limits of all the planetary atmospheres.

Auroras.—For some opinions respecting the height of auroras, &c., with an incidental notice of a pulsating or flaming aurora, see this subject in the volume for 1862. A few facts only under the specific head given, will here receive mention. An aurora of great brilliancy—notwithstanding the strong light of the moon, then nearly full—was witnessed at New Haven, on the night of August 24-3d, 1865 (*American Jour. of Science*, September). At 1^h 45^m A. M., on the 3d, the auroral lights formed a very extensive sheet; and in this, from about 18° above the horizon, the streamers showed the waving or "flaming" character—successive flashes of light quickly following each other, with interrupted courses, up toward the corona, and their angular velocity being judged to be about 90° a second. The streamers had a lateral motion in the direction the reverse of that which is most usual; namely, from west to east. The observer

whose account we quote had many years previously witnessed a bright aurora at a very early morning hour, and had observed that the upper segments of the streamers presently became of a vivid rosy hue, which extended down to about the same altitude in all. He suspected this to be the effect of sunlight striking the tops of the streamers at a height of several hundred miles above the earth's surface. Now, the aurora of August 3d, as seen at an early morning hour near and above the constellation Orion, presented the like phenomenon. The streamers here situated, which at 3^h 30^m were of a yellowish white, became at 3^h 40^m of a more intense yellow at the top, with a speedy progress downward; and this was shortly followed, in succession and in like manner, by a more glistening yellow, and then a clear dilute red or rosy color. The observations at the time, though not very accurate, would indicate about 50 miles as the height of the group now referred to. The writer further suggests that the abrupt edge or termination below, noticed in so many auroras, may perhaps indicate the "definite upper boundary of the atmosphere proper," at the transition from this lower to some secondary atmosphere, or to ethereal space.

In an article entitled "The determination of the height of Auroral Arches, from observations at one place" (*Amer. Jour. of Science*, May, 1865), Prof. H. A. Newton concludes that observed facts relative to auroras, and especially the constancy of the general form of the arch at different times and places, and its cutting the horizon at points less than 180° from each other, support the hypothesis of Hansteen, that the auroral arch is a real ring, which in its normal form is parallel to the earth's surface, and is symmetrically placed about the magnetic pole. He also concludes that different observers do not see different arches at the same time, but that the curve of the arch has a definite place in the atmosphere. He gives a table of the altitudes and amplitudes in degrees, the height in miles, &c., of twenty-eight auroras, mostly observed by Herrick and Bradley, and at New Haven; the heights range from 33 to 290 miles; average, 134 miles. The results are to be regarded as only approximately correct; but the method of observations at a single place is recommended as both an auxiliary and a check to those obtained by other methods.

Question of the Height of the Atmosphere.—Some years since, the writer of this notice insisted very earnestly and before many auditors upon the fact, evident enough in itself perhaps, that, not less than the fishes, man is the inhabitant of an ocean; the most marked differences being that the latter has an aerial instead of a watery ocean to move and live in, and is by his constitution naturally confined to existing at the bottom of his ocean, instead of rising and moving at elevations within it. And it is a pleasure now to observe, in the new and singular assiduity with which all atmospheric prob-

lems have come to be prosecuted, both in our own and in other countries, and in the important information, not only meteorological but physiological also, which is being acquired, that the inculcation of principles such as those above referred to has not been thrown away. To man, as inevitably a denizen of this so-much forgotten ocean which we call *the air*, and as by the laws of nature drawing the very conditions and energies of his life from *its* conditions and *its* activities about him and upon him, every thing calculated to throw light on the constitution, the limits, the perturbations, the materials, actions, and influences of this atmosphere, must necessarily be of the highest importance and interest.

The quite definite and constant ratio of diminution of density of our atmosphere with increase of elevation above the sea-level, as observed in ascents of high mountains and in balloons, and a consideration of the opposing action of the elastic force of the air on one hand and of gravity on the other, had led to the conclusion which was for many years generally accepted, that our atmosphere must entirely terminate—and of course, however attenuated its density may have become, still with a definite fluid surface—at a height of from 45 to 50 miles above the sea. The rapid and also very regular diminution of density of the air with increase of elevation, is still attested through Mr. Glaisher's balloon ascents, to heights until his time unprecedented; and from such data, the conclusion that the atmosphere must altogether terminate at no very great distance above the earth would seem to be inevitable. When, therefore, Prof. Loomis places the lower limits of auroras at from 46 to 50 miles, and their upper limits at those of 495 to 534 miles, we are naturally disposed to question—if, as is generally supposed, the aurora requires a material medium of some kind for its manifestation—whether there may not be, in the apparent position and plane of such auroras, and in the possible appearance of different auroral fields to different observers at the same time, circumstances which mislead the judgment, and cause a phenomenon at no great distance from the earth to be optically, and by trigonometrical measurement also, referred to spaces much more remote.

But there are, on this head, a great number of independent facts which require attention. Meteors and meteoric stones in their various forms, it is known, quite suddenly acquire at some distance above the earth—an incandescent state: they begin, continue briefly, and then cease, to emit light, and perhaps also to throw off luminous fragments. And it is equally certain that this behavior can only be explained by one circumstance; namely, that the temporary incandescence and light exhibited by these bodies must be due to their plunging for the first, at some distance or other above the earth, into a material medium dense enough to heat them, by friction and retardation of move-

ment, to whiteness; so that they become totally consumed and dissipated in this medium, or through it reach and bury themselves in the earth. And here, observers differ as to the fact of the height at which meteors begin to grow luminous; though a large proportion of the observations, and especially of those more recently made, place this height above the long-admitted limits of our air. Thus, Mr. A. S. Herschel, 1864, concludes, from a comparison of observations, that the heights of shooting stars at Rome are sensibly the same as over places where they have been most observed in northern Europe—the limits respectively of first appearance and of disappearance being 73 miles and 52 miles above the sea, with a probable error of not more than 2 or 3 miles. The average velocity of shooting stars, calculated from the same observations, he makes about 85 (more accurately 84.4) miles per second. Prof. Phillips, in his address before the British Association, 1865, says:

"Other information bearing on the constitution of the atmosphere comes to us from the auroral beams and other meteoric lights known as shooting stars. For some of these objects not only appear at heights of 10, 50, and 100 or more miles above the earth, but at the height of 50 miles it is on record that shooting stars or fire-balls have left waving trains of light, whose changes of form were in seeming accordance to varying pressure in the elevated and attenuated atmosphere."

A table of altitudes of shooting stars, supposed to include nearly all the instances published, from September 11th, 1798, to November 18th, 1863, inclusive, and prepared by Prof. H. A. Newton, appears in the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, July, 1864. Taking the more trustworthy cases, the estimated heights, for first appearance, range from 4 up to 216 miles—a large proportion of those observed since 1856 being at elevations of between 40 and 90 miles; while the estimated heights at disappearance (a few instances of heights of the middle point of the path included) range from 3 to 166 miles—a large proportion of those since 1856 being at elevations between about 80 and 75 miles.

For the shooting stars observed at Washington, Philadelphia, and other places, on the night of November 18th–14th, 1863, Mr. Newton finds a mean altitude at first appearance of 96.2 miles; at extinction, of 60.8 miles. For those observed at New Haven, Hartford, and elsewhere, August 10th–11th, 1863, he finds the respective altitudes 69.9 and 56 miles, in this agreeing quite nearly with Mr. A. S. Herschel's computations, based in part on the same instances. Thus, the November meteors would seem to occupy a region fifteen or twenty miles higher than those of August; and it is suggested that the former may be the more inflammable. Prof. Newton doubts whether any meteors really appear at a height greater than 125 or 150 miles, supposing that heights beyond these are assigned only through errors of obser-

vation. (*Amer. Jour. of Science*, September, 1865.)

Secchi has calculated the heights of a large number of meteors observed, it appears, August 5th to 10th (inclusive), 1864. His base-line is that joining Rome and Civita Vecchia, a distance of 65 kilometres (the kilometre — 1093.64 yards, nearly), and the two stations being electrically connected. The following table gives the estimated heights of 56 of these meteors:

Height.	Number.
40 to 60 kilometres.....	6
60 " 80 "	7
80 " 100 "	10
100 " 120 "	17
120 " 140 "	8
140 " 160 "	5
160 " 180 "	2
180 " 200 "	1
200 " 220 "	2
220 and higher,	8
Total,	56

Thus, 27 of these meteors—nearly one-half—were observed at heights varying from 80 to 120 kilometres (about 49.7 to 74.55 miles). Of 93 meteors in all, for which calculations were made, the mean height at first appearance comes out in round numbers 100 kilometres (about 62.18 miles), the mean height of 69 of them being 101 kilom. Fourteen others, moving in the plane passing through the two observatories, made their appearance at a height of about 93 kilom. The greatest height observed was 260 kilom. (about 161.68 miles); and many were certainly above 200 kilom., with an error at most of 30. The height of the point of extinction was about 75 kilom. (46.635 miles, nearly). M. Faye, however, in stating that the phenomena of shooting stars, fire-balls, and meteoric stones have rectified our ideas of the extent of the terrestrial atmosphere, goes beyond all the authorities thus far quoted, and declares that, judging from the phenomena named, the gaseous envelope of our planet should stretch to a height of 240 or even 300 miles.

Now, that an atmosphere which has been shown by repeated and careful observations to be reduced at a height of about $2\frac{1}{2}$, or at most of $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles above the sea-level, to a density only half that which it has at such level, should nevertheless extend to heights of more than 200—nay, even so far as 100—miles above the earth's surface, appears quite impossible. And yet, either the determinations of the heights of meteors are radically at fault, or else some material medium, and more dense than any occupying the inter-planetary spaces at large, does encompass the earth to depths as great as those above indicated. Here are apparently contradictory facts, which science cannot as yet reconcile, but to all of which it must seek to afford the correct solution. What is this material medium existing at 100 or more miles above the earth, but certainly terminating at some height above that? If it be some extremely rare mineral or nebular vapor, such as (in somewhat different forms) Biot and De la Rive have, in explanation of auroral phenomena, imagined to

exist in the inter-planetary spaces, and if at 100 miles or more beyond the earth's surface this is so far dense as to heat previously dark meteoric bodies to whiteness by its resistance, why is this mineral vapor not still more condensed near the earth, and to such quantity as readily to be detected in the air by chemical examination?

Although not offered as answering these questions, it is at least interesting to note that Dr. Reichenbach, of Vienna, led by the phenomena of *aérolites* to the theory that space generally is filled with a cosmical dust, which he supposes may sometimes become agglomerated, and sometimes reach the earth as an impalpable powder, has collected dust from the top of a high mountain, where no tools had ever been used, and having analyzed this, states that he finds it to contain almost identically the same elements as those of which meteoric stones are composed, and among which he names *nitrogen, cobalt, iron, and phosphorus*. He thinks such an invisible rain may be [in part] the source of phosphorus in soils, and so [to all higher vegetation] as necessary as aqueous rain. (*Quart. Jour. of Science*, January, 1865.) It has been suggested that the dust found by Reichenbach was probably blown by winds to the places where it was met with. The peculiar composition of the dust, such as few soils or rocks, if any, would be likely to yield, is an objection to this supposition. If the elements contained in it are found oxidized or otherwise combined, may not the dust be regarded as so much of the *ashes* of consumed meteors? Mr. H. A. Newton has, in a paper read before the National Academy of Sciences, August, 1864, but of which an abstract would not here be in place, estimated the number of meteors—the telescopic included—which daily enter our atmosphere, as not less than four hundred millions! Be they more or fewer, their *ashes must*, to some extent, pervade portions of the atmosphere, and it would appear also, reach the earth. But if the elements above named were in part found unoxidized, then, is it not at least supposable that under the conditions attending the combustion of meteoric bodies, this process may be to some extent directly attended by one of *dissociation* [see *CHYMISTRY, Ann. Cyc.*, 1863 and '65]: so that, of the matter of consumed meteors, more or less might still reach the earth in the elementary condition? At all events, it is certainly probable that soils on the earth are slowly but continually fertilized by meteoric contribution from planetary space; but it may be regarded as already reduced to a certainty that from the same source the earth itself is continually gaining minute accessions in volume and weight.

In regard to the temperature of the atmosphere at different elevations, Mr. Glaisher's observations confirm the view of Leslie, while giving more definite results [see *BAROMETRICAL*], in showing a more rapid decrease of temperature with ascent near the earth than at greater altitudes. The balloon ascents thus far report-

ed, however, were chiefly concluded during the day, and Mr. Glaisher is said to be preparing for night ascents, hoping to ascertain the rate of decrease or increase of temperature at night. There is at least a probability that some time after the sun's influence has been withdrawn, there may occur for some little distance above the earth an increase of temperature. Enough is already known to show—and the facts are of much importance in astronomical observation—that the increment of refraction cannot be altogether uniform through the successive strata of air next the earth, and that there must be special differences also in this respect between the day and night. This last point is one which every astronomical observatory should have determined for it, with a view to an increased accuracy in the results of observations. But further, three winter ascents, made December 1st and 30th, 1864, and February 27th, 1865, gave results differing greatly from those obtained in summer, and showed that the laws of atmospheric temperature vary at different seasons.

The relations of the air to the chemical composition and physiological processes of plants are considered in a paper in the *Smithsonian Report* for 1864, entitled "Vegetation and the Atmosphere." It may here be added, that M. Méné finds the quantity of carbonic acid in the atmosphere variable, this being low in the months of December and January; increasing in February, March, April, and May; diminishing from June to August; and increasing again from September to November, the maximum of this period being in October. He states that more carbonic acid is always detected during the day than during night; that there is a slight increase about noon; and that there is always more after, than before rain. For some points connected with pressure of the atmosphere, see BAROMETER.

AUSTRIA. Francis Joseph I. is still the Emperor of Austria and King of Bohemia and Hungary.

According to the latest census, taken in 1857, Austria had a population of 35,018,988, and her area is 248,551 square miles. The expenditures in the budget of 1865 were estimated at 527,781,798 florins, and the receipts at 519,799,024. The public debt, on Dec. 31, 1864, amounted to 2,600,994,469 florins.*

The strength of the army, on the peace and on the war footing, was, in July, 1865, as follows:

	Peace Footing.	War Footing.
Infantry.....	201,925	459,730
Cavalry.....	39,188	41,908
Other troops.....	39,838	87,527
Total.....	280,951	589,165

The navy consisted, in May, 1865, of 59 steamers, with 648 guns and 10,900 horsepower (exclusive of two iron-clad frigates,

which were in the course of construction), and 51 sailing-vessels, with 848 guns.

The value of the imports during the year 1864 was 280,690,150 florins, that of the exports, 339,075,100. The merchant navy consisted of 9,491 vessels, altogether of 826,200 tons. The number of merchant vessels was thus divided among the different countries of the Austrian monarchy: Goritz, Trieste, Istria, 2,538; Venecia, 1,359; Croatia, 808; Military frontier, 158; Dalmatia, 5,183.

The Imperial Austrian Parliament ("Reichsrath") is composed of a House of Lords and a House of Representatives. The House of Lords consists of the great Princes of the Imperial Family, sixty-two hereditary chiefs of noble families, the archbishops and bishops of princely rank, and forty-seven members appointed for life. The House of Deputies is composed of three hundred and forty-three deputies, chosen by the eighteen provincial diets. Hungary, Venetia, Croatia, and several other diets in the eastern part of the empire, have never yet sent delegates to the parliament.

The session of the Reichsrath, which had been opened on Nov. 14, 1864, was closed by the Archduke Ludwig Victor, a brother of the Emperor, on July 27, 1865. The closing speech assured the two houses that the Emperor thoroughly recognized the patriotic zeal and the indefatigable activity displayed by them in the consideration of so many important subjects. It expressed gratification with the consent of the Reichsrath to the new commercial and customs treaty with the States of the Zollverein. It also announced the determination of the Government to accelerate the convocation of the legal representatives of the people in the eastern portion of the empire, which, in the opinion of the Government, involved the necessity of postponing the discussion of the budget of 1866. On April 29, the Lower House of the Reichsrath, on motion of Dr. Berger, unanimously voted an address to the American people, expressing their sympathy on account of the assassination of President Lincoln, and their good wishes for the cause of the United States. The Government also expressed to the American minister at Vienna, and to the United States Government, through the Austrian representative at Washington, its deep sympathy with the American people on account of the same event.

On June 27, the Prime Minister, Von Schmerling, and the majority of the Cabinet, tendered their resignation, and, on July 27, a new Cabinet was formed, under the presidency of Count Belcredi. The change of ministry involved an important change of policy, indicating a transition from the centralizing tendencies, of which Baron Von Schmerling had been the representative, to the principle of a federation between the sections of the empire, and, consequently, a conciliatory policy toward Hungary.

This change of policy was officially announced to the country by the Imperial Rescript of

* A florin is fifty cents in American money.

September 20, suspending the validity of the fundamental laws proclaimed by the Patent of Feb. 26, 1861. The Emperor guarantees again to the empire a constitutional form of government, whose strength and significance, he asserts, should be in the free participation of all the different peoples embraced within the limits of the empire. He declares his wish to come to an understanding with the different diets, provided the terms be not incompatible with the general integrity of the empire. The rescript, which marks an important era in the political history of Austria, is as follows:

RESCRIPT OF THE EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.

TO MY PEOPLE: To maintain the power of the monarchy by a participation of all in the management of the highest questions of the State; to ensure the unity of the realm by respecting the manifoldness of its component parts, and the historical development of their several laws and rights, this was the leading idea expressed in my diploma of October 20, 1860, and which, in the welfare of my faithful subjects, will still continue to be my guide. In that diploma, the right of the different people to have a share and vote in the legislature and in the administration of the finances, sure pledges for furthering the interests both of the subject and of the different lands, was solemnly guaranteed and established irrevocably. The fundamental law for the legal representation of the empire, which was promulgated in my patent of February 26, 1861, laid down the form according to which this right was to be exercised, and in the 6th article of the said patent I announced that the pre-existing fundamental laws, as well as those then revised and those which I now publish, were, all taken together, and in their embodiment to be considered as forming the constitution of my empire. To vivify this dead form, to shape harmoniously the constitutional structure in in all its parts, was the task committed to the combined free action of all my people. I cannot but remember with warm acknowledgment the readiness with which, during a series of years, a large portion of the realm, following my behest, sent its deputed representatives to the capital of the empire, there to debate on and solve some important questions about the laws, the State, and its economy. Yet my intention, to which I still unchangeably keep, the intention of offering to the interests of the age the sure guaranty afforded by a constitutional form of government, whose strength and whose significance should lie in the free participation of all the different people in the work, has remained till now unfulfilled. A large portion of the empire, warm and patriotic as were the hearts that beat there, persisted in holding aloof from the common legislative action, endeavoring to confirm scruples about legality by acting separately, and thus finding differences of meaning in those fundamental laws which were intended in their collective form only to make up the sum of the constitution of the realm.

My duty as regent forbids me any longer to ignore a fact which hinders the realization of my intention, that of aiming to develop a free constitutional life, and which menaces also the rights of all the nations in their very foundations; but also for those lands which do not belong to the Hungarian crown, it is in the ground which at article 6 of the patent of February is designated as the constitution of the realm that the legislative rights common to all are vested, and there only. As long as the first condition for a vital embodiment of the fundamental laws, as well as a clearly discernible harmony of its parts is wanting, the great work contemplated, which would assuredly bring so many blessings, cannot become reality, the task, namely, of giving to the empire a durable constitutional form.

In order now to redeem my imperial word, in

order not to sacrifice the essence to the mere form, I have resolved to aim at coming to an understanding with the lawful representatives of my people in the eastern part of my empire, and to lay before the Hungarian and the Croatian Diet, for their acceptance, the diploma of October 20, 1860, and the fundamental laws relating to the representation of the empire, which were made known when the patent of February 26, 1861, was published. Considering, however, that it is judicially impossible to have one and the same definition a subject of debate in one part of the empire, while in other parts it is treated as an imperial law, binding for all, I find myself obliged to set aside the opinion of the law relating to the representation of the empire—at the same time positively declaring that, should the decisions of the representatives of these eastern kingdoms contain a modification of the aforesaid laws compatible with the continuance of the empire in its integrity and power, I reserve to myself the right, before pronouncing a resolution myself, to lay it before the legal representatives of the other kingdoms and countries, in order to learn and to appreciate their equally important decision. I can only regret that this unavoidable step brings with it a cessation of the constitutional labors of the lesser Reichsräth. However, the organic connection of all the principles of the law determining the united action of the Reichsräth, and the necessity for its being observed similarly by all, makes a disjoining of the law, and any thing like a mere partial maintenance of its efficiency quite impossible.

As long as the representative assembly of the empire has not met, it will be the business of my Government to take measures for those matters which cannot be deferred, and among those especially such are to be counted those which regard the financial and economic interests of the realm. Free and open, the path will, with a due observance of legitimate right, lead to mutual understanding, and what I confidently hope to find, a conciliatory spirit, too; one ready to make sacrifices, as soon as mature comprehension guides the judgment of my faithful people, to whom these imperial words are confidently addressed.

FRANCIS JOSEPH.

VIENNA, September 20, 1865.

The rescript was viewed in the German provinces as a violation of the Constitution of the empire, and therefore received with loud disapproval. Most of the other provinces, on the other hand, were jubilant. They regarded it as the beginning of a federative, instead of a centralizing policy. When the Provincial Diets met on November 23, it gave rise to animated debates. All the Diets of the German provinces adopted an address to the Emperor, requesting the reestablishment of the February Constitution. The Diets of Moravia, Bohemia, and other predominantly slavie provinces, voted an address of thanks to the Emperor for the rescript. The Emperor, on the presentation of one of the addresses in opposition, assured the deputation that he would make no further concessions to Hungary than were compatible with the interests of the whole monarchy. To the deputation of the Bohemians, he spoke of his coronation as King of Bohemia as an approaching event. The Diet of Croatia, though slavie, voted against sending an address of thanks.

The relations of the Austrian Empire to Hungary and the provinces dependent upon the Hungarian Crown, underwent, in the course of the year, important changes, for which see HUNGARY.

On January 23, the Minister of Police announced in the Lower House of the Reichsrath, that the release of all the Poles imprisoned in Austria on account of participation in the political disturbances of 1863 and 1864, had been decided upon by the Government. In February the majority of them, including the ex-dictator Langiewicz, were released. On April 18, the state of siege in Galicia was raised. An imperial decree of November 18, which was published by a proclamation of the Governor of Galicia, on November 20, ordered the release of all political prisoners arrested by the Galician authorities from the year 1863 to that time, and the dismissal of all pending trials. Another imperial decree, published December 10, extended the amnesty granted by the decree of the 18th November to those sentenced by the other Austrian judicial tribunals for complicity in the Polish insurrection.

The questions of German politics, and especially that of the duchies of Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg, continued during the year 1865 to be the subject of grave and often complicated negotiations with Prussia. The agreement between the two Powers, though sometimes threatened, was successfully maintained. Austria ceded her rights to the duchy of Lauenburg for a pecuniary consideration. As regards Schleswig-Holstein, a convention was concluded at Gastein by Herr Von Bismark and Count Blome, and signed at Salzburg by the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia.

The following are extracts from its provisions:

Art 1. The exercise of the rights conjointly acquired by the high contracting parties through the Vienna Treaty of Peace of 30th of October, 1864, will, without prejudice to the continuance of these rights of both Powers to the whole of both Duchies, be transferred, as regards the Duchy of Schleswig, to his Majesty the King of Prussia, and as regards the Duchy of Holstein, to his Majesty the Emperor of Austria.

Art 2. The high contracting Powers will propose in the Federal Diet the establishment of a German fleet, and to appoint for that purpose the harbor of Kiel as a Federal harbor. Until the execution of the Diet's resolutions referring thereto, the war vessels of both powers will use this port, and the command and police of the same will be exercised by Prussia. Prussia is authorized not only to construct the necessary fortifications for the defence of the entrance opposite Friederichsort, but also to erect marine establishments corresponding with the object of the mili-

tary port upon the Holstein shore of the bay. These fortifications and establishments are also placed under Prussian command, and the requisite Prussian naval troops and men for their garrison and guard may be quartered in Kiel and the neighborhood.

A supplementary convention to the above treaty was concluded between the two Powers relating to the garrison arrangements at Rendsburg.

On October 29th an Imperial decree appointed a new committee for the control of the public debt, consisting of the President (Prince Coloredo), the Vice-President (Councillor Taschek), and the following members: Field-Marshal Hess, Baron Rothschild, Baron Rues Refer, Herr Herbst, and Herr Winterstein. The committee is to be in direct communication with the Emperor. The decree states that this measure is adopted in consequence of the changes brought about by the September patent, and because it is the will of the Emperor that a committee, independent of the Ministry of Finance, should uninterruptedly watch over the management of the public debt until the time when a committee for this purpose can be selected by the representatives of the empire. Another Imperial decree, published on November 25th, authorized the Minister of Finance to contract a new loan, to be issued in 734,694 bonds of 500 francs or 200 florins, at the issuing price of 345 francs or 188 florins, bearing interest from the 1st of December, 1865. The bonds to bear an annual interest of 15 francs, or 10 florins, payable half-yearly, without any deduction. The repayment of the loan to be effected by the redemption of each bond at 500 francs or 200 florins, within thirty-seven years, by means of half-yearly lotteries. At every lottery an equal number of 9,928 bonds are to be drawn for the redemption; the first drawing to take place on the 1st June, 1866.

A new decree relative to the press was issued by the Minister of Justice on September 2d. The minister recommends to the Procurators-General the exercise of the law against really serious offences of the press, but a careful avoidance of all measures which might raise a suspicion that the prosecution was of a partisan character. Apart from all prejudiced opinions the Government, says the minister, will gratefully accept all well-founded criticism of their acts.

B

BADEN, a grand duchy of Germany. The reigning sovereign is Grand Duke Friederich I., born September 9, 1826; ascended the throne of Baden at the death of his father, April 24, 1852, under the title of Regent—his elder brother Ludwig suffering under mental disease. He assumed the title of Grand Duke by patent of September 5, 1856. The heir apparent is Prince Friederich Wilhelm, born July 9, 1857. The

Legislature consists of two Chambers. The Upper Chamber comprises the princes of the reigning family who are of age; the heads of ten noble families; the proprietors of hereditary landed estates, worth 800,000 florins; the Archbishop of Freiburg; the Superintendent General of the United Evangelical Church; two deputies of the Universities Heidelberg and Freiburg; and eight members, nominated by the Grand

Duke. The Second Chamber is composed of sixty-three Representatives—twenty-two for the towns and forty-one for the rural districts, who are elected for eight years, and must be called together at least once every two years. Every citizen not convicted of crime, nor receiving parish relief, has a vote.

The area of the Grand Duchy is 1,017 square miles; the population, according to the census of December 3, 1864, is 1,434,754, of whom 933,476 were Roman Catholics, 472,258 members of the United Evangelical Church, 2,554 Dissidents or Mennonites, 25,263 Jews. The receipts for the two years 1864 and 1865, were estimated at 23,786,527 florins; the expenditures at 22,044,363 florins. The public debt amounted, on January 1, 1865, to 28,160,836 florins; the railroad debt to 75,590,137 florins. The army, on the peace footing, is 7,905; on the war footing, 18,403.

BAPTISTS. The number of regular Baptists in the several States and Territories of the United States, is given in the *Baptist Almanac* for 1866, as follows:

Alabama.....	61,219	Minnesota.....	2,955
Arkansas*.....	11,841	Mississippi.....	41,610
California.....	1,935	Missouri.....	44,877
Connecticut.....	17,424	Nebraska.....	283
Delaware.....	452	New Hampshire.....	7,905
District of Columbia.....	1,180	New Jersey.....	18,746
Florida*.....	6,483	New York.....	39,074
Georgia*.....	84,567	North Carolina.....	60,532
Illinois.....	85,884	Ohio.....	32,539
Indiana.....	28,779	Oregon.....	1,372
Indian Territory.....	4,000	Pennsylvania.....	42,080
Iowa.....	12,535	Rhode Island.....	8,515
Kansas.....	1,281	South Carolina*.....	62,984
Kentucky*.....	81,533	Tennessee*.....	46,564
Louisiana*.....	10,264	Texas*.....	19,089
Maine.....	20,118	Vermont.....	7,969
Maryland.....	4,815	Virginia*.....	108,338
Massachusetts.....	35,858	Wisconsin.....	8,556
Michigan.....	18,949	New Mexico.....	49

From the States marked with a star (*) no later statistics than those of 1861 have been obtained. There were, besides, 3,244 members in the German and Dutch Baptist Churches of the United States; 600 in the Swedish, and 1,400 in the Welsh. In all, there were 592 associations; 12,702 churches; 7,867 ordained ministers, and 1,040,303 members. In Nova Scotia the Regular Baptists have 15,828 members; in New Brunswick, 8,821; in Canada, 14,756; in the West India Islands, 37,000. Total of Regular Baptists in North America, 1,116,708.

The other denominations of Baptists report the following membership:

Anti-Mission Baptists.....	50,000
Free-Will Baptists.....	56,738
Six Principles Baptists.....	8,000
Seventh-Day Baptists.....	6,796
Church of God (Winebrethrenians).....	23,800
Disciples (Campbellites).....	300,000
Tunkers.....	20,000

The anniversaries of the Baptist Societies in the northern States were held in St. Louis from May 18th to May 24th. The A. B. Missionary Union reported an income of \$153,195. It has under its patronage 20 missions, which number 469 churches and 35,000 members. The receipts of the A. B. Publication Society were

\$153,954; those of the A. B. Home Mission Society, \$122,519; those of the American and Foreign Bible Society, \$31,652. The A. B. Free Mission Society held its 22d anniversary on May 25th, at Radnor, Pa. This society has missions in Japan and Burmah, besides sustaining a number of missionaries among the freedmen of the Southern States. Most of the above societies at their anniversaries, adopted resolutions in favor of sending missionaries among the freedmen, of the abolition of slavery, and of negro suffrage. The American Baptist Publication Society, subsequently, resolved to raise a special fund of at least \$50,000, to appoint Sunday School colporteurs or missionaries to traverse the Southern States; to reorganize Sunday-schools among the whites, and starting them among the blacks.

Most of the Southern Baptist papers had been suspended during the war, but were revived after the restoration of peace. The Northern associations expressed generally, a readiness to cooperate with their Southern brethren in the fellowship of Christian labor; but they previously demanded from the latter a profession of loyalty to the Government, and they themselves deemed it necessary to repeat their former testimony against slavery. The Southern Associations that met during the year 1865, were unanimous in favor of continuing their former separate societies, and against fraternization with the Northern societies. They censured the American Baptist Home Mission Society for obtaining from the Federal Government authority to take possession of Southern church buildings, and appoint ministers to officiate in them without the consent, and against the protest of the owners and trustees of these church buildings; also, for proposing without consultation or cooperation with the churches, associations, conventions or organized boards of the Southern States, to appoint missionaries and ministers to preach and raise churches within the bounds of the Southern associations. Some of the Southern associations, like that of Virginia, consequently, advised the churches "to decline any cooperation or fellowship with any of the missionaries, ministers, or agents of the American Baptist Home Mission Society. As regards the negroes, all the Southern associations determined to make vigorous efforts to meet the increased responsibilities devolved upon Southern Christians, and to keep the negroes as far as possible "under the influence of their real friends."

The General Assembly of Kentucky, at its meeting at Covington, May 26, 1865, resolved to continue its relation as auxiliary to the Southern Baptist Convention. In Missouri, the majority of the Baptist ministers and churches decided upon the same policy, and also declined to take the oath prescribed by the new State constitution; but a minority organized a new State Convention in connection and sympathy with the northern associations.

A number of negro Baptist churches in the

Southern States separated from the Southern Associations, and either connected themselves with those of the North, or organized, with the cooperation of the Northern missionaries, independent associations. Thus there was a convention of colored Baptists in Richmond, August 11th, composed of representatives of at least seven counties; in all 12 churches, of 8,500 members, sending 40 delegates.

At a meeting of the Board of Managers of the American Baptist Missionary Union, held in New York on December 13th and 14th, it was resolved to assume the care and support of the Swedish mission; to enlarge the mission work in France and Germany, and to begin it in Italy.

A Baptist missionary in Hayti, who, for thirty-five years has been a resident on the island, reports that more than 300 natives had already been baptized and received into the little Baptist churches. There are seven churches organized on the Regular Baptists' principles, three of which have places of worship. These churches are each supplied with a teacher and a school, and an exhorter or licentiate from among themselves.

The total number of Baptist churches in England and Wales is about 2,400. Most of them are affiliated with the Baptist Union. The last annual report of the Secretary of the Union contains the following statistical statements on the Baptists in Great Britain:

"All the county and district associations in England but one, were now affiliated with the Union; and in all Great Britain and Ireland but four. Twenty churches had joined the Union during the year. The total number of churches now in connection with the Union, is 1,332; the number of Baptist churches in the kingdom being about 2,400. Returns had been obtained from 1,898 churches, and these showed a total of 198,295 members, or an excess of 23,063 over last year. This, however, was not the clear increase, as nearly 200 churches had sent a return for the first time. The associated churches reported a smaller increase of members than last year, the increase being 1,416, or an average of 1½ per church. As several of the largest Baptist churches in the kingdom sent in no report, it was believed that the actual increase of the denomination was much larger."

In Scotland, there are 97 Baptist churches and 35 ministers; membership 5,000. In Ireland there are 37 churches and 24 ministers; membership, 950.

In France, the Baptists number 6 churches, with 490 members, all former Catholics.

In Germany and Denmark, the number of churches, 1,374; of preaching stations, 1,083; of members, 11,275. Of these, 16 churches, with 12 stations and 1,678 members, are in Denmark. One church of 211 members is in Switzerland, and one with 383 members in Poland.

In Sweden there were on January 1, 1865, 9 associations, with 172 churches, 6,404 members,

2,098 children, and 203 teachers in Sunday Schools.

The Baptist denomination continues to make remarkable progress in the kingdom of Burmah. From the last annual statistical report, it appears that the total number baptized in 1864, was 941; present number of members, 14,102; pupils in schools, 2,555; churches, 252; ordained preachers, 43; unordained, 302. The theological school during the last term (13th) numbered 45 pupils. At a meeting, held on October 15, 1865, at Rangoon, another step toward an independent organization of the Burmah Baptists was taken by establishing "the Burmah Baptist Missionary Convention."

BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES. The following table presents a synopsis of the condition of the National Banks of the United States at the end of the last quarter of 1864, and each quarter of 1865:

LIABILITIES.	January 1, 1864. 64 Banks.	April 1, 1864. 67 Banks.	July 1, 1864. 128 Banks.	October 1, 1864.	January 1, 1865.
Capital paid in.....	\$185,618,574	\$215,376,038	\$235,834,538	\$268,157,206	\$408,307,246
Notes in circulation.....	66,769,275	9,590,468	181,452,138	171,237,908	218,239,280
Old circulation as State Banks.				69,766,378	43,418,276
Profit and loss.....	20,947,124	83,132,220	14,402,974	17,068,620	17,972,868
To banks and bankers.....	67,728,205	100,908,612	157,522,640	114,481,620	115,502,608
Treasury of United States.....	31,764,780	67,690,141	68,082,720	48,170,851	33,747,296
Due depositors.....	183,479,637	282,961,472	308,357,060	463,979,514	519,008,868
Miscellaneous.....	266,621	678,998	462,871	6,573,118	6,689,168
Total liabilities.....	\$512,068,666	\$711,514,989	\$1,126,453,461	\$1,800,768,074	\$1,402,450,904
RESOURCES.					
Loans and discounts.....	\$164,021,620	\$251,472,290	\$361,200,477	\$453,314,029	\$408,848,447
Due from banks.....	60,664,247	63,517,680	108,003,567	107,372,213	107,912,780
Real estate, furniture, etc.....	4,068,226	6,523,118	11,281,208	14,708,258	15,486,226
Specie and legal tender.....	77,017,444	118,608,927	177,986,196	207,080,068	204,755,911
Cash items.....	17,887,496	23,681,384	41,314,904	72,309,584	80,887,684
U. S. Bonds, 7.30 notes, etc.....	116,578,700	277,619,920	391,744,820	437,731,200	440,880,500
Bills of banks.....	14,273,128	18,710,370	21,651,827	16,247,242	20,406,442
Expense account.....	1,028,725	2,298,026	2,288,776	4,389,025	8,198,717
Overdrafts.....		981,979	1,138,266	1,894,107	1,806,662
Miscellaneous.....	3,044,275	6,099,065	14,312,860	27,684,014	10,907,675
Total resources.....	\$512,068,666	\$711,514,989	\$1,126,453,461	\$1,800,768,074	\$1,402,450,904

The following tables show the details of the condition of the National Banks of the country on January 1, 1866. They embrace capital, circulation, deposits, assets in detail, etc.

CONDITION OF THE NATIONAL BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES, JANUARY 1, 1866.

LIABILITIES.

	No. of Banks.	Capital Stock paid in.	Surplus Fund.	Notes in Circulation.	Individual Deposits.	United States Deposits.	Dividends Unpaid.	Due to National Banks.	Due to other Banks.	Profits.	State Circulation.	Other Items.	Aggregate.
Maine.....	61	\$8,888,000	\$947,157	\$5,088,715	\$5,514,918	\$145,618	\$198,009	\$170,492	\$584,138	\$519,929	\$1,584,677	...	\$28,182,651
New Hampshire.....	88	4,680,000	157,456	2,882,144	1,449,240	428,134	68,919	3,001	55,168	...	970,972	...	10,964,079
Vermont.....	32	5,040,013	108,896	2,618,675	1,039,345	192,016	54,873	2,873	80,425	2,664,498	861,105	...	11,988,115
Massachusetts.....	163	87,151,000	8,478,896	96,168,510	16,690,215	1,880,166	246,901	684,928	222,460	2,164,188	4,541,414	...	131,068,125
Boston.....	45	42,580,000	6,122,896	22,162,016	9,271,788	604,884	68,989	12,868,111	1,880,468	2,549,159	1,470,443	...	40,140,968
Rhode Island.....	61	9,158,500	916,068	19,840,460	6,186,995	844,298	260,829	2,171,068	709,895	881,261	2,641,256	...	128,510,217
Connecticut.....	60	84,288,500	2,002,556	19,840,460	11,271,941	684,785	621,468	2,171,068	1,881,117	1,023,801	4,215,191	...	128,510,217
New York.....	240	71,683,250	11,897,584	80,001,033	42,068,360	2,069,969	2,464,109	52,194,920	18,085,484	7,182,449	9,408,664	...	366,907,190
New York.....	61	71,683,250	11,897,584	80,001,033	42,068,360	2,069,969	2,464,109	52,194,920	18,085,484	7,182,449	9,408,664	...	366,907,190
Albany.....	8	8,000,000	1,288,653	2,116,114	181,060,561	1,060,382	64,273	1,810,460	600,171	1,832,898	744,038	...	11,102,788
New Jersey.....	54	10,926,850	1,931,479	8,533,289	8,315,168	198,296	141,807	1,231,681	305,100	784,583	860,771	...	21,890,409
Pennsylvania.....	133	92,730,000	2,825,040	10,222,965	12,091,928	1,492,249	117,969	1,994,009	825,165	1,402,200	6,151,279	...	71,897,006
Philadelphia.....	22	13,297,100	418,156	1,070,997	87,260,368	1,499,453	79,679	6,719,713	674,191	1,241,709	868,880	...	19,261,898
Pittsburg.....	16	1,400,000	1,128,121	5,501,975	8,156,629	213,483	42,271	468,388	238,469	1,091,968	8,675,048	...	29,240,119
Delaware.....	11	2,400,000	288,139	888,860	1,221,947	146,616	6,842	171,805	55,278	110,222	214,291	...	7,196,853
Maryland.....	19	3,400,000	300,975	820,920	2,400,149	...	41,915	228,424	70,516	161,878	738,191	...	1,184,795
Virginia.....	12	10,173,500	1,073,840	8,065,182	12,168,562	464,448	481,228	1,283,444	240,288	421,832	2,752,669	...	83,198,160
West Virginia.....	19	1,312,500	4,785	1,064,182	8,168,973	464,019	8,000	181,600	800,409	191,870	4,122,649
North Carolina.....	2	2,142,000	55,628	998,415	2,473,941	123,181	6,568	118,326	89,496	92,968	21,028	...	6,125,422
Georgia.....	9	188,250	1,066	68,000	85,901	57,780	...	89,969	817	64,663	1,821,291
Alabama.....	9	800,000	964,801	57,945	821,066
Mississippi.....	2	200,000	276,578	678,878	...	1,640	...	28,244	8,670,688
Louisiana.....	2	720,000	27,092	214,000	6,100,978	662,221	11,719	79,410	88	180,971	8,670,688
Texas.....	120	15,158,150	115,688	11,882,407	14,546,202	1,631,711	68,125	409,123	489,486	581,478	48,183,663
Cleveland.....	6	2,000,000	60,146	5,044,000	2,510,824	1,922,686	1,163	188,390	27,530	298,109	13,924,082
Cincinnati.....	8	2,000,000	845,411	5,044,000	2,510,824	1,922,686	1,163	188,390	27,530	298,109	13,924,082
Indiana.....	69	12,061,000	457,511	2,811,900	9,541,719	2,811,900	8,203	2,721,283	861,625	158,820	13,924,082
Illinois.....	60	6,026,000	297,501	4,571,473	9,541,719	1,022,507	88,963	88,929	188,667	711,566	13,924,082
Chicago.....	12	2,520,000	218,618	2,521,990	6,026,000	1,988,222	2,852	1,988,388	694,650	87,410	4,400	...	13,924,082
Michigan.....	59	8,250,710	16,818	1,688,101	2,543,641	1,988,222	2,852	1,988,388	694,650	87,410	4,400	...	13,924,082
Detroit.....	4	2,520,710	170,880	1,688,101	2,543,641	1,988,222	2,852	1,988,388	694,650	87,410	4,400	...	13,924,082
Wisconsin.....	81	2,520,710	170,880	1,688,101	2,543,641	1,988,222	2,852	1,988,388	694,650	87,410	4,400	...	13,924,082
Milwaukee.....	18	1,800,000	80,976	1,115,475	1,115,475	592,454	486	201,995	70,188	25,390	191,071	...	9,468,989
Minnesota.....	10	1,800,000	80,976	1,115,475	1,115,475	592,454	486	201,995	70,188	25,390	191,071	...	9,468,989
Iowa.....	8	2,000,000	76,596	2,553,282	1,684,468	516,092	5,860	61,593	58,989	248,484	114,178	...	11,965,843
Kansas.....	10	1,442,143	19,151	1,115,475	1,115,475	592,454	486	201,995	70,188	25,390	191,071	...	9,468,989
Kentucky.....	7	1,000,000	75,279	647,140	1,283,102	974,172	1,995,305
Missouri.....	10	1,442,143	19,151	1,115,475	1,115,475	592,454	486	201,995	70,188	25,390	191,071	...	9,468,989
St. Louis.....	9	1,000,000	75,279	647,140	1,283,102	974,172	1,995,305
Washington.....	7	1,000,000	75,279	647,140	1,283,102	974,172	1,995,305
District of Columbia.....	1	2,570,000	568,511	1,121,518	1,115,475	18,394	1,051	3,310	6,866	14,985	80,907	...	12,463,579
Nebraska.....	5	1,450,000	41,096	644,936	5,561,689	73,928	73,408	1,237,369	670,454	276,081	8,464,192
Colorado Territory.....	1	150,000	128,596	1,107,985	4,380,593	801,166	20,900	186,489	4,710	176,866	8,464,192
Total U. States.....	1,579	\$408,357,940	\$40,000,970	\$218,389,580	\$118,408,988	\$29,747,286	\$5,645,643	\$14,100,074	\$38,798,584	\$28,972,468	\$45,412,970	...	\$1,409,480,964

CONDITION OF THE NATIONAL BANKING ASSOCIATIONS, JANUARY 1, 1896.

ASSETS.

	Loans and Discounts.	Overdrafts.	Real Estate, Furniture and Fixtures.	Expense Account.	Prepaid.	Remittances and other Cash Items.	Due from Nat'l Banks.	Due from other Banks.	U.S. Bonds to secure Circulation.	Other U.S. Bonds and Securities.	Bills of other Banks.	Specie.	Other Lawful Money.	Other Items.
Maine.....	\$8,700,800	\$3,418	\$130,950	\$17,092	\$44,854	\$262,609	\$2,025,008	\$38,072	\$7,068,950	\$2,592,150	\$318,977	\$40,273	\$1,381,069	\$23,006
New Hampshire.....	8,195,885	4,095	95,780	20,221	141,878	141,878	659,160	9,008	4,405,000	1,281,700	158,448	9,819	551,080	92,600
Vermont.....	2,895,181	66,418	87,960	42,645	66,781	66,781	892,190	77,315	5,147,000	1,881,600	118,517	27,997	474,619	73,875
Massachusetts.....	88,185,575	67,128	673,709	185,167	121,944	858,068	7,080,068	278,127	94,110,650	9,140,800	687,906	171,156	4,988,107	388,980
Rhode Island.....	88,548,089	74,516	841,114	277,677	75,066	7,662,185	6,110,067	548,687	97,854,520	10,815,800	2,092,281	20,190,047	1,588,000	608,000
Rhode Island.....	19,118,293	52,368	923,247	77,894	152,608	898,516	2,988,516	144,590	11,509,800	1,201,800	919,009	17,007	1,588,000	158,297
Connecticut.....	22,705,988	48,306	983,467	108,005	694,818	694,818	6,567,719	578,025	17,415,000	6,514,400	490,000	231,631	2,556,391	518,694
New York.....	60,694,434	865,588	1,432,086	880,215	2,854,727	11,458,454	11,458,454	1,621,590	27,143,850	19,201,850	1,569,229	866,479	7,958,987	7,958,987
New York.....	129,048,438	159,867	4,717,618	888,898	154,419	67,068,285	8,099,950	2,844,286	38,543,500	80,394,450	8,342,861	10,499,855	66,177,091	8,972,692
New York.....	6,148,431	20,591	249,840	11,660	68,848	68,848	4,948,962	70,391	1,998,100	3,908,500	200,988	25,411	1,964,612	455,911
New Jersey.....	13,997,257	67,910	400,164	194,603	97,480	707,482	4,946,505	864,587	4,454,700	3,508,500	888,690	199,483	3,400,562	489,114
Pennsylvania.....	28,985,809	127,025	628,080	250,869	218,450	711,847	6,398,824	1,273,316	22,390,850	11,800,550	1,845,801	150,019	6,959,447	675,038
Philadelphia.....	10,738,942	7,217	585,110	152,069	184,518	911,518	1,111,775	1,677,555	9,817,000	1,788,650	1,015,651	298,201	17,971,000	908,895
Pittsburgh.....	10,478,988	81,190	861,848	98,493	112,587	215,011	2,081,782	1,092,525	7,808,000	2,968,750	689,081	94,426	8,876,875	10,000
Delaware.....	1,864,421	4,688	55,288	28,266	5,750	50,679	207,578	28,706	1,292,050	199,800	53,498	4,998	285,719	100,157
Maryland.....	2,569,855	13,771	85,604	24,568	19,504	99,265	470,587	140,547	1,916,500	942,800	100,315	115,700	441,068	140,798
Baltimore.....	14,625,458	9,468	804,738	37,282	146,910	1,727,282	1,727,282	140,547	5,099,500	8,042,800	1,509,341	705,000	4,194,779	280,751
Virginia.....	2,091,166	58,228	110,558	41,286	805,878	805,878	404,766	189,676	1,291,200	77,850	193,871	803,359	600,924	92,286
West Virginia.....	1,781,635	17,095	94,985	19,944	26,302	408,710	428,710	181,377	1,088,950	888,550	108,941	9,006	687,741	8,000
North Carolina.....	92,296	3,308	2,872	2,872	21,428	21,428	21,428	10,063	184,000	55,550	57,118	83,774	859,489
Georgia.....	368,874	1,900	1,900	11,897	8,553	77,128	77,128	156,481	702,000	50,000	284,858	7,718	859,489
Alabama.....	242,965	444	790	14,599	1,566	225,064	455,921	150,105	243,000	119,500	15,288	80,152	482,892
Mississippi.....	11,100	847	12,927	1,750	180,209	1,451,010	54,550	400,000	272,950	108,251	238,226	5,107,890
Louisiana.....	645,138	28,599	12,927	943	7,222	2,861,149	108,212	100,000	111,510	11,510	90,250	104,600
Texas.....	17,520	241	12,927	1,750	180,209	1,451,010	54,550	400,000	272,950	108,251	238,226	5,107,890
Ohio.....	13,587,010	76,818	377,064	94,077	124,650	461,810	2,861,149	108,212	14,170,450	5,251,750	672,216	8,311	6,046,015	961,371
Cleveland.....	2,700,760	8,114	81,824	10,158	20,688	290,559	860,138	79,790	2,071,500	765,950	298,077	8,311	9,7441
Cincinnati.....	5,583,000	100	119,482	55,412	1,184	125,811	1,451,277	205,106	8,692,000	3,278,200	445,142	81,028	3,875,902	108,581
Indiana.....	10,692,901	87,160	229,592	90,005	71,864	154,646	1,455,868	455,166	11,914,700	3,994,550	810,765	41,771	4,580,942	184,646
Illinois.....	6,455,458	107,348	279,966	94,065	62,046	294,608	1,779,678	328,068	5,732,250	2,112,950	271,297	207,277	2,903,273	88,682
Chicago.....	6,060,881	84,900	80,116	111,820	130,719	484,907	1,644,785	189,504	4,442,450	618,900	1,266,651	82,970	3,218,112	125,023
Michigan.....	2,949,556	47,698	128,898	84,972	22,600	116,179	608,751	91,667	2,596,900	746,100	90,806	2,282	988,579	192,023
Detroit.....	2,060,546	8,337	59,915	8,337	1,062	53,997	684,592	45,441	947,000	601,300	60,806	6,836	750,552	192,500
Wisconsin.....	1,548,066	49,367	104,979	18,555	61,087	74,868	45,441	174,218	1,975,050	658,850	87,752	18,048	1,006,508	38,985
Milwaukee.....	1,880,544	4,925	27,009	8,739	5,620	262,017	827,718	88,788	675,000	867,150	43,815	7,292	662,712	17,000
Minnesota.....	1,210,723	87,880	49,445	28,425	38,425	73,818	160,370	119,949	1,391,000	654,000	68,500	23,491	588,001	82,525
Iowa.....	3,438,176	50,015	107,456	43,611	37,908	138,811	654,120	264,717	1,061,600	1,254,700	250,449	53,497	2,894,130	190,459
Kansas.....	201,564	10,887	7,792	8,664	602	11,724	665,877	9,111	152,000	425,700	71,688	8,202	306,430
Kentucky.....	1,478,566	36,108	66,576	8,262	25,849	8,426	121,046	121,046	1,317,000	425,700	71,688	8,202	306,430
Louisville.....	23,707	8,792	23,707	8,792	23,707	8,792	121,046	121,046	1,317,000	425,700	71,688	8,202	306,430
Missouri.....	276,956	3,738	23,707	8,792	23,707	8,792	121,046	121,046	1,317,000	425,700	71,688	8,202	306,430
St. Louis.....	1,915,447	28,289	221,908	71,644	48,472	85,770	1,006,500	1,864,450	1,864,450	1,864,450	1,864,450	1,864,450	1,864,450	1,864,450
Tennessee.....	2,283,273	10,661	185,184	22,124	49,487	71,011	1,847,769	80,925	1,295,000	8,054,550	127,424	8,123	2,098,860	29,998
District of Columbia.....	172,451	1,880	20,167	7,574	1,452	10,576	238,719	53,186	70,000	78,000	80,000	1,022	181,859
Nebraska Territory.....
Colorado Territory.....
Total In U. States.....	\$498,848,447	\$1,904,662	\$15,488,296	\$2,423,922	\$39,857,685	\$98,254,561	\$14,058,229	\$298,876,850	\$142,008,500	\$20,406,442	\$16,909,268	\$17,846,545	\$17,438,848

BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES AT THE CLOSE OF THE YEAR 1865, INCLUDING THOSE ORGANIZED UNDER THE NATIONAL BANK ACT, AND THOSE UNDER STATE CHARTERS.

STATES.	No. of Nat. Banks.	No. of State Banks.	Total Banks.	National Bank Capital.	State Bank Capital.	Total Capital.
Maine.....	61	6	67	\$8,655,000	\$625,000	\$9,510,000
New Hampshire.....	38	18	56	4,685,000	1,872,000	6,007,000
Vermont.....	32	10	42	5,540,012	858,000	6,398,012
Massachusetts.....	207	1	208	79,607,000	100,000	79,707,000
Rhode Island.....	61	94	85	19,788,550	8,558,000	28,346,550
Connecticut.....	90	8	88	24,288,960	2,016,900	26,305,860
New York.....	805	*118	418	114,992,960	*20,486,000	135,478,960
New Jersey.....	54	16	70	10,988,850	2,805,000	13,293,850
Pennsylvania.....	198	18	216	46,952,150	2,790,000	49,742,150
Delaware.....	11	5	16	1,400,495	750,000	2,180,495
Maryland.....	32	8	40	12,640,202	2,500,000	15,140,202
Virginia.....	16	16	1,812,550	1,812,550
West Virginia.....	11	3	14	2,143,080	454,000	2,627,080
North Carolina.....	2	2	168,250	168,250
Georgia.....	5	5	800,000	800,000
Alabama.....	8	2	5	801,000	1,000,000	1,801,000
California.....	1	1	2,000,000	2,000,000
Illinois.....	73	9	87	11,045,000	1,600,000	11,645,000
Indiana.....	69	10	79	12,567,000	1,100,000	13,667,000
Iowa.....	41	41	8,497,000	8,497,000
Kansas.....	8	8	260,000	260,000
Kentucky.....	14	40	54	2,642,142	11,500,000	14,142,142
Louisiana.....	2	5	7	755,000	14,000,000	4,755,000
Michigan.....	40	40	4,775,910	4,775,910
Missouri.....	14	20	34	8,839,000	8,018,000	11,907,000
Minnesota.....	118	3	16	1,590,000	150,000	1,650,000
Ohio.....	33	8	141	21,155,159	1,079,000	22,284,159
Mississippi.....	1	1	50,000	50,000
Tennessee.....	9	3	12	1,270,000	1800,000	1,570,000
Wisconsin.....	36	19	54	2,868,588	650,000	3,518,588
District of Columbia.....	6	2	8	1,550,000	800,000	1,650,000
Nebraska Territory.....	2	2	150,000	150,000
Colorado Territory.....	1	1	200,000	200,000
Texas.....	1	1	149,000	149,000
	1,579	851	1,980	\$408,157,256	\$65,521,000	\$471,878,256

* October, 1865.

† Partly estimated.

The National Banking System of the United States.—The first act of Congress to establish a general banking system was passed February 25, 1863. Another was passed June 3, 1864, under which law there were in operation, on 1st January, 1866, 1,579 banks, with an aggregate capital of \$403,857,346, and an aggregate circulation of \$213,239,530. This act, now in force, provides that the aggregate circulation of the banks under the law shall not exceed \$300,000,000. 2. There is no limit as to the number of banks. 3. Places with a population of 6,000 or less may have banks with a capital not less than \$50,000; those with a population between 6,000 and 50,000 must have a capital not less than \$100,000. Those over 50,000 population must have a capital not less than \$200,000. 4. Each bank must deposit with the United States Treasury bonds to the extent of one-third at least of its capital (and not less than \$50,000 in any case) as security for creditors. 5. Each bank reports its condition quarterly to the Comptroller of the Currency.

Section 31 of the Bank Act provides that "Associations in the cities of St. Louis, Louisville, Chicago, Detroit, Milwaukee, New Orleans, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Pittsburg, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Boston, New York, Albany, Leavenworth, San Francisco, and Washington City (Charleston and Richmond), must keep on hand, in lawful money of the United States, an amount equal to twenty-five (25) per

cent. of their circulation and deposits; all others an amount equal to fifteen per cent. Three-fifths of this fifteen (15) per cent. may consist of balances due to the association from other associations (approved by the Comptroller) in the cities named (a failure for thirty days to maintain such a reserve fund may produce the appointment of a receiver by the Comptroller).

The following table exhibits the number of banks under the Act in each of the cities selected as a place of redemption, with the capital and circulation of each:

Capital and Circulation of the National Banks in the Cities selected as points of redemption.

NAME OF CITY.	No. of Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
New York.....	57	\$74,409,700	\$21,154,114
Boston.....	45	42,550,000	32,116,216
Philadelphia.....	29	15,292,150	7,670,997
Pittsburg.....	16	7,900,000	5,451,875
Baltimore.....	18	10,191,955	8,668,748
Chicago.....	12	4,950,000	8,737,896
Cincinnati.....	8	4,000,000	2,951,809
St. Louis.....	7	8,879,000	1,172,815
Albany.....	8	3,000,000	1,457,896
Cleveland.....	5	2,000,000	1,704,399
Washington.....	5	1,450,000	1,107,985
Detroit.....	4	1,525,710	436,816
Louisville.....	4	1,000,000	647,140
Milwaukee.....	5	850,000	586,475
Totals of 14 cities...	218	\$172,498,545	\$78,964,619
All others.....	1,861	280,588,901	129,274,911
Total U. S., Jan., 1866	1,579	\$408,857,346	\$218,239,530

BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES.

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THE NATIONAL BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE BANK ACT.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Appointments by Comptroller of Currency, according to representative population.	Appointments by Secretary of Treasury, according to capital and other sources.	Aggregate Capital.	Circulation.	STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Appointments by Comptroller of Currency, according to representative population.	Appointments by Secretary of Treasury, according to capital and other sources.	Aggregate Capital.	Circulation.
Maine.....	\$3,000,000	\$2,415,000	\$5,415,000	\$5,088,715	Kentucky.....	\$5,520,000	\$4,980,000	\$10,500,000	\$1,466,540
N. Hampshire..	1,557,000	1,755,000	3,312,000	2,892,144	Tennessee.....	5,801,000	5,465,000	11,266,000	644,955
Vermont.....	1,504,500	1,485,000	2,989,500	3,613,875	Louisiana.....	8,281,000	7,300,000	15,581,000	214,000
Massachusetts..	5,680,000	15,915,000	21,795,000	43,890,127	Nebraska Ter'y.	183,500	45,000	228,500	46,500
Rhode Island...	884,000	3,960,000	4,794,000	7,427,480	Colorado Ter'y.	198,500	80,000	278,500	69,500
Connecticut....	2,197,500	5,025,000	7,222,500	12,890,850	Mississippi.....	3,780,000	1,485,000	5,265,000
New York.....	13,588,500	34,985,000	53,473,500	42,914,762	Georgia.....	4,950,500	4,470,000	9,420,500
New Jersey....	3,210,000	3,480,000	6,690,000	5,555,299	North Carolina..	4,741,500	2,805,000	7,546,500	58,000
Pennsylvania...	18,582,500	12,645,000	31,227,500	30,045,805	South Carolina..	3,881,000	4,185,000	8,066,000
Maryland.....	3,282,000	3,825,000	7,107,000	4,489,663	Arkansas.....	2,079,000	645,000	2,724,000
Delaware.....	585,500	556,000	1,090,500	768,660	Alabama.....	4,605,000	2,820,000	7,425,000	27,000
Dist. Columbia	856,500	300,000	656,500	69,830	Utah Territory...	192,000	45,000	237,000
Virginia.....	1,044,135	Washington Ter.	62,500	30,000	92,500	1,107,985
W. Virginia..	7,624,500	5,695,000	13,519,500	996,415	Oregon.....	250,500	120,000	370,500
Ohio.....	11,173,500	6,450,000	17,623,500	16,488,407	California.....	1,695,000	1,300,000	2,995,000
Indiana.....	6,450,000	3,165,000	9,615,000	9,241,975	Nevada Ter'y....	83,000	15,000	98,000
Illinois.....	8,178,000	3,660,000	11,838,000	8,289,069	Arizona.....
Michigan.....	5,565,500	1,685,000	7,250,500	2,149,417	New Mexico.....	396,000	90,000	486,000
Wisconsin.....	3,706,500	2,505,000	6,211,500	2,148,496	Texas.....	2,954,000	975,000	3,929,000
Iowa.....	3,223,500	1,185,000	4,408,500	2,285,582	Florida.....	670,500	285,000	955,500
Minnesota.....	810,000	240,000	1,050,000	1,115,770	Dakota.....	12,000	10,000	22,000
Kansas.....	611,500	193,000	644,500	114,500					
Missouri.....	5,646,000	3,765,000	9,411,000	1,280,018					
					Total.....	149,988,500	149,970,000	299,958,500	213,289,580

THE BANKS OF CANADA, JANUARY, 1866.

NAME OF BANK.	CAPITAL.		LIABILITIES.				
	Cash authorized by act.	Capital paid up.	Promissory notes in circulation not bearing interest.	Balances due other banks.	Cash Deposits not bearing interest.	Cash Deposits bearing interest.	Total Liabilities.
Bank of Montreal.....	\$6,000,000 00	\$6,000,000 00	\$8,887,756 00	56,873 54	\$6,218,104 76	\$4,787,573 89	\$14,995,187 69
Quebec Bank.....	3,000,000 00	1,466,815 00	445,549 00	172,150 52	450,899 87	584,457 97	1,642,057 46
Bank of Upper Canada.	4,000,000 00	1,839,287 00	854,225 00	142,998 08	542,769 86	1,680,046 48	3,820,084 87
Commercial Bank.....	4,000,000 00	4,000,000 00	1,851,759 00	23,410 17	1,368,854 84	1,660,021 22	4,924,044 73
City Bank.....	1,200,000 00	1,200,000 00	422,861 00	5,894 65	489,105 47	487,585 91	1,800,727 08
Core Bank.....	1,000,000 00	800,280 00	748 781 00	4,345 96	627,164 03	585,570 25	1,865,561 29
Bank of British North America.....	4,866,666 00	4,866,666 00	1,180,066 00	9,008 00	953,728 00	1,914,436 00	4,066,238 00
Banque du Peuple.....	2,000,000 00	1,598,985 00	69,264 00	13,758 49	824,740 14	231,491 10	650,238 73
Nagara District Bank..	400,000 00	277,229 70	161,016 00	508 48	183,282 81	105,463 67	453,750 86
Molson's Bank.....	1,000,000 00	1,000,000 00	146,462 00	71,508 83	446,237 31	460,137 71	1,124,290 85
Bank of Toronto.....	2,000,000 00	800,000 00	980,597 00	10,700 50	404,606 74	770,540 53	2,175,724 77
Ontario Bank.....	2,000,000 00	1,861,000 00	1,364,005 00	55,064 83	1,040,819 05	610,042 28	3,069,451 11
Eastern Townships B'k.	400,000 00	302,418 00	62,987 00	6,949 50	46,135 92	68,640 60	198,769 11
Banque Nationale.....	1,000,000 00	1,000,000 00	186,966 00	22,734 84	175,418 11	178,807 68	566,821 63
Banque Jacques Cartier.	1,000,000 00	658,180 00	92,890 00	1,445 81	280,945 12	299,974 08	664,058 01
Mercantile Bank.....	2,000,000 00	704,334 00	90,916 00	66,529 02	193,324 10	327,990 00	617,733 12
Royal Canadian Bank..	2,000,000 00	243,541 74	823,838 00	4,394 15	225,458 56	26,905 86	550,186 57
Totals.....	37,566,666 00	28,986,237 44	12,805,363 00	696,701 86	14,272,577 74	14,855,684 78	42,130,177 83

ASSETS.

NAME OF BANK.	Coin and Bullion.	Landed or other property of the Bank.	Government securities.	Promissory Notes or Bills of other banks.	Balances due from other banks.	Notes and Bills Discounted.	Other Debts not included above.	Total Assets.
Bank of Montreal.....	\$ 1,745,363 72	400,000 00	8,579,066 67	302,896 25	3,742,956 18	10,855,747 09	624,332 13	21,660,802 69
Quebec Bank.....	282,690 73	90,673 34	148,433 37	14,575 06	583,652 55	1,764,407 19	442,188 70	3,236,531 75
Bank of Upper Canada.	245,229 68	1,515,076 63	190,696 66	60,153 66	62,607 08	2,717,121 64	940,854 70	5,816,399 69
Commercial Bank.....	355,493 21	329,570 55	400,000 00	124,475 16	919,024 09	6,695,049 46	868,294 75	9,321,911 55
City Bank.....	294,073 54	85,000 00	169,468 34	88,950 63	103,606 66	1,762,872 35	177,812 63	2,627,774 19
Core Bank.....	268,972 12	60,636 75	82,733 33	64,249 68	201,722 68	1,616,057 05	191,336 35	2,510,907 91
Bank of B. N. A.....	522,885 00	194,667 00	966,906 00	123,842 00	9,867 00	4,761,686 00	297,884 00	6,818,181 00
Banque du Peuple.....	144,666 00	50,647 99	159,928 71	38,767 39	62,346 48	1,898,188 44	156,384 05	2,466,482 12
Nagara District Bank..	60,676 66	12,579 72	46,730 03	20,709 64	58,402 40	447,318 64	87,407 01	784,114 10
Molson's Bank.....	92,982 74	127,890 13	107,533 32	39,556 84	21,426 62	1,797,116 45	135,940 99	2,841,916 02
Bank of Toronto.....	767,742 39	56,579 78	97,280 00	65,096 76	266,954 58	3,349,873 11	67,930 96	3,176,730 88
Ontario Bank.....	552,417 16	138,189 09	127,282 70	189,367 64	511,735 61	3,258,292 69	109,871 19	4,227,156 88
Eastern Townships B'k.	32,370 60	4,500 00	44,480 00	25,148 85	49,827 95	376,434 94	5,000 00	566,781 41
Banque Nationale.....	101,295 76	29,500 00	114,500 00	116,704 95	1,287,732 94	21,560 60	1,665,514 23
Banque Jacques Cartier.	66,981 80	1,000 00	86,140 00	38,405 00	1,374,000 25	1,568,526 81
Mercantile Bank.....	54,355 11	87,686 86	50,000 00	116,743 43	162,462 56	996,860 97	664,058 01	1,888,513 73
Royal Canadian Bank..	160,677 68	22,082 49	88,643 89	82,232 31	621,969 56	13,040 77	889,616 60
Totals.....	5,823,052 89	3,006,297 34	17,981,511 58	1,384,523 01	7,214,526 18	44,425,696 85	3,569,919 88	72,247,626 14

BAROMETER. Some points relative to uses of the barometer, especially for the measurement of heights and the foretelling of weather changes, will be found considered in the volume of this *CYCLOPEDIA* for 1862, under the titles **BAROMETER** and **METEOROLOGY**. The present notice will be confined chiefly to an account of certain results, practical and theoretical, obtained by use of the instrument, and also of certain recently constructed forms of it, in particular those of the self-registering class. The reader is referred also to the article **ATMOSPHERE**, in this volume.

It may here be briefly mentioned that, a paper having appeared in the 28th volume of the *Philosophical Magazine* (1864), from the pen of Mr. Charles Packe, asserting a discrepancy between the barometric pressures corresponding to the French and the English boiling-points, and attributing the larger part of this to a supposed difference in the scales themselves, arising through the difference of the standard temperatures—0° Centigrade, and 62° Fahrenheit—of the units of length adopted by the two nations, Mr. William Mathews replies, dissenting from those views, and, while admitting that the metrical scale is not always properly graduated, claims that where it is so, the readings of the French barometer-scale, if reduced by Guyot's Tables—in which millimetres at 0° C. are directly expressed in parts of the inch at 62° F.—must coincide exactly with those of the scale usual wherever the English inch is taken as the unit. Mr. J. E. Blackwell, England, patented, about the beginning of 1864, an improved aneroid barometer, the peculiar feature of which is that each instrument includes four or more chambers, instead of a single one as in the earlier forms; the connection of the springs within these chambers with the index is such that inaccuracies of action in any one of the chambers is compensated by the action of the others.

Correction for Temperature, in the Measurement of Heights.—In the journal above quoted, for August, 1865 (vol. xxx.), appears a paper which was read before the Royal Society in May of the same year, by Mr. Alexander J. Ellis, entitled, "On the corrections for Latitude and Temperature in Barometric Hypsometry, with an improved form of Laplace's formula," and in which the subjects named are very minutely and fully discussed.

In the part of this paper devoted to the subject of temperature, occurs the most concise expression the writer of this notice has met with, of the results in the given respect of Mr. Glaisher's observations. These, it is stated, indicate that, under a *clear* or nearly clear sky, there is a fall of about 5° F. for each of the first 4 inches of depression of the barometer; then of about 4°·2 per inch, from the 5th to the 13th inch; and about 4°·5 from the 14th to the 16th inch; while, under a *cloudy* sky, we may expect on an average a fall of very nearly 4° F. for each inch of depression of the barometer—

the 1st inch, however, and the 11th to the 16th, being accompanied with a slightly more rapid fall of temperature. Such may therefore be regarded as, in the given latitude and climate at least, and under the circumstances named, the normal alteration of temperature with height.

In view especially of the different rates of variation (with increasing height) of the barometer and thermometer, or, in other words, of the deviations of the temperatures from a strictly uniform law, the conclusion is arrived at that, in determining altitudes by the barometer, it is best to proceed by several partial heights, each not exceeding 3,000 feet, and also to take fresh observations whenever the temperature has been found to alter abnormally. Mr. Ellis urges that there should be two ascending parties, one for each variable station, and each of which should be able to signal to the other; while a stationary observer at the lowest station would serve as a check on the other two.

Barometric Observations in the Arctic Regions.—The 13th volume (1863) of the *Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge* contains a paper of great length, entitled, "Meteorological Observations in the Arctic Seas," &c., these having been made by Sir F. L. McClintock, on board the yacht "Fox," in Baffin Bay and Prince Regent's Inlet, 1857-'58-'59; and their reduction and discussion having been accomplished at the expense of the Smithsonian Institution, by Mr. Charles A. Schott. The paper is in three parts, the first treating of temperatures, and the second of the phenomena of arctic winds and storms, including the barometrical curves for certain storms.

In the third part, are presented tables of 4-hourly readings of the aneroid barometer, those used in the discussion of the subject, extending from September 1st, 1857, to August 31st, 1859, and corresponding to latitudes varying from 60° to 75°·3, N., and longitudes of from 53°·7 to 94°·4, W.; and also of the marine mercurial barometer, September 20, 1857, to April 16, 1858, corresponding to latitudes of from 69°·4 to 75°·2, N., and longitudes of from 59°·1 to 69°·1, W. No separate record was kept of the aqueous vapor pressure, so that this could not be eliminated; but its amount being small, this is of less importance.

The results obtained by reduction of these two series of tables afford the means of comparing the two barometers, and of deducing a correction for the indications of the aneroid, in order to make these correspond with the readings of the mercurial, referred to 32° F. of temperature. Thus, a comparison of the mean readings of the two barometers, for the months of September, 1857, to April, 1858, inclusive, shows throughout a very nearly constant difference. The mean of the several monthly differences for the period indicated is .221 of an inch of mercury—the aneroid barometer reading being by so much too high; so that the correction required in the aneroid readings may be

conveniently taken as—.22 inch. Strictly, this difference is composed of two parts—1, the true index error for the aneroid; 2, the special difference of the two instruments in different latitudes, due to the facts that the mercurial barometer is independent of changes in the force of gravity, while the aneroid is sensible to the increase of gravity in going northward. Within the limits of 66° and 75°.3, N., this variation in the force of the earth's attraction amounts to 0.014 of an inch.

The diurnal variation of the barometer is discussed at length. This is slight, and is to be traced only by combination of a great number of observations; besides, it is often masked by irregular fluctuations of the atmospheric pressure. To determine the diurnal variation, the observations of two years are considered; for Baffin Bay, mean latitude of 72°.5, those of September, 1857, to August, 1858, inclusive; and for Port Kennedy, latitude of 72°, those of September, 1858, to August, 1859, inclusive; while the observations made at Van Rensselaer Harbor, latitude of 78°.6, in the years 1853-'54-'55, were introduced for the sake of comparison. The curves of diurnal variation for the two former have in common a maximum at about 7½ P. M., and a minimum at about 4½ A. M. The mean range of the diurnal fluctuations is—

In Baffin Bay,028 inches.
At Port Kennedy,048 "
At Van Rensselaer Harbor,010 "

Hence, between latitudes 72°.2 and 78°.6, N., the diurnal range diminishes by .028; and, at this rate, it would become insensible (less than .001) in about 81° N.

The computed annual range of variation, *i. e.*, the difference between the highest and the lowest monthly mean, is—

In Baffin Bay,	0.94 inches.
At Port Kennedy,	0.41 "
At Van Rensselaer Harbor,	0.31 "

The maximum effect of any one wind or calm does not exceed 0.04 inch. In Baffin Bay, the barometer is higher with the wind from N., N. E., and E., and lower with the wind from S. W., W., and N. W.; whereas, at Port Kennedy, where the wind is much subject to local influences [and the barometer also, the great amount of its daily range appears to show], nearly the opposite law holds true.

The Earth's Rotation, and the Sun's Distance.—Of a series of papers by Mr. Pliny Earle Chase, relative to aërobaric (air-pressure) phenomena, which, originally appearing within the past three years in the publications of the American Philosophical Society, have been republished in the *American Journal of Science*, and to some extent in other journals, and which, though in certain parts of a highly abstruse character, are nevertheless the vehicles of some important physical hypotheses, the first [of those, at least, with which the writer of this has met] bears the title, "On the Barometer, as an Indicator of the Earth's Rotation, and the Sun's Distance." In making extracts from these articles, as elsewhere, the language of the original will

be adopted so far as it appears most concisely, and for the general reader satisfactorily also, to convey the author's meaning.

That daily barometric tides exist, has been known for more than 150 years; their *cause* has been thus far in dispute. They are not to be explained by variations of temperature [alone]; since, 1, they are detected after eliminating all the *known* effects of temperature; 2, they occur in all climates and seasons; 3, they often show opposite effects, under average temperatures which are the same.

Now, the combined rotation (daily) and revolution (yearly) of the earth imparts to each particle of the air a velocity in the direction of the earth's orbit, which must vary with changes of latitude and hour of the day, and, at the equator, from about 65,000 miles per hour at noon to 67,000 at midnight. The ratio of the force of rotation at the equator to that of terrestrial gravity, as known by the amount of effect each is capable of producing in 24 hours, is $\frac{2\pi \times 3960}{24 \times 3600} = .00109$; and this ratio, representing the proportionate elevation or depression of the barometer above or below its mean height that should (by theory) be caused by the earth's rotation, corresponds very nearly with the actual disturbance at stations near the equator. From 0^h (noon) to 6^h, the air has a forward motion greater than that of the earth, so that it tends to fly away; its pressure is therefore diminished, and the mercury falls. From 6^h to 12^h, the earth's motion is greatest; it therefore presses against the lagging air, and the barometer rises. From 12^h to 18^h, the earth moves away from the air, and the barometer falls. From 18^h to 24^h, the increasing velocity of the air urges it against the earth, and the barometer rises.

The theory of the forces in operation would give a maximum height of the barometer at 9^h and 21^h, and a minimum and at 3^h and 15^h. Three years' hourly observations (1844-'45-'46) at St. Helena, however, show the actual maxima at 10^h and 22^h, and the minima at 4^h and 16^h; and this retardation, of *one hour* throughout, agrees with that due to the inertia of the mercury, as shown by comparison with indications of the water-barometer.

The author argues that the varying centrifugal force to which the earth is subjected by the ellipticity of its orbit, must likewise produce annual tides; while from a comparison of certain elements of the earth's daily and yearly revolutions he deduces a formula for the sun's distance. The following are his results, in part:

Year.	Daily range.	Annual range.	Ratio.	Approximate solar distance.
1844....	.0872 in.1630 in.	2.4558	187,070,000 min.
1845....	.0646 "1214 "	1.8798	80,800,000 "
1846....	.0870 "1214 "	1.8120	74,650,000 "
Mean.	.0668 "1290 "	1.9457	88,066,000 "
Grand mean.	.0668 "1824 "	1.9978	90,702,000 "

The effect of latitude on the aërobaric tides is indicated in the following table:

Station.	Latitude.	Mean height of barometer.	Mean range.	Ratio.
Equator.....	0°	30.709 in.	.062 in.	.002670
St. Helena.....	13°57'	29.292 "	.066 "	.002844
Washington.....	38°53'	30.020 "	.062 "	.002065
Girard College...	39°59'	29.983 "	.060 "	.002004
Arctic Ocean....	78°37'	29.739 "	.012 "	.000404

—*Proceedings of Amer. Philos. Society*, vol. ix., p. 283.

Question of a Resisting Ether.—From Mr. Chase's paper on "Barometric Indications of a Resisting Ether," space will allow us to extract only his conclusions upon this head, without entering upon the preparatory and incidental discussions. Proceeding still from the St. Helena observations, Mr. Chase finds two sets of differences: the first, *between the mean hourly barometric readings and the averages of the barometer heights at 0, 1, 2, and 3 hours from each high and low ærobaric tide*; the second, *between the former values and the hourly heights as calculated from theory*: the largest difference in the first set is at 20^h, the least at 1^h; in the second, the largest difference (greatest theoretical error) is at 21^h, and the least at 5^h and 15^h.

The author concludes that the results furnished in these two sets of differences show the operation of some cause from 1^h or 2^h to 15^h inclusive (say, 2 P. M. to 3 A. M.) tending to reduce the barometric pressure, while for the rest of the day the normal pressure is increased. That this cause is not to be found in differences of temperature, he thinks evident, because the observations are already corrected for *known* effects of temperature, and because the average height of the thermometer from 2^h to 15^h (61°.7) corresponds very closely with the average from 16^h to 1^h (61°.66). The greatest unexplained reduction of barometric pressure is at 9^h; the greatest increase, at 20^h or 21^h. All these facts appear to the author to admit of explanation on the hypothesis that the disturbances are caused by the resistance of an ether, this being supposed, as had been done by Fresnel, to be condensed by planetary attraction. —*Amer. Jour. of Science*, Sept. 1864.

Aerial Tides.—Led by the remarkable coincidence already shown between the theoretical effects of rotation and the results of barometrical observations, Mr. Chase has extended his researches, with a view of defining more precisely some effects of lunar action on the atmosphere: his results appear in a paper bearing the title above.

Sabine had shown that the moon produces a diurnal variation of the barometer, amounting to about .006 of an inch, and thus equivalent to nearly 1-10th of the average daily variation near the equator. This would indicate a tidal wave of rather more than *one foot* for each mile's depth of atmosphere, or from 8 to 6 feet near the summits of the principal mountain chains. Evidently, the rolling of such a wave over the broken surface of the earth may exert a very important influence on the atmospheric and

magnetic currents, the deposition of moisture, and other meteorological phenomena.

There would appear to be also a much larger, and hitherto unadmitted, weekly wave. M. Flaugergues, indeed, extending his researches through an entire lunar cycle (October 19th, 1803, to October 18th, 1827), was led to infer that, "in a synodical revolution of the moon, the barometer rises regularly from the second octant, when it is lowest, to the second quadrature, when it is highest, and then descends to the second octant;" and that this general law is modified by the moon's declination and its distance from the earth, the barometer being higher in the northern lunistice, and in apogee. The St. Helena observations give somewhat different results, and among other things show that there must be two principal maxima and minima in each month. The means of these hourly observations indicate the existence of waves which produce in the moon's first quarter a barometric effect of +.004 in.; in the 2d quarter, of —.016 in.; in the 3d, of +.018 in.; and in the 4th, of —.006 in. A difference between the diurnal and the lunar aerial tides is, that when the former are highest their pressure is greatest—the lunar action accumulating the air under the meridian so as more than to compensate for its "lift;" while in the general fluctuations and in the weekly tides, a high wave is shown by a low barometer, and *vice versa*. The continual blending of these heavy and light waves results in prolonged oscillations, shown by the alternate rise and fall of the barometer at intervals of two or three days.

Mr. Chase presents a table of barometric and thermometric means at the moon's changes, in which he has deduced the heights of the weekly aerial tides as, at full moon, —.0115 in.; at 3d quarter +.0065 in.; at new moon, +.0005 in.; and at first quarter, +.0044 in.; the daily tides of the same periods in order are, .0054 in., .0087 in., .0064 in., and .0047 in. The differences of the successive weekly tides give us the amount of barometric effect for each quarter; and the average effect is more than three times as great in the 2d and 3d quarters, as in the remaining half month. As in the ocean tides, there are two simultaneous waves on opposite sides of the earth; but these are not of equal magnitude, the barometer rising higher for the tide opposite, than for that beneath the moon's place.

Mr. Chase finds evidences of a combination of solar with lunar action, as in case of ocean tides, producing spring tides at the syzygies and neap tides at the quadratures. He generalizes the facts relative to the attraction (luni-solar) and the rotation waves, which have usually opposite values, as follows:

The luni-solar wave is *descending* from 0° to 90°, and from 180° to 270°; *ascending* from 90° to 180°, and from 270° to 360°.

The rotation-wave is *ascending* from 330° to 60°, and from 150° to 240°; and *descending* from 60° to 150°, and from 240° to 330°.

Combining the two actions, it is seen that from 60° to 90° , and from 240° to 270° , both waves are descending, while from 150° to 180° , and from 330° to 360° , both are ascending. Accordingly, besides the principal lunar maxima and minima at the syzygies and quadratures, there should be secondary maxima and minima also at 60° in advance of those points; and these inferences also the St. Helena observations confirm.

At extra-tropical stations, Mr. Chase would expect important modifications of the results now given. Finally, in thus determining the phenomena of aerial tides, he is led to believe that "the long-suspected obedience of the principal meteorological changes to fixed mathematical laws is at length demonstrated." *Proc. Amer. Philos. Soc.*, vol. ix., p. 895, as quoted in *Amer. Jour. of Science*.

The Principal Causes of Barometric Fluctuations.—From this paper, which is occupied with a summing-up and generalizing of the results of the several discussions thus far presented, our extracts must be brief. The author concludes that there are four important causes of barometric disturbance: 1, rotation, with its quarter-daily phases of alternate aid and opposition to the attraction and temperature currents, and of shifting the aerial particles to levels of greater or less density; 2, variations of temperature and vapor; 3, lunar attraction; 4, solar attraction. Among subordinate causes, he would reckon, 5, resistance of ether. The influences of rotation and attraction can be calculated. Through averaging a long series of hourly observations, the effects of lunar attraction may be so nearly eliminated as to show the approximate value of the other principal disturbances. The formula for the rotation tide is given in one of the preceding papers. Next in order of importance are the temperature and vapor tide, and the solar tide. It is scarcely possible to fix at present the precise amount of disturbance attributable to each of these latter; but the following considerations appear to lead to probable results.

The theoretical maxima of the rotation-tide, allowing an hour for inertia, occur at 4^h and 16^h ; the minima at 10^h and 22^h . Allowing a like interval, the solar attraction maxima should be found at 1^h and 13^h ; the minima, at 7^h and 19^h . Assuming the attraction tidal curve to be symmetrical, and the deviations from symmetry as due to differences of temperature and vapor, the author constructs an approximate daily barometric tidal table from the Girard College, and a like one from the St. Helena observations; in each of these are given the 24 hourly values of the rotation, the temperature-and-vapor, and the solar-and-residual tidal elements of the mean daily barometric curve.

Among the inferences drawn from these tabular results, are: That in the intertropical and middle latitudes the daily temperature tide is smaller than the rotation tide; that there is

but one high and one low temperature tide in twenty-four hours; that the temperature effect upon atmospheric pressure reaches its maximum in the evening, and its minimum in the morning; and that the daily temperature tide increases, while the rotation tide diminishes, as we approach the poles.—*Amer. Jour. of Science*, Nov., 1864.

A New Water-Barometer.—This instrument, constructed by Mr. Alfred Bird, of Birmingham, and which has been in perfect operation for six years, was exhibited before the British Association in 1865. From the detailed account of its construction and the mode of filling, later given (*Philos. Magaz.*, Nov., 1865), an outline only can here be presented.

The author lays down four things as requiring attention in the construction of a water-barometer: 1, that the water must be deprived of air; 2, that the air must not again enter the water; 3, that the water must go into the barometer tube to the exclusion of air; 4, that, while the atmospheric pressure must be allowed to act freely upon the water-column in the tube, no air must penetrate into the vacuum-chamber.

A half-inch white-metal tube was secured in an upright position within a stairway, including near its uppermost part, where the range of the fluctuations of the water-surface must occur, six feet in length of a one-inch glass tube, suitably jointed into the former by sockets at its ends; while alongside the glass tube a scale was fixed, graduated to inches and tenths of an inch. From the top of the scale, a vertical height of 422 inches ($35\frac{1}{4}$ feet) was measured downward, to a zero point. The metal tube above the glass, after passing coiled as a worm within an upright vessel, rises still higher, and being furnished near its top with a closing tap (say, *A*), it is bent over and terminates open. The lower metal tube, making a curve below the zero point, rises slightly again, and is then bent down so as to pass into the neck of a one-gallon glass bottle serving as a cistern, and so as to open near the bottom of the latter: at a point just without the neck of the cistern, the tube is furnished with a second tap (*B*). Into the lowest bend of the tube is inserted a small and short upright pipe, having in its course a third tap (*C*). On one of the upright guides between which the glass cistern can be raised or lowered by a set screw working from beneath, is marked the zero point (liquid-surface level for the cistern) of the instrument.

Four gallons of water having been carefully distilled, this is then in a clean can and beneath two quarts of olive oil, boiled for an hour, to expel the last remains of air; the can is thereupon sealed, and the contents allowed to cool. The can is then placed at the top of the barometer: a long gutta-percha tube, inserted at one end through the oil to near the bottom of the water in the can, is exhausted of air, so that it fills with water to its lower end; a fourth tap (*D*) near to this is then closed, and con-

tion of the tube made with the upright pipe. Now, opening all the taps, the water displaces the air both ways from the barometer tube, until it flows freely from the lower end of this: the tap *D* is then closed, and the end of the tube temporarily stopped; and the cistern, previously filled with olive oil, is brought up into place, so as to receive the end of the tube, the latter having been meanwhile again opened. The oil is then drawn off, until about three inches' depth of it remain to protect from air the water, which meantime flows in underneath it. Then closing *B*, the other three taps being now open, the water fills the upright tube until it runs from the upper end: *A* and *C* are then closed, and *B* opened; and the water descends by gravity until its height is such that it balances the pressure of the atmosphere on the liquid surface in the cistern. The level of the surface of oil in the cistern being brought to correspond with the height of the marked zero point, an observation of the height of the water-column can then be taken: when the mercurial barometer showed 30.4 inches, the temperature being 67°, the water-column had a height of 400 inches. The estimated cost of the instrument, exclusive of the gas-fitter's time, was about \$15.

In the *Philosophical Transactions* of the Royal Society, for 1832, is found a description by Mr. Daniell of a water-barometer, erected by him at the Society's rooms, Somerset House. He stated that, in this, "the water appears to be in perpetual motion, resembling the slow action of respiration." This Mr. Bird confirms: the oscillations occur about every four hours and twenty seconds; and as they ordinarily vary from but about $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, they require to be watched with a magnifier. Mr. Bird finds that the most surprising oscillations take place during a thunder-storm accompanied with great falls of hail and heavy rain-drops. He gives a chart, with curves of the water-barometer and the mercurial, during one hour and five minutes of such a storm, July 20, 1859. Comparison of the two curves shows that the water-column responded both sooner, and also more fully, than the mercurial—the whole curve of the former running higher, its oscillations beginning earlier and standing higher respectively. After heavy thunder, and a heavy fall of rain and hail, as the sky commenced to brighten, the water rose very suddenly—in five minutes more than $\frac{1}{4}$ ths of an inch. The author thinks that, in accordance with Sir J. Herschel's theory, that the electric discharge is the *result* and not the cause of the sudden condensation of cloud into rain, the sudden increase of pressure of the air may be due to the speedy and great precipitation of vapor, leaving the air more dry and dense.

Barographs, or Self-Registering Barometers.

—The tendency of the past few years to automatic instruments for purposes of scientific observation, began quite early to be developed in connection with the barometer. The earliest

properly self-registering instrument of this class appears to have been that of Mr. Alexander Keith, of Scotland: the essential parts of this, in its second and more complete form, were, the siphon barometer, and a float on the surface of the mercury in its shorter limb, this carrying an upright wire and a pencil which traced, on a sheet ruled for a month's record and slowly moved by clock-work, a line corresponding to the varying heights of the mercury. Mr. Bryson, of Edinburgh, later substituted a minute knife-edge, which, at the end of every hour, a hammer forced into the prepared surface of a daily record sheet rolled upon a cylinder; by this means he avoided the inaccuracy due to friction of the pencil. Previous to 1858, the photographic registering of barometric variations was in operation at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich: in this, the light of a lamp being continually directed through the Torricellian vacuum of a standard barometer, the lower margin of the trace which it produces on a slowly advanced sheet of sensitive paper, forms the barometric diagram or curve. Previous to 1859, also, M. Harty, of Paris, applied electricity to the work of registering: he used the siphon, and the float with its wire and pencil; while at the end of every five minutes, the current, started by the movement of clock-work, caused a slight blow to be given to the tube, to bring the mercury to its true level, and a half minute later a second current caused a pressure to be applied to the pencil, so as to mark its position on the record sheet.

Hough's Typo-Barograph.—Professor G. W. Hough, Director of the Dudley Observatory, Albany, has recently invented a highly complete method of automatic registering, in an instrument termed by him in his descriptive pamphlet (from which this account is drawn), an "Automatic Registering and Printing Barometer," and later named the *Typo-Barograph*. He has aimed to furnish a process simpler than the photographic, and susceptible also of quite general application. "The problem to be solved," he says, "was to cause any meteorological instrument, by means of suitable mechanism, simply and effectually to record its own changes." To this end it was among other essentials necessary that the mechanism should be such as to repeat the changes within the instrument in all their forms—of motion uniform or variable, forward or reverse.

Beginning with the barometer, it was found by experiment that, by employing the float and making connection in the electric circuit outside the tube, a motion of less than $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of an inch could be readily shown. It was desirable that the registering apparatus should not only produce a linear diagram or curve of the varying atmospheric pressure, but, in order to secure exact results, that it should also furnish simultaneously a printed numerical record of the same. A Daniell's battery is employed, and the "make" circuit adopted, as saving consumption of the battery elements at

times when no action is required. In the apparatus, one pole of the battery is in connection by its wire, which passes through a brass cap, *c*, above, with the mass of the mercury in the shorter limb of a siphon barometer. From the other pole proceed two separate conducting wires, having in their course two electro-magnets, *m* and *m'*, and terminating in platinum points, *p* and *p'*: these points stand in quite or nearly the same vertical line beneath the ivory (insulating) block which supports them, and are directed toward each other. A thin metallic disc, *d*, is upheld and steadied by an arrangement of delicate wires, one of which, rising from the float, also penetrates through the latter and to a slight distance into the mercury beneath it: the disc, so supported, stands between the two platinum points, but not necessarily touching either of them. The size of the float is such that, the support rising from it being properly guided, the rise and fall of the former with the mercury occurs without friction or other appreciable resistance. When the disc, *d*, stands midway between the platinum points, so as to touch neither of them, the circuit is broken; when it comes in contact with either point, the circuit is completed through the corresponding wire.

The disc being midway between the platinum points, its surfaces are distant from them respectively a little less than the $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of an inch. The ivory block carrying these points is movable, being at the end of a horizontal arm that is raised or lowered by the turning of an upright screw, *S*. This screw—distance of threads $\frac{1}{10}$ th inch—is below inserted into a horizontal wheel, *W*, having 40 teeth: thus, a movement of this wheel to the extent of *one tooth* raises or lowers the screw, and so the platinum points, the $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of an inch. At the opposite sides of the wheel are fixed small wheels, *a* and *a'*, each having one tooth. By means of clock-weights these wheels are continually impelled in opposite directions; but their motion is prevented, so long as the mercury column is at rest, by the position of the armatures of the two electro-magnets standing close to them, each of these by means of a "detent" arrangement locking its respective wheel. It will be remembered, of course, that the fall of mercury in the shorter limb of the siphon barometer indicates an effective rise to twice the amount in the longer column, thus showing *increase* of pressure, of which the latter is the true measure; and *vice versa*.

Suppose now that, the mercury having been at rest, increasing atmospheric pressure begins to depress the column in the shorter limb of the siphon: the float *b* sinks, bringing the disc *d* against the lower platinum point *p'*, and closing the circuit through the electro-magnet *m*; the latter attracts its armature, and releases the wheel *a'*, which makes a revolution, carrying the wheel *W* backward one tooth, thus lowering the screw the $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of an inch, and the joint *p'* the same distance below the po-

sition at which contact with the disc occurred; and so long as the mercury and the float continue to go down, each $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of an inch repeats the process, the platinum point continually moving down in advance of the disc. Let, on the contrary, a diminishing atmospheric pressure allow rise of the mercury and float: the disc *d* is then elevated into contact with the upper platinum point *p*, thus closing the circuit through *m*, bringing down its armature, and unlocking the wheel *a*, by the revolution of which the large wheel is moved forward one tooth, and the screw, with the arm and the point *p*, is carried upward the $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of an inch; and this process also is repeated as often as the increasing pressure elevates the disc again into contact with the upper point *p*; or, the ascending and descending movements alternate, according to circumstances.

A movement of ascent and descent in the mechanism, corresponding to that of the mercury, has now been secured; each $\frac{1}{1000}$ th inch of this, however, as already indicated, denotes a change twice as great—the $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of an inch—in the effective height of the mercurial column, and so in the value of the atmospheric pressure. In order, now, to trace the curve corresponding to these varying pressures, the wheel *W*, at the same time that it moves the screw *S*, is by a train of wheel-work made to impart a proportionate movement to a second screw *S'*, an arm and pencil from the latter tracing the pressure curve on a sheet wound upon a cylinder made to revolve regularly by clock-work; the ratios of parts in the connection are such that the curve, as produced, is "magnified a little more than three times [3.077 times, it appears] the barometrical pressure."

For obtaining the printed numerical record of pressure, there is introduced each day into the mechanism a record sheet marked at the proper intervals with the hours from 0 (noon) to 24, or 0 again. The machine prints the *fractional parts* only of the inch in height, and to three places; and, at the end of each 24 hours, the observer notes upon the sheet the date and the *integer* inches in height of the column. Of three wheels which receive independent motions about the same vertical axis, each has set in its periphery types for the numbers 1, 2, &c., to 9, 0. These wheels give in order the *thousandths*, *hundredths*, and *tenths* of an inch—each of the first two, of course, revolving 10 times for once of the wheel next succeeding it; and the uppermost advancing one type ($\frac{1}{10}$ th circumference) for a movement of the screw *S* through $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of an inch. The combination of wheels is such as to "carry for ten" either forwards or backwards. At the end, in this instrument, of each hour, the proper types on the three wheels are brought into line with each other and with the proper hour mark on the record sheet; and at this moment, the same clock-work which governs the cylinder receiving the pressure-curve, and also carries forward the record sheet, causes a small hammer to strike a cushion stand-

ing at the back of the sheet, and thus, through an interposed strip of duplicating impression paper, secures the imprint of the types.

Mr. Hough acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Thomas Simons for suggestions in connection with the mechanism, of which also certain parts, as the screws, were constructed by Mr. Charles Fasoldt, of Albany. Many details respecting its construction, management, the proposed compensation for temperature, &c., are necessarily omitted. Printed readings of this barometer, while it was yet in a less perfect form than at present, and as obtained during six days of the close of April, 1865, deviated in no case more than .005 of an inch from the indications of a standard barometer (Fastré) during the same period. Of the value of a perfectly working instrument of this sort there can be no question; but it has already received practical confirmation also in the curves afforded by its working, and through comparison of these with weather states, storms, winds, &c. In a private letter, Mr. Hough states that he is enabled by the character of the curves to predict with great certainty gales of wind from 12 to 36 hours in advance; and that it is, in fact, rather by the character of the curve, in respect especially to *regularity*, and we may suppose *direction* also, than by the actual height of the mercury, that weather states are indicated. In his pamphlet, he shows how the essential parts of the automatic mechanism can be applied to the rain-gauge, to the thermometer, and to the anemometer, printing in this last the direction of the wind in degrees, and its force or velocity in pounds or miles.

For the description of a form of self-registering barometer, and of a proposed mode of compensating for temperature in the siphon barometer, by terminating the two limbs of the instrument in conical chambers, the reader is referred to an article entitled "Barometer," in the *American Journal of Science* for September, 1865.

BARTH, HEINRICH, a German traveller, explorer, geographer, and author, born at Hamburg, April 18, 1821, died at Berlin, November 25, 1865. He was a graduate of the University of Berlin, where he developed a decided taste for classical geography which led him upon the completion of his studies to travel through the countries bordering the Mediterranean. Having made a tour through Italy and Sicily, he embarked in 1845 at Marseilles, and from Gibraltar passed over to Tangier, Africa. Proceeding along the Algerian coast, he made excursions into the interior of Tunis, Tripoli, and across the sandy desert to Bengazi. On his journey thence to Cairo, he was attacked by a band of Arab robbers, whom he bravely resisted, but was severely wounded, and lost all his effects and papers. He continued his researches, at an expenditure of his private resources to the extent of \$14,000, and starting from Cairo travelled in Egypt, Sinai, Palestine, Asia Minor, the islands of the Ægean Sea, and Greece. These

travels occupied him for nearly three years, and in 1849 he published, at Berlin, an account of a portion of them in a work entitled *Wanderungen durch die Küstenländer des Mittelmeeres*. On the 8th of December of the same year, he again sailed from Marseilles, having been (with Dr. Overweg) appointed by the British Government scientific companion to Mr. James Richardson, then charged by the Foreign Office with a political and commercial mission to Central Africa. Starting from Tripoli on the 4th of February, 1850, Dr. Barth and his companions crossed the Great Desert amid much difficulty and danger. Losing himself at one time in that trackless waste, he remained twenty-eight hours without water, preserving his life by drinking his own blood. Both Mr. Richardson and Dr. Overweg succumbed to the climate; the former in March, 1851, and the latter in September of the following year. Dr. B., however, succeeded in saving the papers containing an account of the expedition, and forwarded them to England, where they were speedily published.

After the death of his companions, letters arrived from the British Government continuing Dr. Barth's commission, and accompanied with a supply of funds. Continuing his explorations, he reached Timbuctoo in September, 1853, where he was imprisoned nearly a year, and a rumor reached Europe that he had fallen a victim to the tribes in that region. In the mean time Dr. Edward Vogel, then an assistant of the British royal astronomer, Mr. Hind, volunteered to go to Dr. Barth's assistance with a company of sappers and miners. They were joined at Tripoli by Mr. Warrington, son of the British consul at that place, who died at Kuka soon after. After a painful interval it was announced to the world that Dr. Barth was living, and when he returned to Tripoli in September, 1855, his explorations had extended over twenty-four degrees of latitude and twenty of longitude, from Tripoli in the north to Andamawa in the south, and from Bagirmi in the east to Timbuctoo in the west, upward of 12,000 miles. Not long after his return, an account of his exploration was published by him in England, in five volumes 8vo, 1857-'58, under the title of "Travels and Discoveries in Northern and Central Africa," and was subsequently republished in this country in three 8vo volumes. His narrative is minute in its detail almost to tediousness, but it shows him to have been an accurate and careful observer. While it was in course of publication he resided in England, but not long afterwards returned to Germany, where he superintended the fitting out of other exploring expeditions to Central Africa, and visited Northern Africa once or twice in the interests of geographical science. Soon after the death of Von Ritter, he was appointed his successor in the Chair of Geography in the University of Berlin, and became also the editor of the "Erdkunde," to which, as well as to Petermann's "Mittheilungen," he had previously been a large contributor. He had, during the

past year, taken a deep interest in a new enterprise for the exploration of Central Africa, and, it is said, was preparing to accompany it at the time when he was seized with his last illness.

BAVARIA, a kingdom in Germany. The reigning sovereign is King Ludwig II., born August 25, 1845, succeeded to the throne on the death of his father, Maximilian II., March 10, 1864. The grandfather of the king, Ludwig I., born August 25, 1786, is still living. He abdicated the throne on March 21, 1848. The Constitution of Bavaria dates from May 25, 1818, and modifications were introduced in 1848-'49. The Legislature consists of two Houses. The Upper House (the "Reichsrath," or Councillors of the realm) comprises the princes of the royal family, the crown dignitaries, the two archbishops, the heads of certain noble families, one bishop, and one Protestant clergyman, appointed by the king; and an unlimited number of other members appointed by the crown. The Lower House, or Chamber of Deputies, consists of deputies of the towns, of the universities, of certain religious corporations, and of the rural districts. To be a voter, it is required to be twenty-five years of age, and to be rated at a minimum of ten florins.

The area of the kingdom is 28,485 square miles. The population was, in 1861, 4,689,837, and in 1864, 4,807,440. The number of Roman Catholics is estimated at about 3,360,000; that of Protestants (Lutheran, Reformed, and United Evangelical) at 1,360,000; that of Jews at 70,000. The capital of Munich had, in 1864, a population of 167,054. Next to it in population, are Nuremberg, with 70,492 inhabitants; Augsburg, 49,832; Wurzburg, 41,082. The budget of the kingdom is calculated for the lengthened term of six years, which counts as a financial period. The estimated receipts and expenditures for one year of this financial period are 46,720,597 florins. The public debt in September, 1864, was 337,833,467 florins. The army, on the peace footing, consisted, in 1865, of 67,012 men; on the war footing, it comprises 205,668 men. On the part the Bavarian Government took in the political questions of Germany, see GERMANY.

BELGIUM. The reigning sovereign is King Leopold II., born April 9, 1835, succeeded his father, Leopold I., in December, 1865. Heir apparent, Prince Leopold, born June 12, 1859. The Council of Ministers is composed as follows: Foreign Affairs, Ch. Rogier (1861); Justice V. Teusch (1827); Finances, H. J. W. Frère (1861); Public Works, J. E. Van der Stichelen; War, Lieut.-Gen. Baron Chazal (1859); Interior, A. Van der Peereboom (1861). Belgian Minister at Washington, Maurice Delfosse (1865); American Minister at Brussels, H. S. Sanford (1861). The area is 11,813 square miles; the population (Dec. 31, 1868), 4,893,021. Four cities have more than 100,000 inhabitants: Brussels, 184,932; Ghent, 122,900; Antwerp, 130,444; Liege, 101,710. In the budget for the year 1865, the receipts amounted to 159,012,790

thalers, and the expenditures to 154,375,271 thalers. Public debt, on May 1, 1865, 626,775,514 francs. It is paid off gradually by the annual surplus of income over expenditure, and the operations of the sinking fund, or "caisse d'amortissements." The Belgian army, according to the latest accounts, comprised 86,372 men, 7,099 horses, and 152 guns. The imports amounted, in 1863, to 616,843,269 francs, and the exports to 533,657,281 francs. The movements of shipping during 1863, were as follows: Arrivals, 8,893 vessels, with 712,378 tons (of which there were Belgian vessels, 597, with 62,525 tons); clearances, 8949 vessels, with 723,975 tons. The merchant navy, on December 31, 1863, consisted of 97 vessels, of 27,247 tons.

King Leopold I., the first King of Belgium, died December 14, 1865, and was succeeded by the present king, Leopold II. On December 17 the new King took the oath of the Constitution, before both houses of the legislature. Some curiosity has been manifested to know whether Leopold II. would express a cordial endorsement of the fundamental principles of the Belgian Constitution. He had been previously charged in English, French, and other papers, with leaning toward a political party, which incessantly denounced the Belgian Constitution as an apostasy from Christianity and the Catholic Church, because it guarantees religious liberty and freedom of the press, and other civil rights. This report was, however, emphatically contradicted by the inaugural address; the professions made by the new king of loyalty to the Constitution being strong and unequivocal. The following passages of the inaugural address are especially remarkable:

"If I neither promise Belgium a great reign, like that which founded its independence, nor a great king, like him whom we mourn, I at least promise the country a king Belgian in heart and soul, whose whole life belongs to it.

"The first King of the Belgians to whom Belgium has given birth, I have shared since childhood all the patriotic emotions of my country. With it I have joyfully followed that national development which fecundises in its bosom all the sources of strength and prosperity. Like it, I love the great institutions which at once guarantee order and liberty, and constitute the most solid basis of the throne. In my thoughts the future of Belgium has always been connected with my own, and I have always considered it with the confidence inspired by the right of a free, honest, and courageous nation, who desires independence, who has known how to achieve and show itself worthy of it, and will be able to preserve it.

"Gentlemen, during the last thirty-five years Belgium has witnessed the accomplishment of events that in a country of similar extent to ours have rarely been realized by a single generation. But the edifice whose foundations have been laid by the Congress can be raised, and will be raised, still higher. My sympathetic

concurrence is assured to all who shall devote to this work their intelligence and labor.

"It is by persisting in this course of activity and wise progress that Belgium will still more solidly establish her institutions at home, and will preserve that esteem abroad of which the powers guaranteeing her independence and other foreign States have never ceased to afford, and now again renew benevolent testimony."

On December 22, the Chamber of Representatives unanimously voted a bill fixing the Royal Civil List at 8,800,000 francs during the king's reign, and granting an extraordinary credit of 700,000 francs for restoring the interior of the royal residence.

The inauguration of Leopold II. and the favorable reception of his inaugural address at home and abroad, dispelled for the present the fears which many entertained for the integrity of the kingdom. The interview of Count Bismarck with the Emperor Louis Napoleon, and the language of the official papers of France and Prussia, had started the report that, on the death of Leopold I., a division of the country according to nationalities, either between France and Prussia, or between France and Holland, which, in this case, would indemnify Prussia, was contemplated.

The change of sovereigns passed over, however, without any notable manifestation in favor of annexation. The French Government, in its intercourse with the Belgian, employed language implying a determined repudiation of all intentions of annexation. Hardly any of the French papers hinted at the project, and only the organs of the Prussian aristocracy (in particular, the "Kreuzzeitung"), plainly intimated their desire for the overthrow of the liberal Belgian constitution, even, if necessary, by means of a partition of the country.

BELGIUM, LEOPOLD GEORGES CHRÉTIEN FRÉDÉRIC, King of, born in Coburg, December 16th, 1790, died at Brussels, December 9th, 1865. He was the youngest son of Duke Francis of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, and uncle of Queen Victoria, whose mother, the Duchess of Kent, was his sister. He received a brilliant education, entered the military service of Russia, and in 1808 accompanied the Emperor Alexander I. to Erfurt, with the rank of general. In 1810 he relinquished his position in the army of the Czar and devoted himself to the interests of Saxe-Coburg. In 1813 he rejoined the Emperor Alexander and took an active part in the battles of that year. In 1814 he accompanied the allied sovereigns to England, and there made the acquaintance of Princess Charlotte Augusta, daughter of George III., whom he married May 2d, 1816, and who died in childbirth, November, 1817. On his marriage, Leopold was raised to the rank of a British field-marshal, and was created Duke of Kendal, with a pension of £50,000. After the death of the princess he resided at London, and most of the time at his palace of Claremont. In 1830 he declined the crown of Greece, but in the fol-

lowing year accepted that of Belgium. In 1832 he married the Princess Louise, daughter of Louis Philippe, by whom he had three children, Leopold Louis Philippe Marie Victor, Duke of Brabant, who succeeds his father as King Leopold II., born April 9, 1835; Philippe Eugène Ferdinand Marie Clément Baudoin Leopold Georges, Count of Flanders, born March, 1837; and Marie Charlotte Amélie Augusta Victoire Clémentine Leopoldine, born June 7, 1840, married July, 1857, to the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, now nominally Emperor of Mexico. In 1850 Leopold was again made a widower, and since that time has lived mostly in retirement at his country seat of Lacken, or upon his extensive domain of Ardenne, being opposed to the pomp and ostentation of court life. His habits being naturally prudent, he had amassed a very large fortune. He was by birth a Protestant, and remained so until his death, although his children were brought up Catholics. He was anxiously intent upon avoiding any complications with foreign Powers, and upon strengthening, by all possible means, the independence of his own kingdom, and in this was so successful that throughout his reign of more than thirty years Belgium enjoyed a profound peace. It was his daily task to hold the balance equally between the two parties which divided the nation, and this he accomplished with consummate ability. He had to deal with every difficulty which can perplex a king—war with a nation lately united to his own, the patronage of two foreign Powers, of which France was one, the discontent of Belgian patriots at the dismemberment of Luxemburg and Limburg, the jealousies of the Liberal and Catholic party, frequent changes of ministers, a financial and religious crisis. All these he surmounted, not by force of arms, but by honesty and devotion to public duty: while his conciliatory disposition and comprehensive statesmanship, as well as his family connections with most of the European dynasties, have enabled him on several occasions to act as mediator in times of political complication.

BOLIVIA, a republic in South America. Provisional President, in consequence of the revolution of December, 1864, General Mariano Melgarejo. The frontiers of the republic, especially the one which divides it from Chili, have not been fixed. The statements of the area of the republic are very different. According to a map, published in 1859 by the Bolivian Lieut.-Col. J. Ondarza, and later, corrections (in Dr. Petermann's *Geographische Mittheilungen*, 1865, number vii.), Bolivia comprises 39,638 geographical square miles, or about 832,000 English square miles. According to the same authority the population was, in 1858, as follows:

Departments.	Inhabitants.	Departments.	Inhabitants.
La Paz.....	475,322	Santa Cruz.....	153,164
Cochabamba.....	349,892	Tarja.....	83,900
Potosí.....	281,229	Veni.....	53,684
Chuquibamb.....	223,663	Atacama.....	8,575
Oruro.....	110,981	Indians.....	945,000
Total.....		1,967,832	

The regular army consists of 1,500 men; the fleet of 3 vessels armed with 24 cannon. The receipts amounted to about 1,976,000, and the expenditures to 1,739,000 piastres. The imports in 1853 were valued at 6,897,925 francs. The movement of shipping of the port of Cobija during the year 1853 (arrivals and clearances), amounted to 126 vessels, of 20,745 tons, of which 70 vessels, with 10,450 tons, were English. The merchant navy consists of 38 vessels of 7,000 tons.

On December 28th Gen. Melgarejo rose at Cochabamba against the Government of President Jose Maria de Acha. In February, 1865, the troops of President Acha were totally defeated at Ocaza, near Potosi, and almost the whole country recognized Gen. Melgarejo as Provisional President. On March 22d ex-President Belzu arrived at La Paz, the capital of the republic, and, during the absence of Melgarejo, caused himself to be proclaimed President. Melgarejo, however, soon took the city by storm, and Belzu was killed by one of his own soldiers. A new rising against the rule of Melgarejo began on May 25th, under the leadership of Castro Arquedas. At the date of the last advices from La Paz (November 16, 1865), this movement had not been suppressed. Gen. Melgarejo at that time was at La Paz, at the head of 2,500 men, and preparing to march against the revolutionists.

BOWMAN, ALEXANDER H., Lieutenant-Colonel Corps of Engineers, U. S. Army, was born at Wilkesbarre, Pa., May 16, 1803, and died there November 11, 1865. He was the son of Captain Samuel Bowman, an officer of distinction in the Massachusetts line during the Revolutionary War. He entered as a cadet into the U. S. Military Academy, July 1, 1821.

In June, 1825, he graduated *third* in his class, which numbered thirty-seven, and of which Maj.-Gen. Charles F. Smith, Professor A. D. Bache, Gen. Robert Anderson, and others alike distinguished, were members. Cadet Bowman was promoted second lieutenant in the Corps of Engineers, July 1, 1825, and after a few months service as an Assistant Professor of Ethics, at West Point, he was ordered (1826) to the Southern coast as an assistant engineer on the defences and improvements of the harbors in that quarter.

For twelve years he was employed at New Orleans, Mobile, Pensacola, and other points on the Gulf, on these duties. In 1834 he was ordered to superintend the construction of a military road from Memphis, Tenn., into Arkansas, and further charged with improving the navigation of the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers, until 1838. He was promoted a first lieutenant of engineers, January 21, 1835, and captain of engineers, July 7, 1838. Immediately following the latter event, Captain Bowman was ordered to assume charge of the defences and improvement of the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina; and for nearly thirteen years he was thus employed, his oper-

ations extending to the harbors of Georgetown, South Carolina, Pensacola, Florida, and the improvement of the Savannah River.

In 1852, after a brief service at West Point, he was ordered to Washington as chief engineer, under the Treasury Department, for locating and constructing buildings designed for custom-houses, post-offices, marine hospitals, &c. For eight years he was thus employed, having been, meantime, promoted major of engineers, January 5, 1857.

Immediately preceding the outbreak of the war, on March 1, 1861, Major Bowman was appointed the Superintendent of the United States Military Academy, with the local rank of Colonel of Engineers, which position he continued to hold until July 8, 1864, receiving on March 8, 1863, his regular promotion as a lieutenant-colonel in the corps of engineers.

While in the performance of his duties as a member of a board of engineers to improve and preserve the New England sea-coast defences, and after forty years of uninterrupted service, he was conveyed from Boston to his home in Wilkesbarre, where he died as above stated, aged sixty-two.

BRAZIL. An empire in South America. The reigning emperor is Pedro II., born Dec. 2, 1825, ascended the throne in consequence of the abdication of his father, April 7, 1831; under guardianship assumed the reins of government on July 23, 1840. Heir apparent to the throne is Princess Isabel, born July 29, 1846, and married on Oct. 15, 1864, to Louis Philip, Count d'Eu, oldest son of the Duke de Nemours. The General Legislative Assembly consists of two houses, the Senate and the Congress. The Senators are chosen for life at electoral meetings, expressly convened, each of which has to nominate three candidates, leaving the choice between them to the sovereign or his ministers. The members of the House of Congress are chosen by indirect election for the term of four years. The property qualification of a Senator is 800 milreis, of a member of the House of Congress 400 milreis, and of an elector 200 milreis. All inscribed voters are bound to vote under a penalty. The annual session of the legislative assembly commences on May 8, and ordinarily extends over four months.

The ministry is divided into seven departments. A new ministry was formed on May 11, 1865, being composed of the following members: Interior, Marquis d'Olinda, President of the Council; Justice, Jose Thom. Nabuco de Arango; Exterior, Jose Antonio Saradra (appointed June, 1865); War, Angelo Moniz da Silva Ferraz; Finances, Jose Pedro Dias de Carvalho; Navy, Dr. Francisco de Paula da Silveira Lobo (appointed June 1865); Public Works, Commerce and Agriculture, Dr. Ant. Fr. de Paula e Souza.

American Minister at Rio de Janeiro, J. Watson Webb (accredited Oct. 21, 1861); Brazilian Minister at Washington, J. M. N. d'Azambuja.

The empire has an area of about 8,004,460 square miles, and a population (in 1856) of 7,677,800 inhabitants.

The budget for the year 1865-'66 estimates the expenditures at 58,875,183 milreis, and the receipts at 55,000,000 milreis; probable deficit, 3,875,183 milreis.

The regular army, in 1865, consisted of 85,673 men. The fleet was composed of 52 armed and 7 non-armed vessels. Two of the war-vessels are iron-clads, and three other iron-clads were in the course of construction.

The exports of the year 1862 amounted to 122,479,999 milreis (to the United States 15,253,118); the imports of the same year to 99,072,718 (from the United States 6,044,184). The movement of shipping of the year 1862-'63 was as follows:

FLAG.	ARRIVAL.		CLEARANCE.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Brazilian.....	398	41,064	167	89,693
Foreign.....	2,647	902,595	2,580	4,054,513
Total.....	3,088	944,649	2,697	4,094,493
Coasting trade (under Brazilian flag).....	3,447	725,130	3,884	720,987

The beginning of the year 1865 found Brazil involved in a war with the Governments of Uruguay and Paraguay. The war with Uruguay soon ended (February, 1865) by the overthrow of the Government and the elevation of Gen. Flores, the chief of the revolutionist party of Uruguay, and the ally of Brazil, to the Presidency. (*See URUGUAY.*) That with Paraguay continued to the end of the year. (*See PARAGUAY.*)

The German emigration to Brazil has of late considerably decreased, but considerable attention was awakened, in 1865, by a scheme of immigration from the southern portion of the United States. The leaders of this movement represented the preliminary negotiations as an entire success, and the last advices from Brazil state that "the American emigrants, chiefly Southerners, represented by Col. Wood, have selected near Araraguara a site for a town, which lies between two small rivers, and can have railway connection with the capital." A vast tract of 8,000,000 acres of unoccupied Government land has also been selected, and it was the general expectation that soon a flow of emigration from the States composing the late Confederacy would set in.

BREMEN, a Free City in Germany. The legislative power is vested in a Senate of thirty members, and, the General Assembly of citizens, called *Bürgerconvent*. The Senate is presided over alternately by two *Burgomasters*, the one elected for six years, and the other for four years. The *Burgomasters* in 1865 were C. F. G. Mohr (1863-1867), President of the Senate for 1866, and J. D. Meier (1861-1865), President of the Senate for 1865. The territory of Bremen comprises an area of 112 square

miles. The population, according to the census of 1854, was 104,091. The public revenue for the year 1864 amounted to 1,695,405 thalers, and the expenditures to 1,750,739 thalers; deficit 55,334. Bremen sustains a battalion of infantry, numbering 760 men. The cavalry and artillery are furnished by Oldenburg. The merchant navy at the close of 1864, consisted of 298 vessels, including ten screw steamers. The foreign shipping engaged in the direct and indirect trade at the port in 1864, was as follows: Entered, 2,604 vessels, of 274,707 lasts. Cleared, 2,784 vessels, of 277,199 lasts. The imports in 1864, amounted to 67,113,930 thalers; the exports to 61,466,848 thalers.

BREMER, FREDERIKA, a Swedish novelist and author, well known and highly esteemed both in England and America, born on the banks of the Aura, near Abo, in Finland, in 1803, and died Dec. 31, 1865, at Arsta, near Stockholm, Sweden, of pneumonia. Her family, which was wealthy, removed into Sweden when she was about three years' old. She was carefully educated, receiving instruction from able teachers both in Sweden and Norway, and spending a year in Paris, and on her return to Sweden became a teacher in a female academy in Stockholm. It was while thus engaged that she commenced her literary career, though she had from childhood been fond of writing, and at eight years of age had already begun to write verses. "The Neighbors," her first work, was published in 1824, and was, before long, translated into German, French, Dutch, and Russian, and in 1842, into English, by Mary Howitt, who also translated her subsequent works. Meantime Miss Bremer had been rapidly publishing other works, all of which had been received with equal or greater favor with the first. Between 1824 and 1840 appeared, "The Home," "The Diary," "The H. Family," "The President's Daughter," "Nina," "Brothers and Sisters," "Life in Dalecarlia," and "The Midnight Sun." In 1835 her works appeared in Stockholm, in a collected form, under the title of "Tekneingar ur Hvardagslivet," and these, with subsequent volumes, were published in German, in Leipzig, in twenty volumes—1841-'53. Late in 1849 she sailed for the United States, where she was very cordially received, Miss Howitt's translations of her works having been largely circulated, and having obtained great popularity. She spent nearly two years in travelling through the United States, and everywhere was welcome. The visit of Miss Bremer to America was one of the grand events of her life, and has been duly recorded in her pleasant book, "Homes in the New World." No one who has ever read it—and but few Americans have failed to do so—can forget the genial good nature, homely tenderness, and beautiful pathos which pervade its pages, nor have failed to notice the almost absolute absence of acrimony or envy. The sunny nature of the little lady from the frosty northern climate of Lapland stands prominently forth in this volume; and it is not

less interesting to us from the fact that it is evidently a true index to the gentle character of its gentle author than from its strongly but kindly drawn portraits of our literary celebrities and the warm pictures of our American homes. Her reception here was so genial that she was, perhaps, betrayed into overlooking many of the rougher features of society in this country. Every American reader of "Homes in the New World" can point out where she has been too generous, but none can point out in her narrative a single stroke of the caricaturist. Miss Bremer also displayed, when in this country, a very clear appreciation of some of our then existing national difficulties; and some of her observations on the condition of the country show her in the light of a closely observing philosopher. Once, in describing South Carolina—her type of the whole South—she writes: "The splendor of her eye, the delicate crimson of her cheek, the pomp which surrounds her, cannot conceal the want of health and vigor, the worm which devours her vitals. This weak, luxurious beauty, is South Carolina." This internal weakness has since then been made apparent even to the beauty who would not see. Remarkings on slavery and freedom, she also utters a truth now being daily and hourly confirmed: "This, however, is clear, that there requires a preparation for freedom, and that this has been too long neglected." On her return she spent some time in England, and published in 1852, at Altona, some account of her visit, under the title of "England in 1851." After her return to Sweden, she continued to write her novels of home life, publishing "Hertha" in 1856, "Father and Daughter" in 1858. A tour of some length in the South of Europe was described in 1860, in "Two Years in Switzerland and Italy," and after a subsequent journey to the Holy Land, and return by way of Turkey and Greece, was followed in 1863 by books on those countries, which were her latest published works.

BRIDGES. (See ENGINEERING.)

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA (comprehending Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island).

His Excellency the Right Hon. Charles Stanley Viscount Monck, Governor-General of British North America, and Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Island of Prince Edward, etc., etc., etc.

Denis Godley, Governor-General's Secretary; Lieut.-Col. Hon. Richard Monck, Coldstream Guards, Military Secretary; Captain Pemberton, 60th Rifles, aide-de-camp; Lieut.-Col. J. G. Irvine, Provincial aide-de-camp; Lieut.-Col. Duchesnay, Lieut.-Col. H. Bernard, and Lieut.-Col. F. W. Cumberland, Extra Provincial aides-de-camp.

The Canadian Cabinet.—Hon. Messrs. A. J. Ferguson Blair, President of the Council; Sir N. F. Belleau, Receiver-General and Premier; John A. Macdonald, Attorney-General for Upper Canada and Minister of

Militia; George E. Cartier, Attorney-General for Lower Canada; Alexander T. Galt, Minister of Finance; William McDougall, Provincial Secretary; Thomas D'Arcy McGee, Minister of Agriculture and Emigration; A. Campbell, Commissioner of Crown Lands; W. P. Howland, Postmaster-General; J. C. Chapais, Minister of Public Works; James Cockburn, Solicitor-General for Upper Canada; Hector E. Langevin, Solicitor-General for Lower Canada.

Nova Scotia.—His Excellency Lieutenant-General Sir William Fenwick Williams of Kars, Baronet K. C. B., Lieutenant-Governor.

New Brunswick.—His Excellency Hon. Arthur Hamilton Gordon, C. M. G., Lieutenant-Governor.

Newfoundland.—His Excellency A. Mulgrave, Esq., Governor, Commander-in-Chief, and Vice-Admiral.

Prince Edward Island.—His Excellency George Dundas, Esq., Lieutenant-Governor.

The Canadian Legislature assembled at Quebec on January 19, 1865. The Governor-General in his speech from the throne alluded to the raids on territory of the United States, and said: "In order to prevent the organization of any such enterprises within this Province, and also to enable me to discharge in an effective manner my duties toward a neighboring power on terms of friendship with her Majesty, I have seen fit to organize a system of detective Police on the frontier line of the United States, and with the same design I have called out for permanent duty a portion of the Volunteer Force of the Province."

Relative to the codification of the statutes of Lower Canada, he said: "The Commissioners appointed under the provisions of the second chapter of the Consolidated Statutes of Lower Canada to frame a Civil Code, and also a Code of Civil Procedure for Lower Canada, have completed the former part of their duty; the results of their labors shall be laid before you, and I am informed that the Code of Civil Procedure is in a very advanced state. The completion of the Codification of the Civil Law, in both French and English, cannot fail to be of great benefit to the inhabitants of Lower Canada, by enabling the people of all origins to read, in their own languages, the Civil Law under which they live, and which hitherto has only been accessible in a language which is not the mother tongue of a portion of the people whose civil rights are regulated by it."

To the Assembly he stated that the revenue had largely increased, and there had been a contemporaneous extension of the trade of the Province. To both Houses he presented a view of the state of the Confederation question. A conference had assembled and arrived at the conclusion "that a Federal union of the Provinces was feasible and desirable. A plan for the union was proposed (see *Public Documents*, ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1864), and had received the cordial approbation of the Imperial Government. A bill will be introduced into the Imperial Parliament to give it effect so soon as the Ministers shall be notified that the proposal has received the sanction of the Provincial Legislatures." His view of the measure was thus expressed: "With the public men of

British North America it now rests to decide whether the vast tract of country which they inhabit shall be consolidated into a State, combining within its area all the elements of national greatness, providing for the security of its component parts, and contributing to the strength and stability of the Empire; or whether the several Provinces of which it is constituted shall remain in their present fragmentary and isolated condition, comparatively powerless for mutual aid, and incapable of undertaking their proper share of Imperial responsibility."

In reply to this address the Commons expressed deep regret that outrages had been committed on the commerce and territory of the United States by persons who sought refuge in Canada; they were gratified that a system of detective police had been organized on the frontier line, and at the zeal and activity displayed by the volunteer force when called upon for active service, and promised that the estimates for this expenditure should receive prompt attention. Other subjects of a local nature were also noticed. This address of the Commons was adopted by a vote of 71 to 17.

On the 3d of February the then Premier, the late Sir E. P. Taché, moved in the Legislative Council, "That an humble address be presented to her Majesty, praying that she may be graciously pleased to cause a measure to be submitted to the Imperial Parliament for the purpose of uniting the Colonies of Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island, in one Government, with provisions based on the resolutions which were adopted at a conference of Delegates from the said colonies, held at the city of Quebec on the 10th of October, 1864" (*see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA*), and on the 6th of the same month, the Hon. John A. Macdonald, Attorney-General of Upper Canada, as leader in the Legislative Assembly, also moved a similar resolution in a speech of great length and eloquence. He dealt with the question as a whole, entering into its history; the state of feeling and the balance of parties in the British American Provinces prior to the Conference; the Conference itself, and the feeling of unanimity which prevailed in its deliberations; the difficulties which met them, arising from the difference of nationality, religion, and laws, in the several colonies which were represented; the mutual advantages of union both in an economical point of view in saving the vast expenses of maintaining separate Governments with all their attendant machinery, and as a means of organization and strength for defensive purposes, and also for binding the colonies in closer connection with the mother country, the Constitution of the General Government, and going minutely into all the provisions on this latter point. The importance of the Provinces when united he thus describes:

We find ourselves with a population approaching four millions of souls. Such a population in Europe would make a second, or, at least, a third-rate power.

And with a rapidly increasing population—for I am satisfied that under this union our population will increase in a still greater ratio than ever before—with increased credit—with a higher position in the eyes of Europe—with the increased security we can offer to immigrants, who would naturally prefer to seek a new home in what is known to them as a great country, than in any one little colony or another—with all this I am satisfied that, great as has been our increase in the last twenty-five years since the union between Upper and Lower Canada, our future progress, during the next quarter of a century, will be vastly greater. And when, by means of this rapid increase, we become a nation of eight or nine millions of inhabitants, our alliance will be worthy of being sought by the great nations of the earth. I am proud to believe that our desire for a permanent alliance will be reciprocated in England. I know that there is a party in England—but it is inconsiderable in numbers, though strong in intellect and power—which speaks of the desirability of getting rid of the colonies; but I believe such is not the feeling of the statesmen and the people of England. I believe it will never be the deliberately expressed determination of the Government of Great Britain. The colonies are now in a transition state. Gradually a different colonial system is being developed—and it will become, year by year, less a case of dependence on our part, and of overruling protection on the part of the mother country, and more a case of a healthy and cordial alliance. Instead of looking upon us as a merely dependent colony, England will have in us a friendly nation—a subordinate but still a powerful people—to stand by her in North America in peace or in war. The people of Australia will be such another subordinate nation. And England will have this advantage, if her colonies progress under the new colonial system, as I believe they will, that, though at war with all the rest of the world, she will be able to look to the subordinate nations in alliance with her, and owing allegiance to the same Sovereign, who will assist in enabling her again to meet the whole world in arms, as she has done before. And if, in the great Napoleonic war, with every port in Europe closed against her commerce, she was yet able to hold her own, how much more will that be the case when she has a colonial empire rapidly increasing in power, in wealth, in influence, and in position. It is true that we stand in danger, as we have stood in danger again and again in Canada, of being plunged into war and suffering all its dreadful consequences, as the result of causes over which we have no control, by reason of their connection. This, however, did not intimidate us. At the very mention of the prospect of a war some time ago, how were the feelings of the people aroused from one extremity of British America to the other, and preparations made for meeting its worst consequences. Although the people of this country are fully aware of the horrors of war—should a war arise, unfortunately, between the United States and England, and we all pray it never may—they are still ready to encounter all perils of that kind, for the sake of the connection with England. There is not one adverse voice, not one adverse opinion on that point.

The debate, which was conducted in an excellent spirit, proceeded in the Legislative Council until the 20th of February, when the motion was carried by a vote of forty-five to fifteen. In the Assembly the discussion was not brought to a close until the 14th of March, and would, no doubt, have continued to a much longer date, but for the decisive conduct of the administration in laying aside almost all other important legislation to the furtherance of this grand object. The address was carried by an overwhelming majority, ninety-one to thirty-three.

Parliament was prorogued almost immediately after this event. Amongst the items voted during the session was one of over \$1,000,000 for the permanent defences of the Province. The Governor-General dismissed the Legislature with a speech, in which he congratulated them upon having laid the foundation for a more intimate union of British North America.

In accordance with the intimation conveyed in the latter portion of the speech, shortly after the rising of Parliament, four members of the Canadian Government (Messrs. Macdonald, Carter, Galt, and Brown) were appointed as a delegation to proceed to England, to confer with the Imperial authorities on questions affecting the interests of Canada, and of British North America generally. The reception of these statesmen by the Mother Country was of the most gratifying and satisfactory character, and showed the strong desire of the Home Government to perpetuate the connection between the Colonies and Great Britain.

The proceedings of the Commissioners were reported to the Governor-General, to whom a despatch was also addressed by the Right Hon. Edward Cardwell, describing the Conferences of the Commissioners with the Imperial Government. This last document presents very clearly the views of the Home Government relative to British North America, as follows:

DOWNING STREET, 17th June, 1865.

MR LORD: I have the honor to inform your Lordship that several conferences have been held between the four Canadian Ministers who were deputed, and the Duke of Somerset, the Earl De Grey, Mr. Gladstone, and myself, on the part of her Majesty's Government.

On the first subject referred to in the Minute, that of the Confederation of the British North American Provinces, we repeated on the part of the Cabinet the assurances which had already been given of the determination of her Majesty's Government to use every proper means of influence to carry into effect without delay the proposed Confederation.

On the second point, we entered into a full consideration of the important subject of the defence of Canada, not with any apprehension on either side that the friendly relations now happily subsisting between this country and the United States are likely to be disturbed, but impressed with the conviction that the safety of the empire from possible attack ought to depend upon its own strength and the due application of its own resources. We reminded the Canadian Ministers that on the part of the Imperial Government we had obtained a vote of money for improving the fortifications of Quebec. We assured them that so soon as the vote had been obtained the necessary instructions had been sent out for the immediate execution of the works, which would be prosecuted with despatch; and we reminded them of the suggestion her Majesty's Government had made to them to proceed with the fortifications of Montreal.

The Canadian Ministers, in reply, expressed unreservedly the desire of Canada to devote her whole resources, both in men and money, for the maintenance of her connection with the Mother Country; and their full belief in the readiness of the Canadian Parliament to make known that determination in the most authentic manner. They said they had increased the expenditure for their Militia from 300,000 to 1,000,000 dollars, and would agree to train that force to the satisfaction of the Secretary of State for War, provided the cost did not exceed the last-men-

tioned sum annually, while the question of confederation is pending. They said they were unwilling to separate the question of the works of Montreal from the question of the works west of that place, and from the question of a naval armament on Lake Ontario. That the execution of the whole of these works would render it necessary for them to have recourse to a loan, which could only be raised with the guarantee of the Imperial Parliament. They were ready to propose to their Legislature on their return a measure for this purpose, provided that the guaranty of the Imperial Parliament were given now, and that they were authorized to communicate to the Parliament of Canada the assurance that, the occasion arising, England will have prepared an adequate naval force for Lake Ontario. They thought that if the guaranty were not obtained now it was probable that the Canadian Government and Parliament would think it desirable that the question of defensive works should await the decision of the Government and Legislature of the United Provinces.

On the part of her Majesty's Government we assented to the reasonableness of the proposal that if the Province undertook the primary liability for the works of defence mentioned in the letter of Lieutenant-Colonel Jervois, and showed a sufficient security, her Majesty's Government should apply to Parliament for a guaranty for the amount required; and we said that her Majesty's Government would furnish the armaments for the works. But we said that the desire and decision of the Provincial Legislature ought to be pronounced before any application was made to the Imperial Parliament. On the subject of a naval force for Lake Ontario, we said that, apart from any question of expediency, the convention subsisting between this country and the United States rendered it impossible for either nation to place more than the specified number of armed vessels on the lakes in time of peace. In case of war it would, as a matter of course, be the duty of any government in this country to apply its means of Naval Defence according to the judgment it might form upon the exigencies of each particular time, and the Canadian Ministers might be assured that her Majesty's Government would not permit itself to be found in such a position as to be unable to discharge its duty in this respect. This was the only assurance the Canadian Ministers could expect, or we could give.

Upon a review of the whole matter, the Canadian Ministers reverted to the proposal which has been mentioned above, that priority in point of time should be given to the Confederation of the Provinces. To this we, on the part of her Majesty's Government, assented. In conformity, however, with a wish strongly expressed by the Canadian Ministers, we further said that if, upon future consideration, the Canadian Government should desire to anticipate the Confederation and to propose that Canada should execute the works, they would doubtless communicate to Her Majesty's Government that decision; and we trusted that after what had passed in these conferences they would feel assured that any such communication would be received by us in the most friendly spirit.

On the third point, the Reciprocity Treaty, the Canadian Ministers represented the great importance to Canada of the renewal of that treaty, and requested that Sir F. Bruce might be put in communication with the Government of Lord Monck upon the subject. We replied that Sir F. Bruce had already received instructions to negotiate for a renewal of the treaty, and to act in concert with the Government of Canada.

On the fourth point, the subject of the Northwestern Territory, the Canadian Ministers desired that that territory should be made over to Canada, and undertook to negotiate with the Hudson's Bay Company for the termination of their rights, on condition that the indemnity, if any, should be paid by a loan to be raised by Canada under the Imperial guaranty.

With the sanction of the Cabinet, we assented to this proposal, undertaking that if the negotiation should be successful, we, on the part of the Crown, being satisfied that the amount of the indemnity was reasonable, and the security sufficient, would apply to the Imperial Parliament to sanction the arrangement and to guarantee the amount.

On the last point, it seemed sufficient that her Majesty's Government should accept the assurances given by the Canadian Ministers on the part of Canada, that that Province is ready to devote all her resources both in men and money to the maintenance of her connection with the Mother Country, and should assure them in return that the Imperial Government fully acknowledged the reciprocal obligation of defending every portion of the Empire with all the resources at its command.

The Canadian Ministers in conclusion said, that they hoped it would be understood that the present communications did not in any way affect or alter the correspondence which had already passed between the Imperial Government and the Governments of the British North American Provinces on the subject of the Intercolonial Railway. To this we entirely agreed.

The preceding despatch was also sent by the same Minister to the Lieutenant-Governor of New Brunswick, together with a letter, urging upon that Province the following considerations, as motives to its hearty coöperation in the system of Confederation:

You will, at the same time, express to the Legislature of New Brunswick the strong and deliberate opinion of her Majesty's Government, that it is an object much to be desired, that all the British North American Colonies should agree to unite in one Government. In the territorial extent of Canada, and in the maritime and commercial enterprise of the Lower Provinces, her Majesty's Government see the elements of power which only require to be combined in order to secure for the Province which shall possess them all, a place amongst the most considerable communities of the world. In the spirit of loyalty to the British Crown, of attachment to British connection, and of love for British Institutions, by which all the Provinces are animated alike, her Majesty's Government recognize the bond by which all may be combined under one Government. Such an union seems to her Majesty's Government to recommend itself to the Provinces on many grounds of moral and material advantage, as giving a well-founded prospect of improved administration and increased prosperity. But there is one consideration which her Majesty's Government feel it more especially their duty to press upon the Legislature of New Brunswick. Looking to the determination which this country has ever exhibited to regard the defence of the colonies as a matter of Imperial concern, the colonies must recognize a right and even acknowledge an obligation incumbent on the Home Government to urge with earnestness and just authority the measures which they consider to be most expedient on the part of the colonies with a view to their own defence. Nor can it be doubtful that the Provinces of British North America are incapable, when separated and divided from each other, of making those just and sufficient preparations for national defence, which would be easily undertaken by a Province uniting in itself all the population and all the resources of the whole.

I am aware that this project, so novel as well as so important, has not been at once accepted in New Brunswick with that cordiality which has marked its acceptance by the Legislature of Canada, but her Majesty's Government trust that after a full and careful examination of the subject in all its bearings, the Maritime Provinces will perceive the great advantages which in the opinion of her Majesty's Govern-

ment the proposed Union is calculated to confer upon them all.

I have, &c.,
(Signed) EDWARD CARDWELL.

No time was lost on the return of the delegation to Canada in assembling the Legislature, not only to submit the result of the mission, but also to take up a large amount of business pending from the preceding session.

A short time previous to this event the coalition was slightly convulsed by the death of the Premier, Sir E. P. Taché, and the claims put forth by both Conservatives and Reformers for the vacant office. Mr. Macdonald, the next in succession, and well qualified by his political attainments for the position, was named by his Excellency for the post, but his appointment was resisted by the Reformers, on the ground that it would involve a change from the original state of the Ministry when they entered it. To meet the difficulty, both parties at length agreed on Sir Narcisse F. Belleau, a respectable Liberal Conservative, and he accordingly was installed as Head of the Government. The second session, commencing on the 8th August, lasted for nearly two months. Explanations were given on all the questions negotiated by the delegation of the Home Government, including that on the Northwest Territory, but none of them were in a sufficiently forward state to be the subject of legislation. A number of other important measures, however, were brought up and passed.

In October a "Confederate Council of Trade," composed of one member from each Government of the Maritime Provinces and Canada, assembled at Quebec, to consider the present and future trade policy of the British American Colonies with foreign countries; and it is probable that arising out of this conference a very important commission was appointed toward the close of the year, with the approval and coöperation of the Imperial Government, composed of William McDougall, Provincial Secretary (as Chief), Thomas Ryan, M. L. C., J. W. Dunscomb, of Quebec, and A. M. Delisle, of Montreal, on behalf of Canada; Isaac Le Visconte, Financial Secretary, and — McDonald, on the part of Nova Scotia; A. J. Smith, on the part of New Brunswick, and J. C. Pope, on the part of Prince Edward's Island, to inquire into the practicability of opening trade relations with the West Indies, Cuba, Brazil, and perhaps Mexico. The movement is one of the greatest commercial importance to British North America, and has excited the liveliest feelings of interest both in England and in the dependencies and countries concerned. The gentlemen appointed on this responsible and momentous undertaking, are all men holding prominent positions in their respective Provinces.

The Commission sailed for England in November, and having there conferred with, and being accredited by the British Government to the several countries they may be required to visit, were to sail for the West Indies early in the ensuing year. Their duties are to collect

and compile information bearing upon the subject of trade with British North America; and they are empowered to negotiate commercial treaties, subject to the approval of the Imperial Government, from which they derive their authority. With regard to the feasibility of extending the trade relations between the West Indies and Canada, it may be said that for some years past a large and increasing trade has been growing up between the two countries; but the disproportion between the amount of the imports and exports has been hitherto too great to make it appear of much value to the general interests of the province.

It should also be mentioned that of the total quantity of merchandise imported into Canada from the British and Foreign West Indies, consisting of coffee, sugar, molasses, rum, segars, and other articles during the year 1863, more than a moiety was received through the United States. In the year 1863 the total value of the importations from the West Indies amounted to \$415,927; the value of the produce imported direct was \$180,881; through the maritime provinces, \$85,677; and *via* the United States, \$249,419. The trade with the British West Indies for the above year was as follows: Amount of imports, \$182,195; exports only, \$57,542. The Canadian trade with foreign countries other than the United States during the same period amounted in the aggregate to \$2,875,653. The value of the imports was \$2,034,651; against exports, \$841,002. It will be seen that, although the balance is at present considerably against the province, there yet exists the nucleus of a trade with foreign countries which there is every reason to believe is capable of being greatly extended by the judicious measures for that purpose adopted by the Canadian Administration. The exports from Canada to the West Indies consist at present almost exclusively of manufactured goods—such as leather, machinery, soap, starch, straw, wooden ware, and whiskey. The fisheries also supply an article of export to the same countries, and will no doubt in the course of a few years largely contribute to swell the annual returns of the growing trade. The most important staples of Canada, namely, agricultural products and the produce of the forest, have not as yet to any great extent been introduced into the West India islands, the trade in these articles having hitherto been nearly monopolized by the United States. The high prices, however, of all the exportable articles in this country, the effect of the late war, have suggested to the Canadians the possibility of their being able to compete successfully with their neighbors in the West India markets as well as in those of Brazil and Mexico. "Nearly all the exports from the United States to the above countries," the *Toronto Globe* informs us, "consist mainly of articles which can be furnished by these provinces." If this be the case, and in view of the fact that prices will probably for some years continue to rule almost as high as

at present in the United States, it is manifest that the Canadians could not have chosen a more favorable opportunity for vigorously prosecuting an attempt to extend their trade relations with the nearest foreign countries, and with some of which they at present carry on a considerable import trade. As above stated, Canada in the year 1863 exported to foreign countries other than the United States goods to the value of \$841,002; these consisted principally of cured fish and the produce of the forest. The value of the former article was \$494,428, and of the latter \$320,552. The value of the agricultural products exported to the same countries was only \$17,178, and that of the manufactures of Canada the insignificant amount of \$5,299. In negotiating commercial treaties with Cuba, Brazil, and probably Mexico, the Canadian Commissioners, doubtless, will have no difficulty in satisfying the Governments of those countries that, with reference to the two last articles above enumerated, the province is in a position to furnish the one in unlimited quantities, and certain descriptions of manufactures to the extent required, much cheaper than they can be procured from the United States, where the taxation is at the present time so exceedingly burthensome.

In addition to their patriotic attempt to enlarge their export trade with foreign countries, the Canadian Government are also about to take steps toward improving the communications between Lake Superior and the Northwest Territory, which is now virtually incorporated with the province. The Red River Settlement is supposed to contain a population of about 12,000 souls; the gold fields of the Saskatchewan are also attracting great numbers of enterprising people to that fine country, and it is impossible to exaggerate the importance to Canada of securing the trade of that vast and valuable region, which has hitherto gone to the United States instead of finding its natural and legitimate outlet through Canada. "The people of the Red River," says the only paper published in that country, "are becoming alive to the immense advantages of buying their goods in the comparatively untaxed markets of Canada, as compared with the heavily burthened mart of St. Paul's, from whence they are at present supplied."

At the close of 1864 the case of the St. Alban's raiders was still pending in the Canadian courts, upon a demand for their extradition by the United States. Judge Coursol, of Montreal, had been suspended for his judgment in favor of Young and his followers, and the Canadian Government evinced, by every means in their power, a desire to see justice done, not only to the prisoners themselves, but also to the Government and people whose territory had been violated. When brought before Mr. Justice Smith, he sustained the previous judgment by Mr. Coursol, and the prisoners were released from custody, but were again apprehended at the instance of the Canadian Government for a

breach of the neutrality laws. Being taken to Toronto for trial, at the preliminary examination before Mr. Recorder Duggan, it was discovered that no evidence could be adduced against any of the prisoners except Young, and that against him was of a very unreliable character. All the raiders were finally discharged, with the single exception of Young, who was at length admitted to bail, to make his appearance in the event of the charge preferred against him being brought into any of the Superior Courts. No steps, however, have since been taken in this direction. Thus peacefully terminated the connection between Canada and the Confederate refugees, which, at the commencement, gave rise to much ill-feeling between our people and the Canadians, and threatened to lead to serious complications between the two Governments. It is only fair to state, as a proof of the earnest desire of the Canadian authorities to maintain amicable relations with this country, that the \$50,000 booty carried off by the raiders from St. Alban's was refunded by them, and that an alien bill received the sanction of the Provincial Legislature, providing for the removal of such obnoxious sojourners from the province at any future time.

In connection with this it is only necessary to mention the case of Burley, the Lake Erie invader, who was extradited to the United States by a full bench of the Superior Court Judges of Upper Canada, but who subsequently escaped from his prison here, and passing over in disguise into Canada, made his way to the nearest open British seaport, and took passage to Scotland, where he is now residing.

The sudden death of President Lincoln by the hand of an assassin, called forth from the British American Colonies the warmest and most expressive sympathy. Meetings were held in all parts of the Provinces denouncing the act, and paying the highest testimonials of respect to his memory.

The volunteer militia force, sent to the frontier during the excitement which followed the issuing of General Dix's order, was recalled during the summer season, and not replaced. But in November, the Government thought proper, from information which it received as to a probable "Fenian invasion," to provide against such a possible annoyance, by calling out a small body of volunteers for active service. This force was put on duty at the most salient points on the frontier.

In the month of September a Camp of Military Instruction, composed of the passed cadets of the several military schools established by the Canadian Government, was opened at Laprairie, and placed under the command of experienced officers in her Majesty's service. This was an experiment to test the military efficiency and endurance of those who, in the event of hostilities, would be called on to command the Provincial militia. The result was most satisfactory, as the following extract from

the report of Colonel Wolseley, the commanding officer, will testify:

After a few days' experience I found that the theoretical knowledge of drill was much greater than I had expected it could have been; I thought it more advisable therefore to exercise them in the battalion, and subsequently in brigade movements, than to keep them long at the monotonous employment of squad and company drill. When the camp broke up I have no hesitation in saying that they compared most favorably with regular troops. They daily acquired increased steadiness under arms and precision of movement which careful training under military officers only can effect. Their conduct was beyond all praise; their cheerful obedience and the respect they paid their officers, evinced a desire to learn a soldier's duties in all the various grades of our profession, and the quickness with which they learned showed an aptitude for military pursuits that augurs well for the future prosperity of the militia of this country. The difficulties one always has to encounter in transforming the citizen into the soldier, in teaching him habits of order, precision, and smartness in bearing, were consequently easily overcome. It seemed to be the desire of all to identify themselves with the army whose uniform they wore, and in my opinion they were most successful in doing so.

By the "Canadian Volunteer and Militia List," it appears that the number of militia on the rolls in Canada is as follows: 1st Class, 128,827; 2d Class, 208,180; 3d Class, 88,190. Total 425,197.

In the month of October the seat of Government was removed from the city of Quebec to the new capital Ottawa, where for the last five years magnificent piles of buildings have been in course of erection for the accommodation of the Houses of Parliament and the several Departments. It is estimated that these buildings have cost the country more than half a million of pounds, and they are declared by many competent authorities to rival in grandeur and architectural beauty any others on the Continent.

With regard to the public debt, Mr. Galt, Minister of Finance, said: "The amount of public debt to be redeemed in 1865 was \$1,100,000, of which the greater part was the final payment of the Imperial loan. The interest on the charges on the public debt was \$3,890,000, including the sinking fund. The charges embraced under the head of Civil Government amounted to \$4,633,000. It was proposed to expend for militia during 1865 \$500,000. In regard to the public works, the buildings at Ottawa and the completion of the enlargement of the Welland Canal, were the chief. It was expected that the total outlay by the board of works would be \$600,000. The collection of revenue was put down at \$1,350,000. The aggregate of outlays, exclusive of the redemption of the public debt, was \$11,074,000, against the income of \$11,136,000, leaving a surplus of \$62,000. In a country, like Canada, increasing so rapidly, there must necessarily be a gradual increase in the cost of government. It was impossible to govern three millions for the same as two millions. The balances on 30th June last, were nearly \$3,444,000. The Legislature had clothed the Government with power to dispose of four millions

of debentures. But as that had not been exercised, the debentures were lodged with the Bank of Montreal for sums of money obtained from that institution."

With regard to Canal Tolls, the policy of the Government is to make the inland navigation as free from burdens as possible.

The views of the Colonial Government relative to the Reciprocity Treaty were expressed in the Legislature by Mr. Galt with much force, clearly showing that Canada is not so dependent on this treaty as is supposed; and that the political questions appertaining to it are quite distinct from the commercial. He said:

The trade in wheat and flour might be considered as transit trade. The price was regulated by the American market, and the American market did not consume these articles. The United States exported to the Maritime Provinces about as much as they imported from us. Being a transit trade, the Americans reaped the benefit of it; they had the advantage of transporting it, and of the commercial profits that arose from transacting it. The effect of preventing the continuance of that trade, would be that if we succeeded, as he trusted we should, in establishing proper commercial relations with our maritime brethren, the trade would be conducted directly with the Lower Provinces instead of, as now, with Boston and New York.

He also showed that the effects of the United States imposing a duty on lumber, would be to raise the price to their own consumers. They might raise the cost of the material used in their houses and ships at their own expense, but could only slightly affect the trade of Canada.

In referring to the frontier trade of Canada, Mr. Galt remarked:

Americans now grow corn cheaper and better than we, while we grow barley cheaper and better than they. To interfere with the exchange would be inconvenient to both parties. Nay, it would be injurious to both; but the principal effect would be to change the nature of the distillation carried on on either side of the frontier.

With regard to the important and growing interests of mineral products, he admitted the advantages of a near market, but at the same time observed that it was not the American market which gave value to the product of the mine. Admitting the importance of Reciprocity, he thus summarily said:

The exports to the United States, which might be said to be dependent on the Reciprocity Treaty—that was the balance of exports over imports—was, lumber about 5,000,000; coarse grains, 4,000,000; animals, 1,500,000. The trade in animals was much larger last year; but this was about the average. Thus a balance of about ten and a half millions of our export was more or less dependent on the treaty; that was about the amount they could affect by levying taxation on the production of this country. He would not repeat any of the arguments with respect to each article, but the peculiar position of that portion of the American market which was supplied from Canada was such, that he did not think they would find it to their interest to impose duties on our products; but if they did, they would not merely increase the cost of every one of those articles raised in their own country, but they will themselves have to pay the duty on the supplies they obtained from abroad, essential for their consumption. He might further say, in reference to this trade of \$10,000,000,

that though it was certainly very important, still if we were compelled by circumstances to look at the possibility of its being diverted, we should not look so much at the proportions it bore to the total exports or imports of the country, as to the proportion it bore to the whole product of the industry of the Province. We ought not to conclude that because 25 per cent. of our products were exported to the United States, 25 per cent. of the industry of the Province would be paralyzed. If they did not go there, the worst result would be the change would have to be made in a certain amount of the productive labor of the country. Labor rendered unremunerative in one direction, must be made productive in another.

An important view of the trade of the Maritime Provinces is thus presented:

That trade had not been so large as had been desired, or increased so rapidly as might have been expected, because, under the reciprocity treaty, they had obtained in the American markets the articles they might have obtained from us, which have been sent by us into the United States, and by the United States exported to the Maritime Provinces. The actual results, comparing several years, were that in 1860 goods were worth \$393,866, while in the fiscal year ending June, 1865, we imported \$511,570. Our exports have increased during the same time from \$723,586 to \$1,065,057, an increase of about 25 per cent. From the British West Indies, the increase in trade had been more considerable. Our imports were \$15,802 in 1860, and \$209,327 in 1865. So there had, indeed, been a renewal of the trade with the West Indies we had formerly enjoyed. The exports to the Maritime Provinces had risen from \$723,000 in 1860, to \$1,065,000 in 1865; and to the West Indies, they had risen from \$41,000 in 1860, to \$41,000 in 1865. But while that had been the case with our own West India Islands, our trade with the foreign West Indies was beginning to assume somewhat considerable dimensions. This was particularly the case as regarded Cuba; and he found that the total value of articles imported from foreign West Indies in 1864, was no less than \$1,480,000, of which there had come by way of the St. Lawrence, \$255,000; by way of the United States, \$660,000, and Nova Scotia, \$126,000. The general foreign trade of Canada amounted to so little three or four years ago, that it was scarcely worthy of notice. In 1860 the total import trade of Canada from foreign countries, except the United States, was only \$905,000; and in 1865, notwithstanding the depressing influence of the American war, it had risen to \$3,274,000, an increase of nearly four-fold in that short period. It now amounted to eight per cent. of our total exports, instead of only two and a half per cent. It was gratifying to the Government, and he was sure it must also be gratifying to the House and the country, to know that at a time when we were threatened with an interruption of trade with the United States, we had trade with other foreign countries independent of the British possessions, which was growing with the rapidity indicated by these returns; a trade that now amounted to about one-tenth of the whole industry of the country if trade with the United States were put an end to to-morrow. These observations respecting our trade with the United States, the reciprocity treaty, and our trade with foreign countries generally, acquired perhaps additional importance at this moment because we knew that under instructions from the Imperial Government, representatives of the different provincial governments would meet in this city during the month of September next. It was peculiarly happy, that at this moment such a meeting as this was to take place, because we had to consider two points in reference to our trade with the United States. We had to consider, first, what action should be taken in case the American Government undertook to enter into negotiations for

the renewal of the treaty; and we had to consider, in the second place, what action should be taken if it declined to negotiate at all. Now it must be clear, with reference to this trade of the Maritime Provinces with Canada, that it is most important that this meeting should be held, and that a common understanding should be arrived at by the representatives of the different governments. He did not apprehend that there would be the slightest difficulty in coming to an agreement upon either one point or the other. The Canadian Government did not desire to engross the negotiations that might take place respecting the treaty. If they stood alone, they would as much consider the interests of the Maritime Provinces as their own; but on this occasion, they would have those interests represented by gentlemen from the governments of those Provinces themselves, and they would have the advantage of obtaining from those gentlemen information on points relating to those interests, and by this means he did not doubt that they would be able to unite in placing before the representative of the Imperial government at Washington, the united views of all those colonies in reference to trade with the United States, and especially with reference to the fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Nova Scotia, which formed such an important part of the trade; but if, unfortunately, we should be disappointed in our anticipations that the American Government will not enter into negotiations for the renewal of the treaty, then it would become more than necessary that an understanding should be had with the Maritime Provinces in reference to the future of our trade.

The internal trade of the Provinces during the year was very flourishing. The only drawback to this prosperous state of things was the threatened termination of the Reciprocity Treaty in March, 1866, and the uncertainty which existed as to whether the Canadian Government would be able to secure a renewal of it. A feeling exists in Canada that the action of the United States authorities in refusing to grant this, is prompted by a desire to move them from their allegiance. Whether this conjecture be well founded or not is uncertain; but if it be, it will probably fail of its object, and tend rather to bind the Canadian people more firmly than ever to the throne of Great Britain. The Detroit Convention, mentioned elsewhere, produced great practical good in Canada by its labors and deliberations. It served in a measure to clear away many old prejudices and antipathies, and to allay much bitter feeling that had been engendered during the war. It showed the great necessity for increased canal and railroad communication between the west and the seaboard.

In Nova Scotia no steps were taken on the question of Confederation, either in submitting it to the Legislature or to the people, although the former course was promised in a despatch from the Lieutenant-Governor to the Governor-General. The Government, on the contrary, has, for the present, abandoned the scheme, in favor of a Legislative Union of the Maritime Provinces, as appears by two resolutions adopted in May, as follows:

LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.—1st. *Whereas*, under existing circumstances, an immediate Union of the British North American Provinces has become impracticable; and *whereas* a Legislative Union of the Maritime

Provinces is desirable, whether the larger union be accomplished or not;

Resolved, That in the opinion of this House, the negotiations for the Union of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island should be resumed in accordance with the resolution passed at the last Session of the Legislature.

HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY.—2d. *Resolved*, That in the opinion of this House the negotiations for the Union of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island should be resumed in accordance with the resolution passed at the last session of the Legislature.

In July a delegation, composed of the Premier, Dr. Tupper, and the Attorney-General, Mr. Henry, was appointed to proceed to England to confer with the Imperial Government on the subject of the Reciprocity Treaty and on other questions of interest to the Colony. The reply of the Imperial Government on the subject of confederation was thus reported by Mr. Cardwell:

"I have stated that her Majesty's Government can give no countenance to any proposals which would lead to delay the Confederation of all the Provinces, which they are so desirous to promote, and can only aid in the promotion of a closer union between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, if that closer union be ancillary to, and form part of, the scheme for general union."

Toward the close of the year, Sir R. G. Macdonnell was transferred to the Governorship of Hong Kong, and Sir W. F. Williams, a distinguished native of the province, was appointed in his stead, to the satisfaction of his countrymen.

The Government of Mr. Tilley, in New Brunswick, pursued a more manly and straightforward policy than that of the sister Province. Early in the year the question was submitted to the electors, but through organized influences which could not be combated, a Legislature unfavorable to the scheme was returned. Mr. Tilley, with his Ministry, retired from office, and were succeeded by the triumphant party, who caused resolutions to be passed in the Legislature hostile to confederation, and every thing was done to place the Province in a position of antagonism to the scheme. A delegation, composed of Messrs. Smith and Allan, two members of the Government, were appointed to proceed to England, to represent the views of the majority on the question of Union, but failed to secure countenance or any sympathy from the imperial authorities. More recently, however, a better feeling has sprung up, and the result of an election in the county of York has been to return a gentleman strongly pledged in favor of Union, by an overwhelming majority. Mr. Anglin, the member of the Government most determinately opposed to confederation, has resigned his seat in the Council, and has been succeeded by one more willing to entertain the consideration of the question. It is therefore considered probable, that ere long, should an opportunity permit, New Brunswick would declare for Union. In a recent general election in Newfoundland, a majority has been returned pledged to support the Quebec scheme.

The comparative trade of the United States with British North America and other coun-

Total.....\$699,856,084

	Tons.
Canada.....	2,841,260
British Provinces East.....	441,658
British Columbia.....	152,524

Total British North America.....	3,435,449
Great Britain.....	710,245
Spanish West Indies.....	771,878
New Granada.....	494,589
British West Indies.....	89,181
France.....	49,504
China.....	47,907
All other countries.....	684,846

Total.....6,157,899

Comparative Statement of the Value of Exports and Imports of Canada, during the fiscal years ending 30th June, 1864 and 1865.

	Exports.	Imports.	Total Exports and Imports.
1964 to June 30th.....	\$48,718,191	\$49,738,469	\$98,457,660
1965 to June 30th.....	42,481,161	44,690,469	87,171,630
Decrease, 1965.....			\$5,870,040 or 54 pr. ct.

Statistical View of the Commerce of Canada, exhibiting the Value of Exports to, and Imports from, Great Britain, her Colonies and other Countries, together with the Tonnage of Vessels arriving and departing during the year ending June 30, 1866, including in such tonnage the Vessels engaged in the Inland Trade.

COUNTRIES.	COMMERCE.	
	Value of Exports.	Value of Imports.
Great Britain.....	\$14,728,008	\$21,085,871
North American Colonies.....	1,065,087	511,570
British West Indies.....	41,818	207,829
United States of America.....	25,812,923	19,598,095
France.....	142,856	751,667
Germany.....	7,415	884,717
Other Foreign Countries.....	686,079	2,186,260
Totals.....	\$42,481,151	\$44,620,460

Tonnage of British vessels, entered inwards, 2,909,356; do., cleared outwards, 8,098,506.

Tonnage of foreign vessels, entered inwards, 2,338,266; do., cleared outwards, 2,198,286.

Total entered inwards, 5,147,622; cleared outwards, 5,206,792.

The following is a summary of importations from the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, &c.

[illegible]

EXPORT TRADE.

ARTICLES.	TOTAL EXPORTS.	
	June 30, 1864.	June 30, 1865.
Products of Mines.....	\$757,565	\$574,664
" Fisheries.....	770,507	765,816
" Forest.....	18,957,850	14,288,207
Animals and their Products.....	6,541,620	8,498,828
Agricultural Products.....	18,499,989	10,451,509
Manufactures.....	981,973	1,094,714
Coin and Bullion.....	1,708,755	1,685,191
Other Articles.....	887,949	839,843
Total value of Exports.....	88,490,647	87,684,825
No. Tons.		
Vessels built at Quebec and { 48—85,295, at \$48 per ton } exported..... { 28—22,627, at \$40 per ton } Together, 71—57,922 tons..	2,422,765	*1,923,594
Estimated amount of Exports, short returned at Inland Ports.....	2,904,779	2,878,222
Grand Total of Exports.....	\$43,718,191	\$42,461,151

Statement of the Amount of the Exports and Imports, Revenue and Expenditure, Population, Assets, and Liabilities of the Provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island for the year 1863.

PROVINCES.	Imports.	Exports.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Population by last Census.	Date of that Census.	Liabilities.
Nova Scotia.....	\$10,201,891	\$8,420,968	\$1,185,629	\$1,072,274	\$880,857	1861	\$4,338,547
New Brunswick.....	7,764,824	8,964,784	599,991	884,618	252,047	1861	5,702,891
Newfoundland.....	5,242,720	6,002,212	450,000	479,420	1124,238	1857	944,800
Prince Edward Island.....	1,428,028	1,627,540	197,884	171,718	80,557	1861	240,573

BROUGH, JOHN, Governor of Ohio, born in Marietta, Ohio, 1811, died at Cleveland, August 29, 1865. His early advantages for culture or promotion in life were limited. In 1823 he entered the printing office of the "Marietta Gazette" as an apprentice, but seeking educational advantages, in 1825 obtained a situation in the office of the "Athens Mirror," and took a place in one of the classes of Ohio University. In 1831 he became proprietor of a Democratic paper, published at Marietta, which was called "The Washington County Republican." Seeking a wider sphere, Mr. Brough sold the "Republican" in 1833, and in conjunction with his brother, Charles H., purchased the "Lancaster Eagle." Under the management of the Broughs the "Eagle" immediately gained influential rank among the Democratic journals of the State.

In 1835 John Brough was elected clerk of the Ohio Senate, which post he filled with ability until 1838, when he was called to represent the counties of Fairfield and Hocking in the Legislature. In 1839 he was chosen Auditor of the State of Ohio, by the General Assembly, and served in that capacity until 1845. He took charge of the finances of his State at a period of serious monetary depression—when extensive internal improvements were being prosecuted—when the resources of the State were not equal to its expenditures, and consequently when heavy loans were necessarily negotiated. He bent his energies to such a revi-

sion of the financial system of the State—such changes in its revenue laws and such enlargements of its basis of taxation, as render his six annual reports among the most valuable of the State documents.

In 1846, retiring from the office of Auditor, with an enviable reputation as a far-sighted public officer, Mr. Brough opened a law office in Cincinnati, and united with his brother, Charles H., in the management of the "Cincinnati Enquirer." He entered actively into politics, and was regarded as the ablest speaker which the Democratic party then had in Ohio. Thoroughly informed in public affairs, self-possessed, ingenious in argument, and shrewd in the evasion of knotty points, favored with a powerful voice and an engaging manner, Mr. Brough soon took high rank as a political orator.

In 1848 he retired from active political life and became President of the Madison and Indianapolis Railway, and in 1853 accepted the more responsible post of President of the Bellefontaine and Indianapolis road, which has become one of the great lines of the West. In 1861, having taken up his residence in Cleveland, he was urged to become a candidate of the Union party for Governor, but declined to allow his name to be brought before the convention. In 1863, having made a speech at Marietta, declaring slavery destroyed by the act of rebellion, and most earnestly appealing to all patriots of whatever previous political predilections to unite against the insurgents of the South in support of the Government, he was immediately put before the people as a candidate for Governor, and the majority which

* 51 vessels—85-98, 114 tons, at \$41 per ton; 16-14, 149, at \$49. Together, 47,862 tons.

† Population in 1861 estimated at 180,000.

elected him was the heaviest ever given in any State. In the discharge of his duties as chief magistrate of the State he was ever laborious, patriotic, far-sighted, clear in his convictions of duty, firm in their maintenance, and fearless in their execution.

BROWNELL, Right Rev. THOMAS CHURCH, D. D., LL.D., Bishop of Connecticut, and Senior and Presiding Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, born at Westport, Bristol county, Massachusetts, October 19, 1779, died at Hartford, Connecticut, January 13, 1865. His early education was obtained at a public school at Taunton, in his native county, from whence he entered Rhode Island College, now Brown University, in 1800, and upon the removal of Dr. Maxcy, President of the College, to Union College in Schenectady, he accompanied him to that seat of learning, where he graduated in regular course and with the highest honors in 1804. The next year he was appointed tutor in Latin and Greek, in 1807 became professor of belles-lettres and moral philosophy, and in 1809 accepted the chair of chemistry and mineralogy. The following year was spent in travelling through England, Scotland, and Ireland, partly on foot, and in collecting materials and apparatus for the department under his charge. In 1813 he commenced the study of theology, and having changed his ecclesiastical relations from the Congregational to the Episcopal Church, was ordained to the first degree in the ministry by Bishop Hobart in 1816. He at once engaged in missionary labors in Schenectady and its vicinity, at the same time retaining his post in Union College. In 1818 he accepted the office of Assistant Minister in Trinity Church, New York, and in the course of the next year was elected Bishop of the diocese of Connecticut, and took up his residence in New Haven. Under his auspices Washington (now Trinity) College in Hartford was founded in 1824, from which time till 1831 he filled the office of president. Bishop Brownell belonged to the old orthodox party in the Church, his rejection of Calvinism having been one of the reasons that first attracted him toward it. He was not, however, a controversialist, and surrounded as the Church was in his diocese by powerful and hostile sects, his whole influence was thrown on the side of harmony and union within it. So successful was he in this, that although most of his clergy agreed with him in his theological opinions, those who belonged to the Evangelical party were on terms of the utmost cordiality with him, and ever found him ready to give them all the assistance in his power, in their parochial and other labors. The Tractarian movement was not looked upon with favor by Bishop

Brownell, and on many questions mixed up with it, particularly at the trial of Dr. Onderdonk, Bishop of New York, he separated from the High Churchmen, and acted with their opponents. In 1851, in consequence of increasing years and infirmities, Bishop Brownell required assistance in the care of his diocese, and his friend and former pupil, the Rev. John Williams, D. D., President of Trinity College, was elected and consecrated Coadjutor-Bishop, with the right of succession. The next year, by the death of Dr. Chase, Bishop of Illinois, he became presiding bishop of the Church. The duties connected with this position he had been enabled to discharge until within a few years. Bishop Brownell published in 1828 "The Family Prayer Book," a large octavo volume, containing a commentary on the liturgy, which was followed in 1839-'46 by a compilation in five volumes from the best practical and devotional writers, entitled, "Religion of the Heart and Life." He was also a frequent contributor to the current literature of the day, especially in the department of theology, publishing several important charges to the clergy and various sermons on special occasions. Bishop Brownell held a conspicuous place in the Church of which he was an able and devoted minister. He was distinguished for his soundness of judgment and his vigor of action. His episcopate extended over the large space of forty-five years, and was fruitful in the admirable results of wisdom, energy, and self-devotion.

BRUNSWICK, a duchy in Germany. The reigning sovereign is Duke William I., born April 25, 1806, who undertook provisionally the government of the duchy, in consequence of the insurrection of September 7, 1830, and subsequent flight of his brother, the reigning Duke Charles, October 12, 1830. He ascended the throne April 25, 1831. The present duke being the last representative of the ducal house and unmarried, the duchy is expected, in consequence of an old family treaty, to fall, at the death of the present duke, to Hanover. Prussia, however, asserts likewise a title upon Brunswick. The area is 1,525 square miles; the population, 1864, 292,708. The capital, Brunswick, had, in 1864, 45,450 inhabitants. In 1861, of the total population in that year (281,708), 276,922 were Lutherans; 998 Reformed; 2,633 Roman Catholics; 99 Dissidents; 1,061 Israelites. The legislative power is vested in one Chamber, consisting of forty-three members, and meeting every three years. The budget is voted for the period of three years, and amounted for the three years 1864-'66, to 5,108,000 thalers. Public debt, on September, 1863, 11,384,718 thalers. The army consists of 5,359, on the war footing; 2,720 on the peace footing.

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CALIFORNIA, one of the Pacific States of the Union, extending from Lower California on the south to Oregon on the north, and from the Pacific on the west to Arizona and Nevada on the east. It is nearly ten degrees of latitude in length, extending from $32^{\circ} 20'$ to 42° , and about ten degrees of longitude in its extreme breadth, lying between the meridians of $87^{\circ} 18'$ and $47^{\circ} 23'$ W. from Washington. Its area is 158,687 square miles, 101,689,688 acres. Its present population is estimated at 500,000. Its capital is Sacramento City. It was admitted into the Union September 9, 1850. The number of organized counties in the State is 49.

In previous volumes of the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* there have been given statistics of the climate, soil, and productions of this State. Its climate in the south is semi-tropical, while in the north, or the mountainous districts of the interior, it belongs to the colder zone of the temperate regions. On the coast, however, the range of the thermometer is far less than on the Atlantic slope. It is, in the main, a very dry climate, though the wintry rains are often copious and destructive. In most sections, during the long, dry, and warm season, the soil becomes so hard that it cannot be broken up easily with the plough until the first rains have softened it. The soil, where it is tillable, is a deep rich loam, and almost everywhere needs only irrigation to make it abundantly productive. The principal farming crops are wheat, barley, hay, and the root crops. The wheat of California is of excellent quality, containing a larger quantity of gluten than that of any other portion of the globe. There is no distinction of spring and winter wheat in the State, the time of sowing being in December and January, after the November rains have moistened the earth. The counties in the immediate vicinity of San Francisco bay are those most largely engaged in the production of wheat. Barley is an important crop in California, yielding largely, and the volunteer crop, self sown, of the second year, is often almost an average crop. The common oats do not succeed well, on account of the dryness of the climate, but a wild variety grows abundantly and furnishes the hay crop of California, except in a few of the northern counties where timothy is grown. The grasses generally do not succeed well. Corn is not ordinarily a successful crop, and can be raised with profit only in the southernmost of the coast counties. In the valleys of the Sacramento and the San Joaquin the nights are too cool for its rapid or successful growth. In root crops California stands pre-eminent. Nowhere else do they attain such a size, or such excellent qualities. The country is admirably adapted for stock-raising, large portions of its territory being unfit for the plough, but nowhere surpassed for grazing. The

grasses, or rather the wild oats, and mast, furnish abundant pasturage for the winter months, and the stock-grower can dispense almost entirely with winter feeding. The forest trees of California are for the most part evergreens, and of great size and height. There is some cottonwood and oak along the streams, but the cedar, of several new species, the redwood, a tree of the cedar family, numerous species of pine, including the gigantic *Sequoia*, spruce, etc., are the principal trees of the forest.

Agriculturally, however, the State is best adapted to the growth of fruit of almost every variety. The apricot, quince, cherry, plum, pear, peach, apple, nectarine, prune, pineapple, pomegranate, gooseberry, the olive, aloe (agave), orange, lemon, and citron are also raised in great perfection. The strawberry, raspberry, and grape are among its most abundant creeping plants. In former volumes of the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA*, and in the article *AGRICULTURE*, in the present volume, the extent of the grape culture in California is noticed. The rapidity of the increase of vineyards, and the great variety of their product (every European grape being grown in the open air successfully), seem to justify the belief confidently entertained by the citizens of the State, that ere many years California will be the vineyard of the world. The grape crop never fails here as it does in Europe, or in the East often, and its yield is fully twice that of any other country, while the rich and aromatic character of the soil gives to the grape a richer flavor than it attains elsewhere. Two hundred pounds of grapes, per vine, is about the average yield; and in particular instances, vines but five years old have yielded over 800 pounds. In 1864 there were 12,592,688 vines growing in California, and nearly four millions more were set in 1865. The California wines and brandy already enjoy a high and increasing reputation in the Eastern markets.

Fruits of almost all kinds are sold by the pound, and bring highly remunerative prices. At the close of 1865, apples were sold at four to eight cents per pound, pears from four to ten cents according to the variety, strawberries fifty cents per pound, Lawton blackberries twenty to twenty-five cents, apricots four to ten cents, figs eight to fifteen cents, peaches four to ten cents, limes thirty-seven and a half cents a dozen, oranges \$6 to \$7 per hundred, lemons \$6 to \$8 per hundred, pineapples, each fifty cents to \$1, bananas, the bunch or hand, \$2.50 to \$5, grapes, common, three to eight cents per pound, foreign varieties from ten to twenty-five cents per pound, plums eight to fifteen cents, prunes twelve to fifteen cents, watermelons twenty to thirty cents each.

During the past two years efforts have been

made, with considerable success, to cultivate tobacco, and to utilize the wet bottom lands which are, or can be annually overflowed, in the production of rice. In his message of December, 1865, Governor Low urges the importance of extending this crop. The climate of California has proved to be well adapted to the rearing of silkworms, and in San José and its vicinity the production of silk has become a business of considerable magnitude.

The development of agriculture in California is seriously impeded by two causes, viz.: the great number of large estates, held under Mexican grants, and which, while comprising much of the best land in the State, are of necessity but very imperfectly cultivated by their owners; and the great uncertainty of titles in lands, which leads to slovenly and wasteful tillage, where the tenure is not fully settled. Time will eventually partially remedy these evils, but they now exert a very unfavorable influence upon agricultural enterprise.

The State Board of Agriculture, a very efficient organization, is exerting itself for the promotion of agricultural interests. It has, the past year, been urging the necessity of irrigation in many parts of the State. The mining interest has received a marked impetus during the year 1865. In gold mining vast numbers of rich and productive quartz ledges have been opened, and placer digging has been almost entirely abandoned. The product of gold in 1864 was forty-two millions of dollars; in 1865 it exceeded fifty millions—not all, however, from California mines. There has been also a considerable enlargement of the quicksilver mines, and new mines have been opened. The quicksilver mines are almost uniformly profitable, and their yield is very uniform. Copper is also mined with great success at several points in the State, and the development of this metal in 1865 has received a decided impulse. The copper ore of the State is very rich, and occurs mainly at Copperopolis and other points near the coast, where it can rapidly be shipped. Like the South American ore, it is mostly sent to Europe for reduction. The existence of petroleum in the State had been suspected for some years, and the geological survey of the State had demonstrated the presence of oil-bearing strata of rock in several localities. In the summer and autumn of 1864 explorations were made, and asphaltum and some other oil products discovered in Santa Barbara and other counties along the coast. Companies were formed, and in 1865 oil was discovered, not only in these counties, but in Humboldt and Los Angeles Counties. That in the latter county, while possessing, according to chemical analysis, the highest qualities for illuminating and lubricating purposes, possessed the remarkable property of emitting a pleasant and fragrant odor instead of the pungent and disagreeable one usually in petroleum oils.

On the 23d of September, 1865, Mt. Hood, which had not previously, since the settlement

of California, been in a state of eruption, commenced giving signs of activity, and continued, for a month or more, to belch forth smoke and flame. On the 8th and 9th of October several shocks of an earthquake of considerable severity were felt along nearly the whole coast region, from Petaluma to Santa Cruz. It was most severely felt at San Francisco, where it injured buildings, etc., to the amount of more than \$250,000. The shocks were as follows: First, very heavy oscillating at fifteen minutes to one, P. M., Sunday, October 8th; second, five seconds later, much heavier undulations, and accompanied with a loud rumbling noise in the earth, and the music of falling walls, ringing of bells, barking of dogs, screams of fainting women, and the general stampede of frightened men and horses in every direction; third, a mere tremor at four, P. M.; fourth, do. do. at seven P. M.; fifth, a little heavier at ten, P. M.; sixth and last, up to this time—at thirty-five minutes past ten, A. M.—which, though compared with those of the previous day, was very light, was still heavy enough to send everybody into the streets, and create a terrific panic (fortunately unaccompanied by fatal results) in some of the public schools.

In education the State is making commendable progress. The statistics of its public school system for 1865 were: Number of children between the ages of four and eighteen, 95,067: of these 41,376 attended public schools; 12,478 attended private schools, and 20,441 did not attend school. The total amount received for school purposes in 1865 was \$876,406.69, an increase over the receipts of 1863 of \$286,350.92. There were in the State a total of 947 schools, taught by 1,155 teachers, but there were only 885 school houses, of which sixty-nine were rented. There were eight schools for colored children, with an attendance of 278. There are school funds in each county arising from the sale of the school sections, and the State has also a school fund derived from the sale of swamp and other lands, amounting in 1865 to \$696,020, and yielding an income of \$48,721.40. The State school tax is half a mill on the dollar, and there is also a county tax for schools, the minimum of which is \$3.00 per scholar. The normal school is in a flourishing condition, and has proved of great advantage in raising the standard of teaching in the State. There are numerous chartered colleges in the State, and some of the number, after a severe struggle from insufficiency of present resources, have attained to a respectable rank among the educational institutions of the country, and have able faculties and the necessary appliances for imparting a good collegiate education. Among these the College of California occupies the first position. Several of the Roman Catholic colleges of the State also give a very full course of instruction.

Of the correctional institutions of the State, the State Reform School had forty-seven children under training, and was meeting with a

commendable degree of success in their reformation. There was also an industrial school of the reformatory class at San Francisco, which receives aid from the State. The management of the State Prison, which for some years was discreditable to the State, had greatly improved. The prisoners no longer manifested the spirit of insubordination, which, in several instances previously, had developed itself in a mutiny, put down only at a fearful cost of life; but under the provision for diminishing their term of imprisonment as a reward for uniform good conduct and faithful labor, the greater portion were exerting themselves to earn this reduction of their term of service.

Politically, California is now Republican by a large majority. Its State officers, one of its Senators, and its Representatives in Congress are Republicans, and the other Senator elect, who takes the place of Mr. McDougal, in March, 1867, is also a Republican. Its Legislature elected in September, 1865, stands: Senate, thirty-three Republican members and seven Democrats; House, fifty-five Republican members and twenty-five Democrats. The amendment to the Constitution abolishing slavery was ratified by California on the 18th of December, 1865.

When the intelligence of the assassination of President Lincoln reached San Francisco, the belief that it had been induced by the influence and teaching of disloyal newspapers was very general, and the determination was at once formed by citizens of San Francisco to put them down by force. Their proceedings are thus reported: "About three P. M. of the day of the President's death, a party of one hundred and fifty well-dressed men started for the office of the 'Democratic Press' and formed a semicircle around it. The leaders then went up stairs and threw the type, stands, and all the material of the office into the street, where what was not already destroyed was broken up, amid the cheers of an immense throng. The police of the city, about fifty in number, drilled as an infantry corps, arrived upon the spot with loaded muskets and fixed bayonets, when the party retired, having completed their work. The office at the time of being destroyed was draped in mourning, and the American flag was suspended in front at half-mast. The next office visited was that of the 'News Letter,' published by Mr. Marriott, an Englishman, which was also destroyed, the police arriving too late to prevent it. The office of the 'Catholic Monitor,' a disunion paper, was partially sacked before the arrival of the police. A demonstration was made upon the office of the 'Echo du Pacifique,' which was only saved by great efforts, and the representations that its destruction would involve that of the 'Alta,' a loyal paper in the same building. The 'Echo' was a French paper and had been very abusive toward our Government. The office of the 'Occidental,' of similar political sympathies, was also completely

destroyed. At the office of the 'Echo du Pacifique' Gen. McDowell made a speech, in which he intimated that he should have suppressed these papers, and that the 'Echo' should not be issued again. The offices of the 'Franco American' and the 'Voz de Mejico' were also partly destroyed, the latter by mistake. The inflammable population were so furious that there seemed no bounds to their rage, and several regiments of infantry and cavalry and the batteries were ordered out. The troops patrolled the streets all night. Those who led the rioters are named in the papers, but no arrests have been made."

CANNON, WILLIAM, Governor of Delaware, born in Bridgeville, Del., 1809, died at Philadelphia, March 1, 1865. He adopted religious views in 1825, and upon connecting himself with the Methodist Church, became a class-leader and exhorter before he had reached his twentieth year, and continued to hold these offices until his death. It was not until the breaking out of the war that Governor Cannon rose to a commanding position before the country. He had, however, been for many years a faithful public servant. In the year 1845 he was elected to the State legislature, and was reelected in 1849. Subsequently he was treasurer of the State. In 1861 he was a member of the Peace Congress, and "went there the firm friend of the Crittenden compromise, and of an unbroken Union." In 1864 he was elected governor of the State, which position he held until his death. As chief executive officer of a border commonwealth, he will take rank with the late Governor Hicks. With the Legislature of the State arrayed against him, it seemed at times to depend on the Governor alone to prevent the outbreak of civil war within her borders. To his firmness it is in great measure owing, that Delaware passed through this fiery trial unscathed. When, on one occasion, the legislature forbade compliance with a law of Congress, the Governor promptly announced by proclamation, that he would pardon every United States officer convicted by a State court for the performance of his duty to the Union. The Governor's illness and death was the result of over-exertion in assisting to put out a fire in Bridgeville.

CATRON, Hon. JOHN, one of the Associate Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, born in Wythe County, Va., 1778, died at Nashville, Tennessee, May 30, 1865. He was educated in the common schools of Virginia, and early developed a decided fondness for history, devouring with eagerness Fielding Smollett, Sterne, Goldsmith, Hume, and Gibbon. In 1812 he took up his residence in Tennessee, and entered upon the study of the law, devoting sixteen hours of the day for nearly four years to study. After serving his country in the New Orleans campaign under General Jackson, he became so popular in Tennessee that the Legislature elected him State Attorney. In 1818 he removed to Nashville, where he soon

attained a high rank in his profession; had much to do with chancery practice and actions of ejectment, and was particularly famous for enforcing the seven years' act of limitations in real actions. In December, 1824, he was chosen one of the Supreme Judges of the State. While on the bench he did his utmost to suppress the practice of duelling, and rigorously punished every offender, notwithstanding the fact that previous to his elevation he was himself a noted duellist. In 1836, through the operations of a new constitution adopted by the people of his State, Judge Catron was retired from the bench. In the following year he was appointed by President Jackson Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, which position he held until his death. Here he was particularly prominent for his familiarity with the laws applicable to cases involving conflicting titles to Western and Southern lands. His ability and integrity as a Judge were never doubted. He was regarded by the profession as fearless and incorruptible in the discharge of the exalted duties pertaining to his station. It was his rare and happy fortune to identify his fame with the judicial history of a State and a Nation. As a State Judge, his opinions are reported in Martin and Yerger, and the first eight volumes of "Yerger's Tennessee Reports," and he bore an important part in reducing to system and order the complicated land laws of that State, and establishing upon a just basis its criminal jurisprudence. As a National Judge, his opinions are reported in the later volumes of Peters, the twenty volumes of Howard, and the two volumes of Black's reports, and they form an enduring monument of his judicial attainments, patient and laborious research, untiring industry, and inflexible justice. He was justly proud of his elevated position, and spared no effort to adorn it. In his private residence in Washington he had collected a large law library, and set a noble example to the members of the Bar in the persevering zeal with which he consulted its volumes on all questions of national or personal interest existing in court.

In politics Judge Catron was a Democrat; but he did not belong to the States Rights school, who were in favor of dissolving the Union. He felt the profoundest solicitude for its preservation, and during the stormy session of Congress in 1860-'61, he exerted his influence with members of Congress and others, so far as he could properly do so, to prevent the civil war which has so recently terminated. In the midst of the terrible excitement which afterwards plunged Tennessee into the vortex of Secession, he was virtually ostracized and banished from the State, but endured his exclusion with heroic firmness and fortitude.

In 1862 he returned and reopened his court. But he manifested no feeling of vindictiveness toward those who had exiled him; on the contrary, in the all-abounding goodness of his heart, he threw over them the mantle of charity, and sought to protect them as far as was con-

sistent with his duty to his country. Judge Catron was a man of Herculean frame, and his physical health continued good until a few months previous to his death.

CATTLE PLAGUE (THE). This terrible scourge, known on the Continent of Europe and to some extent, also, in Great Britain, under the name of *RINDERPEST*, is not, as some have supposed, a new and hitherto unheard-of disease, but one which like the cholera or the plague has, at no very infrequent intervals, for centuries past, brought destruction upon the herds of Western Europe. Like the plague and the cholera, its home or birthplace seems to be in the East; and on the steppes of Eastern Russia, Siberia, and Turkistan it never dies out, though it is of a far milder type than when it visits the western countries of Europe. The "grievous murrain" which smote the cattle of Egypt, as a punishment for Pharaoh's obstinacy, was in all probability the same disease with that which has so often since that time fallen upon the herds of Egypt, and the countries of southwestern Europe. Homer, Plutarch, Livy, and Virgil, all allude often to pests among oxen; while Columella, at the beginning of the Christian era, in his *De Re Rustica*, describes their contagious character, and Vegetius, in the fourth century, gives a full account of the plague, and prescribes, as do the governmental officers of Europe at the present day, that the plague-stricken beasts should "with all diligence and care be separated from the herd, and be put apart by themselves, and that their carcasses be buried." In the year 376 of the Christian era, the cattle plague visited all parts of Europe, and Cardinal Baronius states that no cattle escaped, save such as were marked on the forehead with the sign of the cross.

The movement of large armies was generally followed by the cattle plague, the animals attached to the army commissariat propagating it with hardly an exception. In the ninth century it was thus widely distributed through Europe by the movements of Charlemagne's armies. The fourteenth century was remarkable for the prevalence of human plagues, the black death and other desolating epidemics ravaging the States of Europe fifteen times during that century, and being in each case either preceded or followed by grievous murrains among cattle. In England, horned cattle died by thousands, and the herdsmen, panic-stricken, fled from their herds, which roamed wildly about the country, carrying the plague into every district. One hundred and forty years later, in 1480, the "sweating sickness," which fell with such terrible severity upon the inhabitants of Europe, was accompanied by another murrain, which visited the British Islands as well as the Continent. There is no existing history of these murrains, which defines their character so fully as to enable us to say with certainty that they are identical with the disease now making such havoc with the English herds; but the presumption in favor

of their identity is strong, from the evident contagiousness of the plague, and the only measures of repression which were found successful in extirpating the disease, viz.: the separation of the diseased from sound stock, and the free use of the pole-axe to slaughter suspected animals, and their burial and the destruction of their hides, to prevent the spread of the contagion. Murraings were frequent on the Continent for the next two hundred and fifty years, but there seems to have been no general one in England after 1480, until 1714. It then appeared first in the neighborhood of London, and swept off many cattle; but the prompt slaughter of all suspected beasts, and their burial deep under the earth, proved effectual in suppressing it, and it did not extend its ravages over more than six or eight counties. Thirty years later, in 1745, it reappeared, and being dealt with less severely, was not extinguished under twelve years. The cattle plague of 1711-1714, though comparatively light in England, had raged with terrible severity on the Continent, one million five hundred thousand cattle having perished from it in the three years. The wars of Louis XIV., until his death in 1715, aided much in the propagation of the murrain, which was transmitted from one country to another by the long marches of his armies, and of the cattle on the hoof which accompanied them. The War of the Succession on the death of Charles VI. in 1740, was the signal for the commencement of another murrain more terrible than any which had preceded it. In eight years, 1740-1748, the western and central States of Europe alone lost three millions of horned beasts. The Hungarian cattle, used to feed the armies of Austria, carried with them the seeds of the plague, and communicated them to the cattle of Western Europe.

Early in 1745, this plague was brought into England from Holland, two calves which had been imported from that country communicating it to a herd of English cattle. The London cattle market was soon affected, but its spread was slow, and the Government did not deem it necessary to resort to very stringent measures for its suppression. A commission, whose powers extended only to Middlesex, was appointed in November, 1745, to prevent its spread. Inspectors, who were butchers and cowkeepers, were appointed to examine cowsheds and separate the sick from the sound beasts. The diseased animals were killed and buried twelve feet under ground, their hides being well slashed and their carcasses covered with two bushels of quicklime. The Government allowed forty shillings, about half the average price of cattle at that time, as compensation for the slaughtered beasts. The disease, however, continued to spread, the regulations for its suppression being but indifferently obeyed, and on the 12th of March, 1746, the first order in council for its more effectual eradication was issued. This order, after reciting the opinion of eminent physicians and cattle-breeders that the disease

was incurable, declared that the death of the infected beasts must be insisted upon. The following were the provisions of the order: "Plague-stricken beasts must be killed and buried with quicklime; the litter infected by them must be burned, and the sheds in which they died, cleaned, fumigated with sulphur, or gunpowder, and washed over with vinegar and water. Men who tended ailing beasts were not to go near sound stock till they had changed their clothes and washed their bodies. Convalescent cattle were not to be brought in contact with sound stock for a month. Travelling cattle were to be stopped in the highways for examination, and the sick beasts must be slaughtered. The local authorities who were intrusted with the execution of this order were authorized to appoint inspectors to see the rules enforced." This order was but partially enforced, nor were those that followed for the next eleven years much more generally obeyed. Some of the counties succeeded in ridding themselves of the pestilence, while others harbored it, and communicated it to those adjacent. Hence there arose a war of county against county, and a proscription of intercourse between the healthy and infected districts. In the second year of the plague, 100,000 head of cattle perished in Lincolnshire, and in the third year 70,000 in the two counties of Nottinghamshire and Cheshire. After nearly twelve years, the disease wore itself out by pure exhaustion, the animals susceptible to its influence having mostly perished. In February, 1759, a general thanksgiving was proclaimed for its cessation, no cases having occurred during the previous year. During the prevalence of this epidemic, every means of treatment or medication was resorted to in the vain hope of cure, but all in vain. Calomel, yeast, castor oil, porter, port, brandy, whiskey, and every thing else in the way of drugs was tried; copious bleedings and setons in the neck were prescribed, until it was found that no animal which was bled ever recovered; sweating and steaming were attempted, without success. There was another short outbreak of the murrain in England in 1768, and a more protracted and destructive one on the Continent; but in England it was speedily eradicated. Dr. Faust, from careful inquiry, computes that from 1711 to 1796 more than two hundred millions of horned cattle were cut off by this plague in Western Europe.

It has been already stated that the steppes of Eastern and Southeastern Russia, and Turkistan, were the birthplace and normal home of the Rinderpest. It is not there, however, the formidable and malignant disease which it becomes in moving westward. It is never absent from these great pasture grounds, but it is said not more than one-half of the animals affected by it die there, while in Hungary and Galicia, which are visited by it every six or seven years, the mortality is 65 per cent., and in England and Western Europe it is not less than 90 per cent.

The question, what is the character of the disease, has been one on which there has been great conflict of opinion. The French call it, "*Le typhus contagieux des bêtes à cornes* (the contagious typhus of horned beasts); but the Edinburgh committee of physicians and veterinarians, after numerous dissections, declare that it is not analogous to typhoid or typhus fever, but resembles more an internal and malignant scarlatina. It affects chiefly the mucous membranes, there being a general congestive but non-inflammatory vascularity of these membranes, especially in the alimentary tract, and the disease is marked by a complete arrest of the digestive functions, the stomach of the animal generally containing an enormous mass of dry undigested food, often amounting to one or two hundred pounds in weight, which acts as a sponge to absorb new liquid food or medicine, and resists its absorption into the system. The disease is not, evidently, the pleuro-pneumonia which excited so much alarm in this country a few years ago, and which was suppressed in Massachusetts by the relentless slaughter of all the animals affected; nor does it seem to bear much analogy to the small-pox, with which it has been confounded by some recent writers in England. That it is the same disease which committed the ravages which we have already described, in England and on the Continent in 1745-'57, and 1768, will be evident from the following descriptions, the first being from Layard's Essay, "*On the contagious Distemper among the Horned Cattle*," published in 1757; the second from Professor Seifman, a Polish Veterinarian, of the disease as it existed in that country; and the third, the official description of the disease at present raging in Great Britain, drawn up for the orders in council by Professor Simonds. Dr. Layard says: "The first appearance of this infection is a decrease of appetite; a poking out of the neck, implying some difficulty in deglutition; a shaking of the head as if the ears were tickled; a hanging down of the ears, a dulness of the eyes. After that, a stupidity and unwillingness to move, great debility, total loss of appetite, a running at the eyes and nose. . . . A constant diarrhoea, roofs of their mouths and barbs ulcerated. They groan much, are worse in the evening, and mostly lie down."

Professor Seifman's description is: "The beast eats little, stops its rumination, becomes nervous; the mucous membranes, gum, mouth, &c., throw out pimples; there is a running at the eyes and nose, and this running after a time gives out an offensive smell; an offensive diarrhoea ensues, the beast coughs, becomes thinner, sometimes grinds its teeth, lies down with its head at one side, and dies without effort."

Professor Simonds says: "The cattle show great depression of the vital powers, frequent shivering, staggering gait, cold extremities, quick and short breathing, drooping head, red-den ed eyes, with a discharge from them, and also from the nostrils, of a mucous nature, raw-

looking places on the inner side of the lips and roof of the mouth, diarrhoea or dysenteric purging."

Of these three descriptions, careful observers say that Layard's best depicts the disease as it now appears in Great Britain, except that there is somewhat less of the outward eruptions now than in his time. The pathological descriptions derived from the dissection of the victims to the disease in 1750, both in England and on the continent, and those made during the existing epidemic, are equally close in their resemblance to each other, and demonstrate beyond the possibility of a doubt the identity of the two epidemics. That the disease is eminently contagious and may be communicated through the clothing of a herd-keeper, the litter, or even the wood of the stall, or from the transmission upon the horns or hoofs of a sound animal who had been with diseased cattle, is fully demonstrated. The wind, the highways over which an infected herd has passed, and even still waters and running streams, also serve to propagate the contagion. Its ravages have been hitherto confined to neat cattle, but it is a peculiarity of the present epidemic that sheep are also affected, and not as heretofore mere carriers of the infection, themselves insusceptible to the virus.

This contagiousness of the disease suggested long since that there might be advantage in inoculation. The experiment was tried extensively in England, but without any good result. The inoculated animals had the disease as severely, and after the same period of incubation (from five to nine days), as those who were infected by their contact with diseased animals. In Russia, however, experiments which have been made on the herds in the steppes have proved more successful. These experiments, which have been conducted for the last fifteen years by eminent veterinary surgeons, have been reported by Professor Jessen, of Dorpat, Haller, Vicq d'Azyr, Abelgaard, Adami, Viborg, and Kausch, and serve to settle some points of interest. One of these is that, as in the case of the vaccine disease, the intensity of action of the inoculating virus decreases, according as it passes through a succession of beasts, or, as it is technically termed, through successive generations. Thus, at the Veterinary School at Charkow fifty per cent., or the normal number, of steppe oxen died at the first inoculation; but after the inoculating matter had passed through six cows, the seventh generation, or running from the nose of the sixth inoculated cow, only produced one death in thirteen cases. In 1853 upwards of a thousand beasts were inoculated with matter of the seventh generation, and not more than sixty died. In 1854 it was determined to inoculate oxen in the steppes themselves, and a large number were so treated, with the astonishing success that not a single animal died. This was a peculiarly favorable year; but, notwithstanding the exceptional character of the result, it

holds out hopes that means may be discovered to mitigate the intensity of the virus. Although none of these inoculated animals died in 1854, and few even sickened, they were all found to be efficiently protected against future attacks of the disease. Many of them were confined in the same sheds with beasts suffering from the Rinderpest at intervals for several years, but none of them received the contagion. In 1857 the Grand Duchess Helen founded an institution for inoculation on her property of Karlowka in Paltava, with such success that only three per cent. of the inoculated animals died. It must, however, be distinctly borne in mind that these favorable results have only been obtained with oxen of the steppe race. Cattle of other races are much more unfavorably disposed to inoculation. Before mitigation of the virus appears in their case, it must pass through from thirteen to fifteen generations. Drouyn de L'Huys, in his proposal for a Sanitary Congress at Constantinople, with the view of damming up cholera at its source, so that it may not reach Europe, has given us a hint which might be well applied to the cattle plague. Why should Central and Western Europe be periodically devastated by this murrain, when it might be prevented by the inoculation of the cattle in the steppes? Sheep and goats, it has been ascertained, can be rapidly inoculated from cattle. Sometimes they resist the disease, but generally the sheep have it in the most virulent form, and die. The disease does not seem, according to the experiments of Professor Röll of Vienna, to be mitigated by passing through the sheep, in whatever number of generations it may be tried; at least, the virus shows its full malignity when it is taken from the sheep and again tried upon cattle.

The first appearance of the cattle plague in England during the past year was at Lambeth, in the metropolitan district of London, on the 24th of June, and at Islington and Hackney on the 27th of June. The source whence it was introduced is a little uncertain, some authorities asserting that it came by a cargo of Russian cattle imported from Revel a short time before the plague was manifested, while others contend that it came from Holland, through the ports of which Hungarian cattle are sent to the English market as Dutch beasts, and many circumstances favor the assumption that the latter was the route by which it was brought. The Russian cattle had been two weeks on their way from Russia to Hull, were pronounced sound and free from disease by two veterinary surgeons, who examined them carefully on their landing there, on the 28th of May, and no case of the disease occurred until the 24th of June, twenty-six days later, and then not among these animals. As the period of incubation rarely if ever exceeds nine days, it seems absurd to suppose that they could have introduced the disease. On the other hand, her Majesty's Consul-General at Hamburg states that Hungarian cattle did introduce the Rinderpest into Utrecht in Holland

in May, and the constant exportation of cattle from that country to England, includes many Hungarian animals. It is certain that the disease appeared first in newly imported Dutch cows. Its spread into the English counties from the metropolis was very speedy. Early in July, Norfolk and many of the other counties had had cases of it, and in some instances its ravages had been frightful. In London, of about 15,000 cattle in the city and vicinity, full 12,000 perished by October, including entire dairies like those of Lord Granville and Miss Burdett Coutts, notwithstanding the utmost care and medical attention. Notwithstanding the utmost care to prevent its spreading, the facilities for its transmission were such that in a short time nearly all the English counties, and most of those of the lowlands in Scotland, were visited by the plague, and could trace it directly to its source in London. It was peculiarly malignant in its character, not over four per cent. of the cattle attacked recovering. The Government acted with commendable promptness in the matter, the Lords of the Privy Council holding frequent meetings, and issuing their first Order in Council on the 24th of July, and subsequent ones on the 11th, 18th, 25th, and 26th of August and the 22d of September. These Orders in Council were generally similar in character to those issued in 1746, requiring the local authorities (the justices, &c.) to appoint inspectors in all cases where the disease appeared, and prohibiting the removal of any diseased cattle, or those which had been exposed to infection, without a license from the inspector. They also authorized the inspector to seize and slaughter, or cause to be slaughtered, any animal laboring under such disease, and provided for the burial in deep graves, with quicklime and the slashing of the hides of such animals, and the use of quicklime upon the carcasses, as well as the thorough disinfection of all the premises where the disease had prevailed. The exportation of cattle to Ireland and to the Island of Lewis was also prohibited. These measures proving ineffectual, owing to the apathy and inefficiency of the local authorities in many parts of the kingdom, a Royal Commission was issued by the Queen on the 29th of September, addressed to certain members of both Houses of Parliament, and men of scientific and medical attainments, requiring them to investigate into the origin and nature of the disease, and to frame regulations with a view of preventing its spread, and of averting any future outbreak of it. The names of these commissioners were: Earl Spencer, K.G., Lord Cranborne, M.P., Right Hon. Robert Lowe, M.P., Lyon Playfair, C.B., C. S. Read, M.P., R. Quain, M.D., Bence Jones, M.D., E. A. Parkes, M.D., Thomas Wornald, President of College of Surgeons, Robert Coely, Surgeon, Charles Spooner, Principal of Veterinary College, and J. R. McClean, President of Institution of Civil Engineers, with Mr. Montagu Bernard, Secretary.

The commissioners sat daily for a month after their appointment, and on the 31st of October issued their first report, the result of careful and extensive inquiry in all parts of the kingdom, and in the countries of Western Europe. Unfortunately, however, there was a disagreement among the members of the commission on some points of vital importance; all of the commissioners, except Mr. McClean, believed that the disease could only be arrested by stopping for a time the movements of cattle throughout England, Scotland, and Wales. The majority of the commissioners recommended that this stoppage should be absolute, while Lords Spencer and Cranborne, Mr. Read, and Dr. Bence Jones were contented with preventing the movement of lean or store stock, while they would permit fat cattle to go to fairs and markets for immediate slaughter. Mr. McClean believed that there was no reason for alarm and no cause for action. Able as was the minority report, it could not be concealed that the only measure which promised success was one of simple prohibition of all movement. If any exception were made, the order would be evaded, and the purpose of the Government to prevent the spread of the disease, foiled. The majority demonstrated in their report that this would not involve any considerable hardship, as fat beeves could be slaughtered as easily in the country as in the city, and their carcasses sent to market. The price of meat would be enhanced for a time, it was true, but if the disease was allowed to spread it would be enhanced for years. On other points, such as the extinguishment of the seeds of the plague by disinfectants, the adoption of hygienic measures, in the care of cattle, the removal of manure heaps, the enforcement of greater cleanliness, and the avoidance of overcrowding, the report of the commissioners was very valuable. The following were the methods of accomplishing the disinfection of premises which have been visited by the plague, recommended in the report:

"1. When animals attacked with the plague have become convalescent, they ought to be kept apart from sound beasts for three weeks, and even then not to be permitted to associate with them till they have been thoroughly washed with (Macdougall's) disinfecting soap, or with a weak tepid solution of chloride of lime. The whole body, hoofs and horns, should be thoroughly washed, and the nostrils and mouth sponged out.

"2. During all the time that animals suffer from the disease, the litter fouled by them, with the dung and discharge on it, should be burned, and not be allowed to mix with other manure. It contains the poison in a concentrated form, and it is questionable whether it can be disinfected efficiently.

"3. The sheds in which the diseased animals have been must be thoroughly purified and disinfected. The roof and walls should be washed with lime. The floor and wood work, after being thoroughly washed with water containing

washing soda, should be again washed all over with a solution of chloride of lime, containing 1 lb. to a pailful.

"4. The hides and horns of animals which have died of the disease ought to be buried with the animal, according the Orders in Council. But the hides and horns of those which have been killed to escape the spread of the infection, must be dipped in, or thoroughly mopped all over, and, in the case of the hides, on both sides, with water containing 4 lbs. of chloride of lime to three pailfuls of water. Unless this be done with care, a most fertile source of contagion will be preserved.

"5. The attendants upon diseased beasts should not be allowed to go near the sound animals in the same farm."

Equally important were their suggestions in regard to the improvements of the stables and cattle sheds necessary to render them less susceptible to the destructive influences of the plague:

"1. As no successful plan of treatment has yet been proposed, the owners of cattle must, in the mean time, rely chiefly upon those hygienic measures which the experience acquired in other diseases shows to be important in preventing the spread of contagion, and in diminishing the intensity and area of an attack, when, in spite of such measures, they invade a locality hitherto uninfected. In the case of the cattle plague it is certain that no sanitary precautions can prevent the spread of the disease when it is actually introduced; still, from analogy, we may draw the conclusion that some effect may be produced on the rapidity of the spread, or on the virulence of the disease, by placing cattle in the conditions most favorable to health.

"2. With this view it is important to secure strict cleanliness, good drainage, efficient ventilation, and to prevent overcrowding in all cattle-sheds and cowhouses. No accumulations of litter fouled by the voiding of animals should be permitted in, or even close to the houses or sheds in which cattle are kept. Chloride of lime, carbolic acid, or the powder containing carbolate of lime, and sulphite of lime (in plain English, 'Macdougall's Disinfecting Powder'), should be used. The latter is probably the best; it contains a well-known disinfecting substance which is formed when sulphur is burned, and also a strongly antiseptic material, creosote, from coal tar. The sheds themselves should be swept and washed daily, and sprinkled with disinfectants. But such purification of the air of cattle-sheds or houses will be insufficient to preserve health if the cattle be overcrowded. Pure air and nourishing diet are of great importance in protecting animals from the attacks of disease. Pure water, derived from sources uncontaminated by drainage from surrounding dung-heaps, or from the absorption of vitiated air which hovers around them and in the sheds of cattle, is equally essential.

"Every farmer should look to the housing of his cattle in the present emergency, as he would

look to the housing of his own family, if cholera or other formidable disease were in his neighborhood. Thorough cleanliness of the houses, good drainage, freedom from evil smells, nourishing diet, with pure air and water, cannot give immunity from the disease, but they may offer obstacles to its propagation."

It would have been well to have added to these humane suggestions some stern rebuke, and to have insisted on a compulsory reformation of the cruel and often fatal sufferings inflicted on the poor animals in their transportation to market, whether by railroad cattle-trains, or by steamers. The mitigation of these evils in Great Britain, as well as in the United States, is imperatively demanded, for the sake of humanity as well as for the prevention of the transmission of disease.

But the unfortunate difference of opinion among the commissioners in regard to the movement of cattle gave rise to protracted discussion, and meantime no active measures beyond those indicated by the Orders in Council were adopted, and the disease continued to spread with fearful rapidity. Some of the counties and larger towns, in a spirit of self-preservation, prohibited the driving of beeves for slaughter, or any other purpose, over their lines, and a strife had begun to ensue between different counties. Up to the 1st of January, 1866, 78,549 cases were reported in England alone, and this was known to be far below the true number. Of these, 55,422 were reported as having died of the disease, or been killed because hopelessly infected with it. Good judges believed that the number of cases had considerably exceeded 100,000, and that not less than 90,000 had fallen victims to it. For the week ending January 6, 1866, the number of new cases was reported as 7,693, an increase of 1,437 over the previous week. The efforts made to arrest its progress had thus far been entirely unsuccessful. The number of horned cattle in the United Kingdom was estimated at between seven and eight millions, and their estimated value at about £70,000,000. The prevalence of the rinderpest had already greatly enhanced the price of meats, and the disease having extended its ravages to sheep, goats, and it was said, swine also, there was a sad prospect for animal food among the poorer classes. During the autumn of 1865, after other means of treatment had proved ineffectual, certain homœopathic physicians recommended the use of homœopathic remedies, and predicted most confidently a favorable result. The trial of these was made with great thoroughness, but they proved utterly powerless, and so far as could be ascertained did not protract the life of the animal in the least.

The United States Government very wisely, at the commencement of the first session of the present Congress, prohibited the importation of cattle and sheep from abroad, and also from Canada. As we have a sufficient number of both horned cattle and sheep for our own pur-

poses, and there is no necessity for supply from abroad, it would be running a useless risk at the present time to hazard the introduction of this terrible murrain into our country, by importing foreign cattle. With proper precautions, there is no necessity that this cattle plague should visit this country. It can be kept away by the maintenance of a proper quarantine, and this should be rigidly enforced.

CENTRAL AMERICA. There are now in Central America the following five independent republics:

I. **Guatemala.** President, Vincente Cerna, elected on March 8, 1865, for the term of four years. The new ministry, formed in May, 1865, is composed as follows: Justice, Public Worship, and the Interior, Manuel Echeverría; Exterior, Marquis Pedro de Aycinena; Finances and War, Manuel Cerezo. Minister of the United States near the Government of Guatemala, Fitz Henry Warren (appointed in 1865); Minister of Guatemala at Washington, Ant. José Yrisarri. Area, 44,500 square miles; population, about 1,000,000. The capital, Guatemala, has about 60,000 inhabitants. Receipts of the Government, in 1863, \$1,852,357; expenditures, \$1,344,419. The regular army numbers 3,200 men; the militia, 12,978. Value of imports, in 1862, \$1,093,044; of exports, \$1,586,900.

II. **San Salvador.** President (April, 1865, to April, 1869), Fr. Dueñas. Ministers: J. Arbizu (Exterior and Public Instruction), J. J. Bonilla (Interior), Cruz Ulloa (Finances and War). Minister of the United States, near the Government of San Salvador, James R. Partridge (since 1863). Minister of San Salvador at Washington, A. J. Yrisarri. Area, 7,500 square miles; population about 600,000. Capital, San Salvador. The receipts in the budget for 1865 are estimated at 750,000; the expenditures at \$250,000. The army consists of 1,000 regular troops, and 5,000 militia. Imports, in 1861, were valued at \$1,319,727; exports, at \$2,340,778.

III. **Honduras.** President, José Maria Medina (Feb., 1864, to Feb., 1868). Ministers: Fr. Cruz (Exterior and Interior); Mariano Alvarez (War and Finances). Area, 33,000 square miles; population, about 350,000. Capital, Comayagua, with about 18,000 inhabitants. Receipts of the Government, about \$250,000. Minister of the United States at Comayagua, Thomas H. Clay; Minister of Honduras at Washington, Louis Molina (who now represents both Nicaragua and Costa Rica).

IV. **Nicaragua.** President (1863 to 1867), Tomas Martinez. The cabinet is composed of the following ministers: Exterior, P. Zeledon; Finances, Dr. J. F. Aguilar; Instruction, Justice, and Worship, A. Silva; Interior and War, Don B. Salinas. Area, 39,000 square miles; population, about 400,000. Public receipts in 1863 and 1864, \$1,118,241; expenditures, \$1,109,087; surplus, \$9,184. Capital, Managua, with about 10,000 inhabitants. Nicaraguan minister at Washington, Louis Molina; U. S. Minister near

the Government of Nicaragua, Andrew B. Dickinson.

V. Costa Rica. President (1863 to 1866), Dr. Jesus Ximenez. Ministers: Exterior, Public Instruction, Worship, and Justice, J. Vello; Inferior and Public Works, Ulloa; Finances, War, and Navy, Echeverria. Area, 16,250 square miles; population (in 1860), 126,750. Capital, San José, with 80,000 inhabitants. Minister of the United States near the Government of Costa Rica (since 1861), Ch. N. Riotte; Minister of Costa Rica at Washington, Louis Molina. Public receipts, about \$1,000,000.

The most important event in the history of the Central American States was the attempt, made in May, 1865, by the former President Barrios, of San Salvador, to regain his power. The towns of San Miguel and La Unión declared themselves in his favor, yet on May 29, his partisans under Gen. Cabanas were completely routed and dispersed in the vicinity of La Unión. Gen. Barrios himself, when on the point of embarking with a number of his adherents for San Salvador, was arrested by the Government of Nicaragua in the port of Realajo, and in July delivered up to the Government of San Salvador, upon the condition that his life should be spared. The promise was given by San Salvador, but not kept, and Gen. Barrios was shot; an act which produced everywhere, but especially in Central America, the greatest indignation.

The Captain-General and President for Life of Guatemala, Rafael Carrera, died on April 14th. Toward the close of the year a revolutionary movement broke out in Guatemala.

CHEMISTRY. It is designed, in this article and those which under other titles relate to its subject, to furnish at least some hints or landmarks of the progress, since our last previous notice (1863), of this comprehensive and most important science; though it must be acknowledged in the outset that, to the attitude and tendencies in our time of chemical theory and philosophy, it will be least of all possible to do adequate justice. For the substance of some of the brief notices following, and in some instances also for their language, the compiler is indebted to the valuable abstracts and notes of Prof. Walcott Gibbs, in the *American Journal of Science*, and of the scientific department of the (London) *Reader*.

I. ELEMENTS. The prospect of a speedy and considerable increase in the number of known chemical elements, especially as arising in the years 1860-'61 through the spectroscopic discovery of *caesium*, *rubidium*, and *thallium*, has not since been sustained. True, the existence of elements of the three metals just named is placed beyond a doubt, as is also that of *indium* (Orc., 1863). As to *siderium*, the writer has met with no further information. It has, however, become admitted that the supposed elements, *donarium*, *norium*, and *wodanum*, are not such; and to the catalogue of bodies for a time mistakenly considered as elementary, it

appears that, as early claimed by Nicklès and Gibbs, *wasium* must now be added. Quite recently, Delafontaine and Popp have, independently of each other, examined Bahr's assumed oxide of wasium; and while both agree that this contains no new element, the former regards it as an oxide of cerium alone, the latter as such oxide mixed with those of yttrium and didymium. It is stated also that Popp's researches have thrown doubt on the elementary character of *lanthanum*. The question as to *erbium* and *terbium* will be considered in the article **YTTRIUM**. See, also **IODIUM**, **THALLIUM**, **THORIUM**, and **TUNGSTEN**.

II. ALLOTROPIC STATES. In addition, under this head, to the brief notices below, the reader is referred to the article **OZONE**.

Allotropic Conditions of Iron.—These, with the part they are believed to play in metallurgy, form the subject of a communication by M. De Cizancourt (*Comptes Rendus*, lxi., 578; *Chem. News*, October 27, 1865). The author believes that, in determining the qualities of iron, chemical composition is secondary, the controlling characteristics being the relations existing between the properties of the various products, and the degrees of oxidation of the ores the metal is obtained from. He adopts the distinction in respect to iron made by Berzelius, into *ferrosum* and *ferricum*, considering these as allotropic conditions analogous to those of sulphur and phosphorus. *Ferrosum* is the metal as existing in the ores of protoxide; *ferricum*, that present in anhydrous peroxide ores. The most characteristic form of *ferrosum* is the white crystalline cast-iron (*spiegel-eisen*), readily produced especially from carbonates. This has a strong affinity for carbon, and is to be ranked chemically with bodies combining with one equivalent of oxygen. *Ferricum* gives the malleable metal, and also blistered iron; and the carbon which it takes up at high temperatures, it tends to part with on cooling. The former modification easily passes into the latter; but the reverse change can scarcely be effected. *Ferricum* belongs to the class of bodies which combine with three or more equivalents of oxygen, and always with an uneven number.

Allotropic Silicium and Carbon in Cast-Iron, and their Influence on the Production of Steel by the Bessemer Process.—In a paper on this subject, in the *Chem. News*, June 16, 1865, Dr. T. L. Phipson argues the existence, as has long been admitted in case of carbon, also of two modifications of silicium in the various sorts of cast or pig iron. He distinguishes the modifications as *aO* and *bO*, *aSi* and *bSi*. He concludes that mere analysis of samples of iron proves little, and that the condition in which the constituents just named exist in them must be especially considered. It matters little how much carbon or silicium may be present in a pig iron, in order that it may make good Bessemer steel; but it is important that both the elements named should be present almost wholly

in the free state, that is, as δO and δSi . This paper, however, and the former, are chiefly interesting in connection with practical metallurgy.

An Application of Plastic Sulphur.—M. Dietzenbacher's modification of sulphur, by incorporation of iodine, carbon, &c. (noticed in the volume for 1863), has been proposed as a suitable material for making large plates for electrical machines, and which will be unaffected by moisture and other atmospheric influences.

M. A. Keller has recently stated that he has not succeeded in obtaining sulphur in a plastic condition by any of the admixtures named, unless he poured the fused sulphur either into cold water, or in a very thin layer upon a very cold porcelain tile.

III. COMPOUNDS. But few compounds of an organic nature will here be included, such being mainly reserved for a place in the article ORGANIC CHEMISTRY, &c., which see. It has been convenient, also, to speak in the preceding division of certain compounds under title of the element to which they belong, as under YTTRIUM, &c., and especially THALLIUM.

Alumina and Silica.—Pure alumina chemically prepared, is less refractory than chemically pure silica; but pure native alumina is more refractory than native silica (rose quartz of Norway, rock crystal or amethyst). Basic silicates of alumina are more refractory than acid, and clays are more refractory the more alumina they contain. (Note in *Amer. Jour. of Science*, from *Jour. für Prakt. Chem.*, xci., 19.)

Solubility of Gold in Acids.—The discovery by Mr. A. Reynolds of the solubility to some extent of gold in sulphuric acid, to which a little nitric acid is added, is mentioned by him in brief notes in the *Chemical News*, Jan. 23 and Oct. 1, 1864. The gold was dissolved from its alloy with silver, and in small amount. In a still later note, he states that the solution is favored by presence in the sulphuric acid of a little water (above that of the monohydrated acid, it would appear).

In the journal named, Oct. 8th, Mr. J. Spiller confirms the result stated, having apparently met with still better success. He says: "Native gold, and more quickly the precipitated form of the same metal, are soluble on digestion with hot concentrated sulphuric acid mixed with a little nitric acid, with the production of a yellow solution, which, on being diluted with water, lets fall a precipitate of gold, the color of which is either bluish purple or bronze brown, according as it is viewed by transmitted or reflected light." Some modification of the tint, however, occurs by presence of extraneous salts. By making a plate of gold the positive terminal of a few cells of a Grove's battery, and in nine parts sulphuric acid to one of nitric, Mr. Spiller secured solution of the gold with deposit of a bright gold surface on the other (platinum) terminal.

New Nitrogen Compounds.—Deville had

shown that certain elements, as boron, silicon, titanium, and magnesium, can combine directly with nitrogen. By exposing filings of magnesium to a current of perfectly dry nitrogen, MM. Geuther and Briegleb obtain a nitride of that metal, NMg . As Uhrlaub had shown, they find that chromium in like manner yields a nitride, NCr . Aluminium submitted to the action of nitrogen augments by 8 per cent. of its weight, and heated zinc absorbs a little nitrogen; while tungsten and molybdenum are not acted on.

New Compounds, apparently allied to Ammonia.—In course of a discussion before the British Association, 1865, Dr. Hofmann alluded to a "series of extraordinary bodies" lately detected by Dr. Lossen, and mentioned by the latter before the Berlin Academy. It is well known that among the products of the action of nitric acid upon certain metals, ammonia invariably occurs; and this would now appear to be but the last product in a series of such occurring between nitric acid and ammonia, and one of the bodies belonging to which Lossen has isolated. The new body, having the composition H_2NO , might be called protoxide of ammonia. It combines with acids, producing a series of magnificent salts, easily crystallizable. This body may be considered as ammonia from which one atom of hydrogen is displaced by the group HO , by some chemists termed hydroxyl, by others hydoryl; and the name *hydorylamine* has been assigned to it. The simplest method of obtaining it is that of submitting nitrate of ethyle to the action of metallic zinc, in presence of an acid.

Solution of Metallic Oxides in Fused Caustic Alkalies.—M. Stanislas Meunier has presented to the French Academy two memoirs on the subject indicated in the title here given. In the first of these he had shown that the oxides of mercury, bismuth, and cadmium dissolve quite freely in caustic potash or soda, kept fused, the result obtained on cooling and washing being differently colored powders, which appeared to represent definite combinations. In his second note (June 12, 1865), the author especially considers the reaction with binoxide of mercury, and the action of the fused alkalies upon the earths. From solution of the former a violet-colored body was obtained, its composition that of $\text{KO}, 2\text{HgO}$. Magnesia, baryta, strontia, and lime readily dissolved in the fused alkalies, but more freely in potash than in soda. These solutions of the earths appear to possess powerful oxidizing properties; since they dissolve many of the metals, including silver, iron, copper, lead, tin, antimony, and platinum, but not gold, raising some at least of these metals at the same time to a high state of oxidation. The authors believe that, during the reactions, the production of peroxides of the alkalies takes place.

Properties of Liquefied Carbonic Acid.—A communication on this subject, by Mr. G. Gore, appears in the *Philosophical Transactions*

(R. S.), 1861. The author describes a mode of manipulation by which carbonic acid was liquefied in small quantities in glass tubes, and with safety to the operator, although the pressure was as great as from 500 to 1,100 lbs. per square inch; and by which also various solid substances could be introduced into the acid so existing—the glass tubes permitting observation of the action taking place. The acid dissolved white phosphorus, anhydrous boracic acid, the iodide of sulphur, the biniodide and the perchloride of phosphorus, the bromides of arsenic and antimony, naphthaline, gamboge, and especially iodine and camphor; while upon a very large number of bodies it exerted no influence. It discolored gutta-percha, and produced in caoutchouc a considerable increase of volume.

Properties of liquefied Hydrochloric Acid Gas.—At the meeting of the Royal Society, May 4, 1865, Mr. Gore presented a paper on this subject, the method of experiment being similar to that indicated above. The pressure obtained was believed to be about 700 lbs. to the square inch; and the acid being in some cases liquid at intervals only [or sometimes, it appears, only about the body introduced], the results are modified by these circumstances; though the author considers that the action was thus probably increased.

The results of a great number of experiments show that for solid bodies in general the liquefied anhydrous acid has but a feeble solvent power; much feebler, indeed, than the same acid in its ordinary condition, as mixed with water. The facts may indicate low solvent power chiefly, and not to the same extent a low chemical activity, the latter becoming hindered by formation of insoluble films over the bodies immersed. Out of 86 solid bodies the liquefied acid dissolved but 12, and some of these only in minute degree; viz.: of 5 metal-iodides, 1—iodine; of 15 metals, 1—aluminium; of 22 oxides, 5—titanic acid, arsenious and arsenic acids, teroxide of antimony, and oxide of zinc; of 9 carbonates, none; of 8 sulphides, 1—tersulphide of antimony; of 7 chlorides, 2—pentachloride of phosphorus, and protochloride of tin; and of 7 organic bodies, 2 only. Oxides generally it converted into chlorides, and many carbonates also. The chlorate and nitrate of potash were decomposed. In the latter case, the liberated carbonic acid did not escape in bubbles; and as the author had formerly shown that carbonic and gaseous hydrochloric acids liquefied together did not separate, but were intimately dissolved, it is probable the like liquefaction and solution of the former took place in the cases referred to. The author mentioned that tubes, charged in October, 1860, with liquefied carbonic acid, had suffered no leakage by February, 1865.

Synthesis of Organic Compounds.—A sort of general view of the subject of the chemical synthesis of bodies known as organic, and which had formerly been obtained only through the agency of the vital processes in plants and ani-

mals, or through decomposition of products furnished by them, will be found in this *CYCLOPEDIA* for June, 1862—the examples of *alcohol* and *acetylene* being further considered in the volume for 1863. The number of instances of new syntheses of bodies of the class referred to is continually increasing, and new methods are in some cases discovered for such as had been already accomplished.

To several cases of syntheses of organic compounds proper, and of such compounds as might naturally be derivatives from some of these, it will be proper to refer briefly in this place. Thus, M. Schöyen has effected the production of *butyric acid* from the simpler body, ethyle gas, by means of successive reactions with chlorine, acetate of potash and acetic acid, and baryta. M. Freund has produced *acetone*, $C_3H_6O_2$, by action of chloride of acetylene on zinc-methylene; and M. Friedel has obtained the same substance by reaction of methylate of sodium [query: sodium-methylene?] with *chloroacetone*, C_2H_3Cl . This last body had been previously obtained by M. Harnitz-Harnitzsky, by reaction of chlorocarbonic acid (phosgene gas), $C_2O_2Cl_2$, with aldehyde. M. Semenov has prepared *ethylene* (olefiant gas) by heating a mixture by weight of 1 part absolute alcohol and 5 parts sulphuric acid; the introduction of sand to prevent frothing is unnecessary, and with careful heating the liberation of the gas commences at 100° , and is quite regular. By a method similar to one of those adopted by M. Berthelot for obtaining *acetylene*—the abstracting from bromide of ethylene of two molecules of bromhydric acid—M. Rebol in 1863 succeeded in forming a new hydrocarbon, a colorless liquid of the composition denoted by $C_{10}H_8$, to which he assigned the name of *calerylene*. This was obtained by heating in a tube sealed by aid of a lamp-flame, and for 140 hours the bromide of amylene with an alcoholic solution of potassa. By methods also similar, M. Sawitzsch, setting out from propylene, has procured *allylene*; and M. Caventou, starting with butylene, has obtained *crotonylene*.

MM. Berthelot and De Luca, by treating iodide of allyle with an alloy of tin and sodium, in 1856, separated the then new hydrocarbon, *allyle*, its formula being, according to them, C_3H_5 . Wurtz, however, is led by his examination of this body to double the combining proportions thus stated, giving C_6H_{10} . He has accordingly proposed for it the name of *diallyle*; and he has made it the starting-point of an extended series of new reactions and products. From *benzophenone*, $C_{14}H_{10}O_2$, the acetone corresponding to benzoic acid, M. Linnemann has obtained also an extensive series of compounds. Frankland and Duppa have succeeded in producing synthetically, not only an acid identical or isomeric with *butyric acid*—by action of iodide of methyle on disodium-acetic ether—but also the *butyric* and *capronic ethers*, the former by action of sodium on ace-

tic ether, and again of iodide of ethyle on the product first obtained. They do not decide at present whether the acids having the formula of butyric acid are identical, or only isomeric. These facts, thus briefly recorded, convey but meagre hints of what is being done in the way of the synthetic production and the transformations of organic bodies and their products.

Acetic and Caproic Acids.—Some time since, M. Harnitz-Harnitzsky effected the synthesis of benzoic acid, by reaction of chloro-carbonic acid with benzole. He has more recently (*Comptes Rendus*, May 1, 1865) extended the method to the series of hydrocarbons homologous with marsh-gas; and he has thus artificially prepared acetic acid, and its homologue, caproic acid. For the first-named of these, marsh-gas being passed along with chloro-carbonic acid into a vessel heated to 120°, a reaction occurs, in which the two former give place to chloride of acetylene and chlorhydric acid: thus, $C_2H_4 + C_2O_2Cl_2 = C_2H_2O_2Cl + HCl$. The greater part of the chloride of acetylene being collected in a vessel connected with the receiver, and which contained caustic soda [in solution, it appears; though one account speaks of addition of water only, making no mention of the alkali], the final result was an acetate of soda, from which the acetic acid is of course readily separable. So, the oxychloride of carbon (chloro-carbonic acid) with hydride of amyle, $C_{10}H_{12}$, furnished chloride of caproyle and chlorhydric acid, from the former of which caproic acid was ultimately obtained.

Substitutions among Alcohol-Radicals, in their Compounds.—We can in this place barely refer to two interesting papers, by C. Friedel and J. M. Crafts jointly, given in the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, July, 1865—the first entitled, "On the Replacement of one Alcoholic Radical by another in Compounds of the Ether Class;" and the second, "On Etherification." As an example of the results obtained by the authors, it was found that a mixture of acetate of ethyle and amyle alcohol, heated for 48 hours to about 250° C., and distilled, gave acetate of amyle and common alcohol; while, upon heating in like manner and distilling a mixture of the two latter bodies (time given, 40 hours, and temperature 240°) the reverse change to acetate of ethyle and amyle alcohol occurred.

IV. PHYSICO-CHEMICAL PHENOMENA AND PRINCIPLES.—In connection with the notices of certain interesting phenomena to be given under this head, and of which latter some are mentioned for the first time in this work, will be included also the statement of such applications as in each case have been suggested or actually carried into effect. (See also the separate article, DIALYSIS.)

Permeability of Heated Metals to Gases.—MM. Deville and Troost first proved the fact of permeability of metals at an elevated temperature to gases, by showing the passage, under such circumstances, of the gas, hydrogen,

through the pores of a white-hot platinum tube. In one form of these experiments, tubes of hammered and of cast platinum ($\frac{1}{16}$ th inch thick, in one case) were fitted by means of corks into the axis of a shorter and wider tube of glazed porcelain; a slow current of pure and dry hydrogen was then maintained through the porcelain tube, whilst a current of dry air was transmitted through the platinum tube. At ordinary temperatures no change was observed in either gas. But upon gradually heating the porcelain tube in a furnace when the temperature reached about 2,000° F. the oxygen contained in the air had entirely disappeared, and from the platinum tube there escaped only nitrogen, mingled with steam. The hydrogen must, therefore, have passed through the pores of the platinum, and combined with the oxygen of the air, generating the water-vapor. At temperatures still higher, nitrogen, vapor, and hydrogen were delivered; and upon gradually cooling, the several phenomena appeared in inverse order.

With a drawn tube of soft steel, thickness 3 to 4 millimetres, the same fact has been more recently established in another manner. This tube was suitably fixed within a larger one of porcelain, heated as before, and was made to receive at one end a stream of hydrogen, while at the other it communicated only with a glass tube 80 centimetres in height, and dipping below into a mercury bath. A stream of hydrogen was thrown into the heated apparatus for 8 or 10 hours. Upon then suddenly arresting this, the mercury rose on the instant to 740 mm., nearly the usual barometrical height. This showed a nearly complete vacuum to exist at once within the porcelain tube; and proved the escape of the hydrogen through the pores of the steel tube.

It has been suggested accordingly, that an iron tube introduced into a furnace where there are reducing gases would serve to carry off the hydrogen; and also, that air-pyrometers with iron or platinum bulbs cannot be relied on to measure very high temperatures; though glazed porcelain, it appears, would confine the gases completely.

The passage of gases into heated metals has been shown in a different manner by M. Cailletet; and the phenomena of gaseous diffusion, so ably investigated some years since by Mr. Graham, have been studied in the new direction in which M. Deville's experiments above detailed point, by M. Matteucci and by M. Stanislas Meunier.

Dissociation of Elements of Compound Bodies by Heat.—For a brief notice of this subject, see CHEMISTRY, ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1865. M. H. Sainte-Claire Deville has continued his researches in connection with this singular phenomenon, and has had several brief papers detailing his results published. In most of these researches his apparatus was essentially the same with that described in the notice referred to, and also above.

In his paper in the *Comptes Rendus*, lix., 873, 64, translated in the *Chemical News*, January 7, 1865, and which treats of the dissociation of carbonic oxide, he remarks that when certain bodies are decomposed at a high temperature, their elements are disposed to unite again, so that peculiar arrangements are necessary to demonstrate the separation of their molecules which has occurred. The decomposition taking place in many bodies by the electric spark is probably due to the great development of heat; and the reason that it is not in such cases followed by recombination is, probably, that the small amount of gas heated by the spark is surrounded by an atmosphere in movement and relatively cold. [This principle, though on a somewhat different scale, would doubtless apply in case of the combustion of meteoric bodies, as suggested in the article *ATMOSPHERE*, which see.]

Using within the dissociation-apparatus a brass tube, and keeping this cooled by a continual stream through it of cold water, while pure dry carbonic oxide was kept flowing into the porcelain tube, and the latter was raised to a high heat, as soon as this reaches the point of redness, the gas, delivered at the opposite end of the porcelain tube into a potash bulb or into baryta water, begins to give evidence of presence of carbonic acid; and after cooling and taking apart the apparatus, the brass tube is found blackened, on its under surface only, with deposited carbon, the quantity of this being in proportion to the amount of carbonic acid collected. Evidently, therefore, the carbonic oxide has been separated to some extent into its components oxygen, most or all of which goes to oxidize another portion of the oxide to the higher degree, and carbon, which is deposited. M. Deville concludes that the molecules rise from the lower part of the highly heated porcelain tube, being already dissociated (partially decomposed), when the carbon particles, solid, are caught on the cold surface of the metal tube, and are thus withdrawn from the attraction of the oxygen, so that recombination is prevented. He thinks the mode of experiment thus employed should be capable of numerous applications.

For the dissociation of sulphurous acid (note to the Academy of Sciences, February 13, 1865), the outside of the metallic tube was silvered; this silvered surface became blackened or sulphuretted, and also to some extent covered with a layer of anhydrous sulphuric acid; and the facts of course showed that dissociation of the sulphurous acid into sulphur and oxygen had occurred, a part of the latter going to raise the sulphurous to sulphuric acid. Like effects are produced on the former body by the induction spark. For chlorhydric acid, the silvered surface was amalgamated with a small amount of mercury: after some time this prepared surface was found covered with chloride of mercury, while the author succeeded in collecting some hydrogen. Carbonic acid was acted on by the

induction spark. Placing a ball of phosphorus on the surface of mercury in the endiometer-tube, and continually passing the spark for some days, the carbonic acid was completely dissociated, and a small amount of carbonic oxide alone was found in the tube.

A paper by the same author presented to the Academy of Sciences, May 1, 1865, "On the Phenomena of Dissociation in Homogenous Flames," serves rather to confirm than to extend the knowledge of the constitution of flame already possessed.

Crystallogenic Force: Phenomena and Applications. — M. Kuhlmann discovered some time since that, when substances which crystallize with facility, as mannite, and the sulphates of zinc, iron, and copper, are mixed with a thick solution of gum, or with any other substance interfering with free crystallization, and the mixtures are then spread on glass (previously well cleansed with solution of caustic potassa), and exposed to the atmosphere, the gradual formation of a dry mass by evaporation of the water is accompanied with the production within the former of the most beautiful arborizations. Each solution will produce a well-defined design; although, even under apparently the same circumstances, these are not always identical. Still, the forms assumed are very similar, as in some instances those of stars, in others of leaves and wreaths; and the modifications appear to depend on the nature of the salt, strength of the solution, and mode of preparation. M. Kuhlmann also observed that if amorphous substances, as magnesia, or sesquioxide of iron or of chromium, be mixed with bodies susceptible of crystallization, and these be added to a gummy fluid, the amorphous substances are drawn into the lines of the crystalline figure. The force concerned in determining crystalline forms, the author has designated the *crystallogenic* force. The crystalline figures produced as now described, are remarkable for their instability, the design often quite changing in part or wholly in course of a day, from changes of temperature, humidity of the air, &c. The author accordingly gave much attention to the methods of reproducing and preserving the forms, resorting for this purpose to photography, to vitrification on the surface of wares, to engraving or etching in different modes, to impression on paper, &c., and to galvanoplasty.

When designs of the sort described are produced on glass, porcelain, earthenware, iron, &c., the mixture also containing some suitable flux, and heat is then applied, the gummy matter disappears, and the mineral substances forming the figures become incorporated and fixed on the surface of the ware, thus ornamenting it permanently with the crystallogenic design in relief. The saline solutions being mixed with the easily vitrifiable chromate of lead, the design acquires a greenish color; and for various colors the oxides of copper, cobalt, and manganese were also used. The insoluble materials

thus incorporated must be in the finest state of division.

To etch the crystalline forms on glass, M. Kuhlmann mixed with a solution of sulphate of magnesia the fluoride of copper or zinc, then exposed the glass plate to sulphydric acid, or dipped it in strong sulphuric acid, in either of which cases fluorine is set free, corroding the glass along the outlines of the crystals. Better still, the plate may be exposed to action of gaseous fluorhydric acid.

For engraving, or rather raising, the forms on metals, having produced on the surface of an iron or copper plate a crystallogenic design, a surface of lead or copper is then laid over this, and the plates together are submitted to strong pressure; the design is thus imprinted on the second plate. From the latter a *fac-simile* of the design in relief is then obtained by the galvanic method; and this is used to print from. M. Kuhlmann believes that in these discoveries he has laid the foundation of a new industry. No account, however, of the adoption of the new methods by manufacturers has been met with. Full accounts of the processes thus far described will be found in *Le Technologiste*, Jan., Feb., and April, 1865.

The same author has described (*Comptes Rendus*, lx. 1115; *Chem. News*, August 25, 1865), certain interesting transformations of crystals, by keeping them for a sufficient time in solutions of a different nature. Thus, a crystal of carbonate of soda, placed in solution of sulphate of copper, gives place ultimately to a true artificial geode, the lining of which (at least) consists of amorphous carbonate of copper, the soda-crystal itself having meantime disappeared in the solution. A green and a blue hydrated carbonate thus produced corresponded in color respectively with azure stone and malachite, though they contained more water. Beautiful geodes of different colors were obtained by plunging crystals of carbonate of soda in solutions of sulphate of nickel, nitrate of cobalt, &c. By modifications of the process, other interesting products were secured; as, gold in beautiful crystalline spangles, by placing some of its chloride (contained in a porous vessel) in the midst of a solution of protoxide of iron, of hyposulphite of soda, or of oxalic acid.

Mineral Arborizations in Solutions of Alkaline Silicates.—Filling a glass jar of convenient size with solution of silicate of soda or potash, of the strength (with the former, at least) given by diluting the commercial solution with about five times its volume of water, and dropping in a few crystals of sulphate of copper or iron, a sort of mineral vegetation, of slender stalks and branches, and of the color of the sulphate used—olive green with iron, and light blue with copper—soon springs up; and this may, in the course of a few hours, quite fill the jar with delicate arborescent or moss-like forms, similar to those seen in the moss agate. The direction of the stalks and branches depends on the den-

sity of the solution; their production appears due to formation of mineral silicates; and the uniformity of direction of the branches in the same solution has been thought to indicate in the latter a sort of invisible cleavage. The two sulphates above named can be used together, and with them also sulphates of nickel and zinc. The illusion is heightened by previously sprinkling the bottom of the jar with washed sand, adding a little bichromate of potash to give the appearance of soil, and powdered sulphate of copper [or iron] over some parts, to imitate grass. With care, the vessel can be moved; or the silicate solution can, in some cases, even be displaced by a gentle stream of water, after the arborizations are formed. Some remarks on this topic appear in the *Jour. of the Franklin Institute*, June, 1865.

Efflorescence of Crystals.—Dr. Pape (*Poggendorff's Annalen*, No. 2, 1865) finds that this change always commences at certain points, which bear a constant relation to the form of the crystal. This we must suppose to hold true of spontaneous efflorescence only; since Faraday found that the point at which efflorescence shall begin can be determined by scratching the surface of a crystal; and this was true with crystals of carbonate, phosphate, and sulphate of soda, which had previously been kept without change for years. In a continuation, later, of his investigations, Pape shows that the spontaneous efflorescence is propagated in spots of determinate form, generally partaking more or less of the ellipsoid, and the proportions of the diameters of which are intimately connected with the form of the crystal. Akin to this appears to be the well-known fact of the difference in the heat-conducting powers of a crystal in the directions of its different axes. Upon newly formed crystals of Glauber's salt, large elliptical spots may be noticed within five or ten minutes after their removal from the mother-liquor. Sharply defined spots in like manner appear, after the lapse of a day or more, on sulphate of zinc. The most rapid spread is in the direction of the shorter axis of the crystal; the slowest, in that of the longer. The efflorescence-figure on any face thus depends on its position with regard to the axes. The author suggests that observation of these figures may be resorted to, when the ordinary criteria are unsatisfactory, for determining the system to which a crystal belongs.

V. THEORETICAL CHEMISTRY. For the most important of the topics requiring notice the present year, and which come appropriately under this head, the reader is referred to the separate article, NOMENCLATURE AND NOTATION, CHEMICAL.

Saturability, as distinct from Equivalency.—In an article entitled, "On a Defect in the Theory of Saturation" (*Philos. Mag.*, vol. xxviii.), Mr. E. J. Mills, after citing the facts—that the atomicity or saturability of a given body is expressed by the number of units' weight of hydrogen which can be made to combine with a certain

standard weight of it (as C_2 , C_2H_4 , &c., are completely saturated by additions respectively of $6H$, $5H$, &c.); and that owing to the difficulty of obtaining in some cases hydrogen compounds, and to the want of them in others, it has been allowed in practice to take a constant weight of some other element equivalent to a unit-weight of hydrogen, and most frequently so in case of the chlorine, bromine, and iodine compounds,—goes on to present certain cases, as that of the union secondarily of the chloride of silver (usually regarded as a perfectly saturated compound), with bromide of silver, in the proportions of 3 to 2, and also of compounds such as the chlorides of lithium and sodium (regarded in like manner), with certain proportions of water; and to urge these as illustrations of the principle assumed by him, that interchangeability of saturating function between any elements must depend not only on their being capable of transposition in terms of equivalent value, but also on their comparative affinities for the substance to be saturated. His conclusion is, that "Any two radicals are not equal in saturating power for a third, unless they are equal in equivalency and affinity also; and in most cases of combination there is a residual saturability, due to affinity, enabling the new compound itself to enter into combination."

Mechanical Energy of Chemical Action.—M. Schröder van der Kolk has a long and highly original communication on this subject in *Poggendorff's Annalen*, cxvii., 489 (July, 1864), from an abstract of which in the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, January, 1865, we condense a statement of the leading principles advanced in it. The author applies the theory of mechanical energy to chemical processes, especially in connection with the relations of chemical affinity to heat.

Citing the conclusions of Deville (see *Dissociation*, &c.) that by a sufficiently high temperature all chemical compounds may be resolved into their elements, while the separated atoms, upon the lowering again of their temperature, in some cases reunite, and in others do not so, he regards this distinction as being a fundamental one, marking two classes of bodies; and the result so reached he further connects with the facts observed by Favre and Silbermann, showing that certain combinations are effected with *evolution*, and others with *absorption*, of heat. Rejecting the heat consumed in "external work," everybody has—at whatever temperature above zero—an amount of "mechanical energy" measured by the quantity of such energy in it at zero, *plus* the quantity consumed in effecting molecular changes that have occurred in it above that point, and the quantity appearing in the given rise of temperature. An electric spark determines combination between H and O , and during the change much heat is evolved: previous to combination the elements had each a definite quantity of energy; hence, disregarding the external work, the

vapor-product, on cooling to the original temperature, will contain a quantity of energy *less* than that of its components by the amount of heat liberated in the act of combination. Now, in order to decompose again the vapor of water at such temperature, precisely this amount of energy must be resupplied.

With compound bodies, then, two cases occur; each given compound contains either *more* or *less* energy than that previously possessed by its components. The first class of cases are those in which, during decomposition, heat is given out; the second, those in which, in the like change, it is absorbed. Heating, then, a body of the *first* class to the point of decomposition, heat will during that change be given out; and the components, on cooling, will not reunite, their sum of energy having been by so much diminished. To secure their recombination, either the body must take up heat from the surrounding medium, or its own temperature must fall; but although it is possible that strong affinity may effect combination even under such circumstances, yet no instances of the kind appear to be known. The conclusions just stated in regard to the first of the two classes of bodies, are confirmed by the facts observed by Favre and Silbermann in respect to nitrous oxide, peroxide of hydrogen, chlorous and chloric acids, and hold true also of the chloride, iodide, and sulphide of nitrogen, all of which bodies, on decomposition by heating or otherwise, evolve heat, and do not recombine on cooling. The law holds also in case of certain changes of physical condition in dimorphous or polymorphous bodies, as when heated arragonite passes into calc-spar, &c. The converse of the law intimated—the case, namely, of the *second* of the two classes of bodies—is illustrated by carbonate of lime, which, decomposed by heat, absorbs heat: the compound has less energy than its components taken together have, and as a fact the base and acid reunite on cooling;—also in case of slacking quicklime: the compound $CaO + HO$ evolves heat in forming, and consequently this hydrate, decomposed by heat, forms again upon cooling.

But here an apparent exception presents itself. In the formation of carbonic acid and of water heat is evolved; decomposition can only take place by absorption of heat, at still higher temperatures; and on cooling, recombination ought to occur, but does not so [at least, in all circumstances]. This must be explained on the supposition that, in such cases, the purely chemical affinity does not at the lower temperatures suffice. On this view, two conditions are in general necessary for the formation of a compound: 1, a sufficient chemical force, or affinity; 2, the requisite amount of mechanical energy. Of the two classes of cases above considered, the most frequent are the irreversible, or those in which a body, changing under action of heat and with evolution of heat, does not of itself return to the original state. Of the other or reversible class

of instances, however, illustrations occur also in the latent heat of fusion and of evaporation. The heat of combination of a compound is the same, whether the latter be formed suddenly or by degrees.

The part played by affinity in these cases is further illustrated by such facts as that, while H and OI, CO and O, &c., combine suddenly in unlimited quantities by means of the electric spark, and with evolution of heat, in other cases, as N and O, combination by electric action occurs gradually, without evolution of heat, and only so long as the spark passes. In the first of these sets of cases, the components have enough of energy, but not of *affinity*: the electric spark initiates the supply of the latter, which may then be supposed to be kept up by the heat that at once begins to be evolved. In the second, the components are deficient in *energy*; and electricity furnishes this, each spark yielding only a definite amount of work. The case of ammonia forms an exception as yet unexplained. Finally, the author takes ground against the assumption often made that the heat of combination, in a given case, is to be taken as the measure of the chemical affinity; and he considers the former, regarded as difference in energy, as being rather the measure of the stability of the compound.

Constitution of Ammonium Amalgam.—This subject is treated of by Dr. Charles M. Wetherill, in an article in the *American Journal of Science*, September, 1865. The author remarks that the existence of the hypothetical radical, NH₄ (ammonium), depends less upon the characteristics of its so-called amalgam than upon the parallelism of its salts with those of the alkalis. But, once admitting the metallic nature of ammonium, it is difficult to avoid assigning a similar character to the radicals of many, if not all, of the organic bases; whence, there must be numerous compound metals, and the notion of a metal as an element is destroyed.

The so-called ammonium amalgam bears a close resemblance in physical properties to the amalgams proper. The mercury in it has lost its fluidity, and its relations of cohesion and adhesion are changed; thus, it has become pasty, and adheres to platinum, iron, and other metals. The mass has also become much increased in volume; but left to itself, it gradually shrinks, resolving itself again into mercury, and ammonia compounds and hydrogen [NH₄, (NH₄O)H]. In reflecting on the questions why ammonium should thus apparently blend with mercury, and then fall apart into NH₄ and H, and why it should unite with the mercury rather than at once oxidize by decomposing the water present, Dr. Wetherill conceived the idea that there is in reality no amalgam of ammonium formed; but that, in the reaction, the sodium decomposes the water, evolving hydrogen, and forming caustic soda, which in its turn sets free ammonia from the chloride, the mercury being also liberated (thus, $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl} + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{HgNa} = \text{NH}_4\text{O} + \text{H}_2 + \text{NaCl} + \text{Hg}$); and further, that in

the so-called amalgam the molecules of mercury have become altered in their capacity for cohesion, by catalysis, polarity of atoms, or some unknown cause, so that the bubbles of gas are retained, and swelling takes place.

The author accordingly experimented in a variety of ways upon the ammonium amalgam, obtained by agency of that of sodium. He proved that the change in the mercury was not due to action of nascent hydrogen, whether alone or in presence of ammonia, but only occurred when the ammonia itself was in the nascent condition. Among his experiments were—that of squeezing the amalgam through a piece of muslin, when it was immediately, and without change of temperature or other evidence of affinity, resolved into mercury; that of forming the amalgam by means of the battery, using different ammonia salts in contact with mercury at the negative pole, &c. When, upon filter paper placed on a glass plate, and moistened with solution of carbonate of ammonia containing lumps of the salt, a globule of mercury is deposited, and the current of a 10-cell Bunsen battery is passed through the mercury and paper, the mercury being in contact with the negative pole, the amalgam is finely produced, extending out in dendritic form toward the positive pole; but if a glass plate be pressed upon the materials so as to prevent the swelling, the amalgam is not formed.

From the results of his experiments, the author concludes that—1, the so-called ammonium amalgam is *not* an alloy of mercury and ammonium; 2, the swelling of the mass is due to retention of gas bubbles; 3, the coherence of the gases and liquids concerned is changed from a normal condition, exhibiting phenomena which may be classed with those of catalysis.

VI. APPLICATIONS OF CHEMISTRY.—To some extent, of course, applications of chemical principles and facts, and the processes for obtaining certain elementary and compound bodies, have been incidentally alluded to in preceding portions of this article, as well as also in others to which, in course of it, reference is made. As properly belonging under this head, for example, are the articles, sugar and wines.

Processes for Obtaining Oxygen.—Among processes lately proposed for this purpose, that of Webster is mentioned in this *CYCLOPEDIA* for 1862. Several others have since been published.

Mr. Robbins has described a process to which he has given the name of "Oxygenesis," and which, he states, furnishes the gas instantaneously and without the need of applying heat. The method is based on an experiment due to Schönbein: in it, a dry powdered mixture [according to one account] of *three* equivalents of peroxide of barium and *one* of bichromate of potash, is placed in a glass flask provided with an exit tube; and dilute sulphuric acid being then poured on, oxygen is given off freely and with effervescence. Theoretically, it is con

sidered that in this process ozone and antozone are simultaneously liberated, and that these uniting form common oxygen. Although M. Kuhlmann, among others, has done much to develop the uses and value of the baryta-compounds in the arts, yet the peroxide, at least, has not hitherto been produced and sold as a commercial article; so that it would as yet have to be specially prepared. The author of the paper, however, speaks of arrangements having been made for furnishing this compound more cheaply, and he states that the price of it has already been reduced from that formerly holding, viz., 5s. per lb. Other peroxides could be used, but such have proved less easy of preparation than that of barium.—*Chem. News*, March 12, 1864.

M. Fleitmann has a new process, depending on the circumstance that, when a concentrated solution of hypochlorite of lime (bleaching powder) is warmed with a little oxide of cobalt, the former is completely decomposed into chloride of calcium, which remains in solution, and oxygen, which escapes. The evolution of the gas takes place at from 70° to 80° C., and is steady and regular; and the whole of the quantity contained in the hypochlorite is given off. From $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{10}$ th of one per cent. of the cobalt oxide [one account states, the hydrated sesquioxide] suffices; and this serves to decompose an indefinite amount of the bleaching salt, since, if the oxide be separated and kept moist it may be used over again as often as desired. The author's theory of the process is that a lower oxide continually takes oxygen from the hypochlorite, passing into a higher, and returning at once again into the state of the lower oxide and free oxygen. The cobalt oxide need not be prepared separately; a few drops of any soluble cobalt salt added to the liquid sufficing to form it. The solution of hypochlorite must be clear, as it can be obtained by decantation, and flasks may be filled with it to $\frac{3}{4}$ ths of their capacity; while, on the large scale, steam-boilers could be used. The materials employed are quite bulky, and the volume of gas secured is proportionally much less than in case of chlorate of potash; but while in cost of a given volume of gas furnished these two methods are much the same, the new one has the advantage in steadiness and manageableness, as for lecture experiments in which the use of the gas-holder is not convenient.—Original paper in *Ann. der Chem. und Pharm.*, cxxiv. 64.

Mr. R. W. Artlett, having experimented largely with the process just named, finds that moist peroxide of iron or oxide of copper serves the like purpose with that of cobalt. A few drops of the nitrate of copper will suffice for the reaction. It is stated that M. Archereau, of Paris, obtains oxygen by raising to intense heat in a furnace somewhat like that of Siemens a mixture of silica and sulphate of lime (burned), silicate of lime being formed and oxygen with sulphurous acid escaping, the latter of which he proposes to remove by subjecting the mix-

ture to pressure, and absorbing any remnant with milk of lime. The process is said to furnish the gas so cheaply that it may be economically used with coal gas to make a lime light, in place of the ordinary arrangement of burners, for stores or halls. Still another process is that of M. Carlevaris, which consists in heating together the black oxide of manganese and silica (MnO_2 and SiO_2), when a silicate of the protoxide of manganese is formed, and one equivalent of oxygen set free.

Iodine.—M. Schwartz has indicated two methods of extracting iodine from the saline matter of certain mother-liquors: the first, that of dissolving the salts in water, and treating with bichromate of potassa and sulphuric acid, when the iodine is at once deposited; the second, that of boiling the salts with perchloride of iron, and dissolving the displaced iodine by bisulphide of carbon. The last-named method may perhaps serve for the separation of iodine from bromine.

Nitrogen, &c.—In one of a series of papers entitled "Contributions to Chemistry from the Laboratory of the Lawrence Scientific School," and which appear in the *American Journal of Science*, Prof. W. Gibbs presents (May, 1864) a mode of determination of nitrogen by weight, as also methods of separation of cerium from several other metals, and the uses of hyposulphate of soda and fluohydrate of fluoride of potassium in certain analyses of metals. The subject of separation of metals is continued in the number of the same journal for January, 1865.

Electro-Chemical Separation of Metalloids.—The electro-chemical method of separation of bodies from their combinations is already found, in case of simple bodies generally, and of a large number of their principal compounds, to serve, under most circumstances, better than the modes offered by pure chemistry. Among metalloids, the preparation of which by this method is of most interest, are, *nitrogen*, obtainable from ammonia or nitric acid; as also *chlorine*, *bromine*, and *iodine*. These are all procured by essentially the same method; that, namely, of decomposing in a U-shaped tube the hydrogenated combination of the given metalloid, using graphite conductors as the electrodes. *Arsenic* is of all the metalloids the most easily isolated, and that altogether, and from a variety of arseniferous substances. *Boron* and *silicium* are not easily separated in any considerable quantities.

A very Sensitive Reaction for Iron.—Natanson has observed that sulpho-cyanide of iron is soluble in ether, and that when a solution containing a trace of peroxide of iron and sulpho-cyanide of potassium, but exhibiting no visible red tint, is agitated with ether, the latter assumes a rose color resembling that produced in chloroform by traces of iodine. Of course, the precautions usual in testing for iron by sulpho-cyanide of potassium, must be taken in employing Natanson's process. Note in *Amer. Jour. of Science*, September, 1864.

Ozouf's Process for Carbonic Acid.—This process, described in a number (early part of 1865) of the Bulletin of the Society for the Encouragement of Industry (Paris), consists essentially in directing the gases, proceeding from coke burnt in a specially constructed furnace, and after the former have been properly washed, through a series of vessels containing solution of carbonate of soda; the carbonic acid, which is the principal constituent of the mixed gas from the coke, is taken up by the carbonate, converting it into the bicarbonate. The solution so changed is then pumped into a cylinder, and being heated to boiling-point, it parts with the second equivalent of carbonic acid—say, with one-half the volume of this gas existing in combination in it. The gas so disengaged should be of course quite pure; and it can be applied to a variety of uses, as the manufacture of soda and other effervescent waters, of white lead, &c. The potash solution from which it has been set free is ready for use over again.

Ozouf's Process for White Lead.—The report just referred to, also describes the application of carbonic acid, obtained in the manner given, to the manufacture of white lead. M. Ozouf's process is in this respect substantially that of Thénard, the passing of carbonic acid gas into vessels containing solution of subacetate (basic acetate) of lead. The inventor states, however, that by proportioning the quantity of carbonic acid gas to the composition of the subacetate,—the latter containing variable proportions of acetic acid, from two down to only one of the acid for every three equivalents of oxide of lead,—he is able to produce at will white lead of any definite composition; and this result is of course one of practical importance. A sample furnished by him, on analysis, showed a composition represented by the formula $3 (\text{PbO}, \text{CO}_2) + \text{PbO}, \text{HO}$.

Preparation of Potash.—A brief note in the *Journal of the Franklin Institute* for November, 1865, gives the substance of a mode of procuring potash from feldspar. In this, feldspar, fluorspar, and chalk are pulverized, mixed, and calcined. Floride of silicium is disengaged, silicate of lime is formed, and potash is set free. The alkali may be dissolved out with boiling water, and freed from any lime carried with it by carbonic acid. Some feldspars, however, are said to contain large quantities of soda, and on treatment to yield that base.

Recent improvements in the manufacture of soda and certain soda compounds, and in the way of utilization of the waste of the works, &c., are of sufficient interest to merit treatment in a separate article. (See SODA AND SODA COMPOUNDS.)

Preparation of Nitre.—The subject of *nitrification*, or the production of the nitrate of potash in the so-called nitre-beds, natural and artificial, is considered under CHEMISTRY, volume for 1862, and incidentally also in that for 1863. Manufacturers of saltpetre have of late years found it most advantageous to convert the cal-

careous and magnesian nitrates (obtained by leeching out of the nitre-yielding products of the beds) into nitrate of soda, by means of sulphate of soda, and then, by chloride of potassium, to convert the soda-salt into nitrate of potash (Regnault).

Still more recently, the fabrication of nitre has been rendered more simple and less expensive by decomposing at the same time, and without previous preparation, the chloride of potassium and the sulphate of potash procured from the salts of the sort of sea-weed known as *wrack*, by reaction of nitrate of soda with those salts. In the process, also, the slight solubility at low temperature of the nitrate of potash is turned to account, as well as its ready purification by crystallization and washing; and the salts of less value remaining in the mother-liquor are concentrated and dried for disposal to manufacturers of glass.

Preparation of Alum.—Mr. Spence, England, by making use of the schists which lie in contact with beds of coal, has recently succeeded in producing alum on a very economical scale. Having roasted the schist in small heaps, by aid of a little combustible matter along with bituminous material contained in the former, he treats the ash, reduced to powder, by sulphuric acid in the condition in which it comes from the chambers. The excess of acid required for acting on the clay of the schist is afterwards removed by saturating it in the filtered solution by a current of ammonia directly obtained from the ammoniacal waters of gas-works. Five tons of the schist yield four tons of alum; while in case of the employment of pyritous earths, a very much larger quantity of the primary material is required to yield the same result. Mr. Spence's works, in which this process is in use, turn out annually some 5,600 tons of alum, a quantity amounting to one-third of that produced each year in the whole of Great Britain.

Detection of Explosive Gases in Mines.—Of the modes of testing whether or not explosive gases are present in mines, by observing if a peculiar form be given to the flame of a lighted candle, or if a peculiar behavior or form be presented by the flame of a Davy's lamp, the former is exceedingly hazardous, while even the latter is not free from the danger of originating explosion. Mr. G. F. Ansell, of the Royal Mint, England, appears to have succeeded in supplying the want of safe tests, in the set of ingenious instruments recently devised by him for the determination, and one of them especially for the quantitative estimation, of the presence in any atmosphere of explosive gases or others different from those of common air. All these are in their construction based on the well-known principle that gases free to do so mutually intermix, and that through porous partitions, including many even of which the porosity is not apparent; and further, upon the law that, in such cases, the gases diffuse into each other with a rapidity inversely propor-

tional to the square roots of their specific gravities; so that the volume of a body of gas within an enclosed space tends to be increased or diminished at first, according as another gas separated from it by a porous septum is rarer or denser than itself.

In the simplest form of the instruments referred to, a U-shaped tube, blown at one end into a cup, has its bend filled with mercury so that this occupies the lower part of the cup, while over the latter is cemented a piece of porous tile. The cup being thus chiefly filled with air, inclosed, suppose it brought into an atmosphere of hydrogen: the specific gravities of the two are as (about) 14.4 and 1; the square roots of these numbers, as 3.8 and 1; so that for every 1 part of air diffusing out of the cup, 3.8 of hydrogen tend to enter it. In fact, owing to the pressure thus generated within the cup, effusion of gases goes on at the same time; but the former process being most rapid, the mercury is depressed in the cup and raised in the other arm of the tube. After the maximum effect of the diffusion is reached, effusion still continues, until the two atmospheres have come to a like constitution, and the mercury has returned to the same level in both arms. Upon then removing the instrument into common air, a reverse movement is set up, and the mercury at first rises in the cup, falling in the other arm of the siphon. But, placing the instrument, containing air, in carbonic acid (densities 14.4 and 22; square roots, 3.8 and 4.7), the pressure is at first diminished in the cup; and the phenomena are throughout the reverse of those just stated. As already implied, the theoretical elevation or depression can in no case be fully obtained; but either is likely to be of sensible amount. Alongside the smaller arm of the U-tube is accordingly placed a scale; and this is graduated to indicate the percentage of mine-gas present. In other forms, a float on the mercury in the smaller limb, connected with a cord passing over a pulley, and a small weight, moves an index over a circular scale, for the like purpose. But while all these require to be directly watched, in a fifth form, a small india-rubber balloon, allowed to expand only in length, is made by its elongation on taking through its pores a lighter gas, to act on a lever, release clock-work, and thus ring a bell. This instrument gives almost instant warning of the sudden irruption of explosive gases into a mine, and the bell continues to ring until by ventilation the atmosphere of the place has returned to its usual character.

The most valuable of all these instruments is, however, one resembling an aneroid barometer, and of about the size of a watch, having one of its faces of porous earthenware but ordinarily protected by a brass case, and an opening through its handle closed by turning a screw. This being commonly open, so that the cavity is filled with air, when an observation is to be made the orifice is closed: taking the instrument into a mine, and opening the case, if

the lighter mine-gases be present, in about forty-five seconds their maximum effect will be produced; and the position of the index will, by aid of a vernier, show the percentage of mine-gases present. Since trains of trucks running into or out of the mine disturb the pressure, the instrument should be used in the intervals between such disturbances. It is stated that no appreciable variation arises from temperature. Some of the forms can be connected with telegraphic arrangements. The instruments have been used in several mines, and have given full satisfaction to practical miners. Cuts of the instruments accompany their description, in the *Chemical News*, December 15, 1865.

Applications of Bisulphide of Carbon.—This peculiar liquid (composition, CS₂), an incidental product of the distillation of coal, and which has already received many interesting and valuable applications, has recently been applied with great success to the extraction of fatty matters from various seeds and fruits; and also, in Algiers, to the extracting from flowers of various essential oils, commonly known as perfumes; as those of roses, lavender, jasmine, &c. Messrs. Allbright & Co., of Birmingham, also use it to separate the common phosphorus from the red or amorphous phosphorus, now applied to the manufacture of chemical matches.

Extraction of Vegetable Oils by means of Volatile Hydrocarbons.—It has recently been found that all the more common vegetable oils, including palm oil, olive oil, colza oil, and linseed, rape-seed, and cotton-seed oils, may be extracted with great economy by means of some of the hydrocarbons from petroleum, coal, schists, and bitumen, and best by those which volatilize at a little above the boiling-point of water. The seeds or fruits, crushed or ground in the usual way, are digested with the hydrocarbons in tight vessels. From the solution of the vegetable oil in the mineral spirit which is obtained, the latter is afterwards expelled by applying a proper heat. The solvent is condensed for re-use, and the loss of it may be made very slight; while the yield of oil obtained by the means indicated is said to be from 40 to 50 per cent. greater than that secured by the ordinary method—with mechanical pressure. It has been stated that, by employment of this process, the yield of the olives pressed yearly in the neighborhood of Marseilles alone could be increased not less than 6,000,000 pounds.

Preparation of Clay with Glycerine, for Modelling.—Experiments recently made by M. Haas, of Stuttgart, confirm the opinion long advanced as to the value of glycerine for preserving the plasticity of clay intended for modelling. He found that clay, kneaded up with glycerine, and kept for two months in a warmed room, was still as plastic as on the first day. The clay should be first completely dried, then pulverized, and finally mixed with the requisite quantity of glycerine, of specific gravity of

1.231=27° Baumé. Incorporating glycerine with clay already moist, evaporation of the water later occurs, and the mass loses its plastic property. The expense of the glycerine might seem an obstacle in the way of this process. The dried clay requires nearly half its weight of glycerine; but the cost becomes of less importance in view of the fact that the clay so preserves its plasticity that, without further expense or labor of preparation, it can be used over again indefinitely. The prepared clay is, moreover, still much cheaper for modelling than wax, while it can replace the latter for all purposes, even to the most delicate operations; and it has the further advantage of maintaining the same consistency and plasticity from cold up to quite high temperatures.

In a note in the *Mechanics' Magazine*, November 24, 1865, Mr. Peter Hart states that, having in course of some experiments to prepare pipe-clay repeatedly for luting, he found that by mixing the clay with a solution of chloride of calcium (sp. gr., 1.350) the luting kept good during the whole remaining course of his experiments; while a portion of it tried about a year later was still plastic. As it appeared impossible to dry the mass, it would probably not serve for cases in which the modelled forms required drying.

Linoleum, and its Applications.—The name linoleum (*linus*, linseed, and *oleum*, oil) has been given to a substance obtained by oxidizing the linseed oil of commerce, thus converting it into a semi-resinous matter, and then combining this at a strong heat with resinous gums and other ingredients. The new product has the appearance, and many of the properties, of india-rubber. It can, like the latter, be made into a varnish or cement; and this can be employed for water-proofing clothing, for protecting iron or wood, and for coating the bottom of ships, as well as for cementing wood with iron or wood with wood. It can be vulcanized by heat, and that to the hardness of the hardest woods; and in this condition can be worked by filing, planing, or turning, and made to take a high polish. It can also be moulded in heated dies to any desired form; and combined with emery, it forms excellent grinding wheels. Among the articles made from it or by application of it, are said to be sheaves for pulleys, surgical-instrument handles, picture-frames, mouldings, veneers, &c.; and also carriage-aprons, sail-covers, tarpaulin, gas-pipes, paints and enamels for certain purposes, &c. One of its chief applications thus far has been to the making of washable felt carpets or floor-cloths. For producing this cloth, a face of the linoleum mixed with ground or powdered cork is rolled in upon one side of stout canvas, while the other side is water-proofed with the varnish already referred to. The fabric is printed with blocks in the ordinary way. The carpeting so produced is noiseless and pliable, is not affected by heat, washes readily, and is very durable.

Aniline Black: Printing and Qualities.—

This colored derivative of aniline may be said to complete the series of brilliant colors derived from that base; though from the other members of that series, as the red, the blue, and the violet, it differs in nearly all important respects. Mr. John Lightfoot, of Accrington, patented in January, 1863, a process of obtaining the then new aniline black, upon cotton, by printing or dyeing with the following mixture: chlorate of potash, and sal-ammoniac, each, 25 grammes; aniline, chlorhydric acid, and perchloride of copper, each, 50 gr.; acetic acid, 12 gr.; solution of starch, 1 litre. The fabric being printed with this mixture, dried, and warmed in "oxidation chambers," the black is then first developed; and it is afterwards fixed by washing in water slightly alkaline. The coloring matter is completely insoluble, and remains intimately fixed in the fabric. The disadvantages attending this process, however, among them the injury done to the strength of the fibre, led to its abandonment; and the same appears to be true of M. Camille Kæchlin's process, in which the copper was for the first time introduced into the fabric instead of the mixture, and in form of a sulphate; and of M. Cordillot's, in which the chloride of copper is replaced by ferrocyanide [or perhaps, ferricyanide] of ammonium.

M. Lauth (*Bulletin de la Société Chimique de Paris*, December, 1864, p. 416; *Le Technologiste*, April, 1865) describes a modification of Lightfoot's process introduced by him, and in which he prints by using with the aniline and potash salts also an insoluble oxidable salt, but which shall become soluble upon the tissue; for example, the sulphide of copper. By the oxidizing action of the chloric acid, or of the chlorine set free during reaction of chlorhydrate of aniline up chlorate of potash, the sulphide of copper is transformed into sulphate. The author states that this process is economical, while in it the mixture does not attack the metallic rollers or other mechanism, nor does it weaken the fabric—no more, at all events, than madder black. The color is fixed at 20° to 40° C., and is very permanent; while the composition of the dye allows of its being printed with all sorts of colors.

The aniline black has an altogether unique appearance, velvety, and very rich. The incorporated dye is completely insoluble in water, even boiling and with soap; and also, it is stated, in alkalies or acids. The latter indeed change the black to green; but the original color is restored by alkalies. Bichromate of potash deepens the shade, but in concentrated solution slightly reddens it. Strong chloride of lime bleaches it, but after a time the color is almost perfectly restored.

In the same number of *Le Technologiste* is a description of a mode of preparing aniline green, by previous preparation of aldehyde, and then treating in the manner given a mixture of this with fuchsine, sulphuric acid, and cold water.

New Solvent for Aniline Dyes.—A new sol-

vent for the greater part of the aniline dyes has been discovered by M. G. de Claubry, and communicated by him in a paper (March 27, 1865, it appears) to the French Academy of Sciences. In place of alcohol and methylated spirit, which are high-priced or injurious to the workmen, M. de Claubry proposes to substitute a decoction of Panama bark (*Quillaria saponaria*) or of Egyptian soap-wort (*Gypsophila strutum*). Solutions of the coloring products are readily obtained by pouring the boiling decoction upon the powder, repeating the operation after stirring and decanting, if part of the powder remain undissolved. The red dyes thus dissolve most readily; the blues, less so. For a purple dye, accordingly, it may be necessary to mix the solutions at the last, in order to obtain the required hue. It is stated, also, that the new menstruum insures greater uniformity of tone, since it is not, like the alcoholic solutions, liable to change of constitution by evaporation during use.

Processes for Revising the Writing of Old Documents, on Parchment or Paper.—The process recommended for the purpose named (more especially for parchments, it appears), by M. E. Moride, and given in *Le Technologiste* for August, 1864, is as follows:

1. Moisten the parchment as speedily as possible, and without agitation or rumpling, in cold distilled water.
2. Having let the sheet drip, plunge it during five seconds only in a solution of oxalic acid, strength of one-fifth.
3. Wash rapidly in two waters; any oxalate of lime with which, as is often the case, the parchment may be covered, will thus be removed.
4. Introduce the manuscript into a solution of 10 grammes of gallic acid in 300 grammes of distilled water.
5. After the reappearance of the characters, wash the parchment in a plenty of water, and dry it between sheets of bibulous paper, renewed as long as required; and finally, submit it to the action of a press. To restore simply a few words or lines that may be well-nigh effaced, apply the liquids with a camel's-hair pencil, following regularly the order above given, and using at the close alternately, first, the acid solution and bibulous paper, and then water and other paper of like sort to absorb it. Very great delicacy and promptitude are requisite throughout the operation; and, since in spite of precautions the writing will sometimes spread into cloudy spots, and remain illegible, this risk should be borne in mind; and though the rightful holders of writings may resort to the process given, it would scarcely be proper for the legal depositaries of documents held in trust for others, to incur its hazards.

In the journal quoted, also, date of December, 1864, M. E. Knecht-Senefelder considers generally the causes—in the composition of various sorts of paper and of factitious parchment, and in the varying composition and qualities of inks, &c.—of the gradual alteration or in many cases effacement, with lapse of time, of the writing of deeds and other documents;

and finding, in case of common inks, the principal cause of such changes in the differing proportions of the *sulphate of iron* and *gallic acid* (of which such inks are essentially composed), employed in their preparation, and the consequent different degrees of facility with which the paper takes up and retains these ingredients respectively; or else, in an absorbent action exercised by calcareous substances present in the paper, he proposes accordingly the following mode of proceeding for the restoration generally of old writings on parchment or on paper of any sort:

Into one of two vials put 1 part gallic acid and 200 parts distilled water; into the other put 1 part sulphate of iron and 200 parts distilled water. Begin by making trial of the solutions by means of a small camel's-hair pencil, applying one of them five or six times upon some single letter of the document, and the other in like manner with another pencil upon some other letter near to the former. Observe which of the two applications renders its letter the more black; and then employ that solution which has succeeded best, for bathing the entire sheet. Or pass the proper solution lightly with a pencil two or three times over the lines of writing. Finally, it is well to turn pure water over the sheet before letting it dry, in order to prevent a yellow discoloration of it due to the materials applied; though it is also stated that such tint can subsequently be removed, if necessary, by a weak solution of bichloride of tin, in the proportions given for the solutions last named above.

Chemistry in the Smithsonian Institution.—In the *Report* of this Institution for 1864, the Secretary states that, "In compliance with requests made by different departments of the Government and of Congress, particularly since the war, it [the Institution] has conducted various series of investigations, principally in relation to questions involving mechanical, chemical, or physical principles, and has made reports on subjects of this kind amounting, in the aggregate, to several hundred." In order to facilitate such researches, a laboratory has been established and kept constantly in working condition; and the privilege of using it has been given to various competent persons, for experimenting in the different branches of physical science. The laboratory, at the time of publication, was occupied by Dr. Wetherill, who was conducting analyses of air from the halls of Congress, &c.; and from these a report was to be made, under direction of the Institution, on the ventilation of public buildings of the city of Washington. As among important publications, more or less directly connected with the subject of chemistry, which have been issued by the Institution, are named, the work of Dr. Hare, on the *Explosibility of Nitro*; that of Drs. Gibbs and Gent, on the *Ammonia-Oxide Bases*; and that of Dr. H. Draper, on *Astronomical Photography*. Many of the Reports, also, since 1853, have contained reviews

of the progress, from year to year, of the physical and chemical sciences.

Among the papers to be found in the *Report* for 1863, are: *A Brief Sketch of the Modern Theory of Chemical Types*, by Dr. Charles M. Wetherill, the paper being illustrated with numerous examples of formulæ and with diagrams; and *Purple Dying, Ancient and Modern*, translated for the Institution from the German periodical, "*Aus der Natur*" (Leipzig); and in the volume for 1864, *Ozone and Antozone*, by Dr. Wetherill; Extract of a Memoir by M. Becquerel (translated), *On the Preservation of Copper and Iron in Silt Water*; *Preservation of Wood*, translated from "*Aus der Natur*," *Caoutchouc and Gutta Percha*, from the same; and *The Products of the Combustion of Gun-cotton and Gun-powder under circumstances analogous to those which occur in Practice* (Pogg. Ann., April, 1863), a translation, with remarks by Dr. B. F. Craig.

Works and Lectures.—Without proposing to enter into a full enumeration of recent and important chemical works, &c.—such as may, or may not, have been elsewhere mentioned—the writer deems it proper in this place to call attention especially to the recent edition of the extensive and excellent work on Chemistry of Prof. W. A. Miller; to the still more recent works, in harmony with the new chemical philosophy and nomenclature, of Prof. A. W. Hofmann, entitled, *Modern Chemistry, Experimental and Theoretic*, and of Prof. A. W. Williamson, entitled (it appears), *Chemistry for Students*; and also to the following published lectures: The "Cantor Lectures," series for 1864, six in number, by Dr. F. C. Calvert, *On Chemistry Applied to the Arts* (*Chemical News*, 1864; *Journal of the Franklin Institute*, 1865); and the series for 1865, *On Some of the Most Important Chemical Discoveries made within the last Two Years* (*Chemical News*, November 3, 1865, and on); a lecture *On the Present State of the Chemistry of Gas Lighting* (*Chemical News*, July 7, 1865), by Dr. H. Letheby; six lectures *On Animal Chemistry* (*Chemical News*, July 21, 1865, and on), delivered before the London College of Physicians, by Dr. William Odling; and one, *On Lecture Illustrations* (*Chemical News*, July 28, 1865, and on), by Prof. Hofmann, before the Chemical Society, and which is published with numerous illustrative diagrams and drawings.

CHILI, a republic in South America. President (September 18, 1861–1865), José Joaquín Pérez. Ministry, A. Covarrubias (Interior and exterior); F. Errázuriz (Justice, Worship, and Instruction); A. Reyes (Finances); J. Manuel Pinto (War and Navy). The Senate is composed of 20 members, elected for a term of 9 years. The Chamber of Representatives consists of one member for every 20,000 inhabitants, elected for a term of 8 years. Minister of the United States near the Government of Chili, Maj.-Gen. Judson Kilpatrick (appointed 1865); Chilean Chargé d'Affaires in Washington, F. S. Asta-Burnaga). Area, 170,000 square miles; popula-

tion (1863), 1,700,055. The number of foreign born residents was, in 1854, 19,669. The expenditures of the Government were estimated for the year 1863 at 7,585,983 piastres. The regular army numbered in 1863, 2,871 men; the national guards, 28,077 men. The fleet consisted of 4 steamers, with 27 guns. The imports of the year 1863 amounted to 20,487,517 piastres, and the exports to 20,118,852 piastres. The movements of shipping during the years 1861–'63, were as follows:

	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1861.....	2,450	894,959	2,423	674,887
1862.....	2,830	955,523	2,793	971,565
1863.....	2,596	820,014		

Of the vessels, entered in 1863, 1,474, of an aggregate tonnage of 272,550, sailed under the Chilean flag.

No country of South America manifested in 1864 a warmer sympathy with the struggle of Peru against Spain than Chili. Spain regarded the conduct of the Chilean Government as a breach of international comity, and demanded satisfaction. An amicable arrangement was, however, reached in May. The Spanish Chargé d'Affaires in Chili, S. Távira, declared that he regarded the explanatory note transmitted to him by the Chilean Government, relative to the hostile attitude which the country had observed during the Peruvian conflict, as sufficient satisfaction; and the President, in his message to Congress, in June, congratulated that body upon the satisfactory settlement of the difficulty. The Spanish Government, however, disavowed the conduct of its representative, whom it recalled on July 25, 1865. The further negotiation concerning the difficulty was intrusted to Admiral Pareja, the commander of the Spanish fleet in the Pacific, who, on September 17th, arrived at Valparaiso in his flagship, the *Villa de Madrid*, and notified the Chilean Government that the former arrangement concluded with Señor Távira had been disapproved at Madrid, that he was invested with the power to demand immediate reparation, and that a refusal to comply with his demands would result in a commencement of hostilities. The first communication from Admiral Pareja to the Chilean Minister of Foreign Affairs, is dated on board his flagship, September 17th. In this lengthy document he proceeds to review the cause of complaint on the part of Spain against Chili, and divides the subject into five parts. In the first he complains "that the outrages and insulting cries and threats committed and uttered against Spain, in front of the house then occupied as her Most Catholic Majesty's Legation, were not sufficiently punished;" secondly, "the publication of the disgraceful newspaper called the '*San Martín*,' whose columns were filled daily with the grossest attacks against Spain and the objects dearest to Spaniards;" thirdly, that the Peruvian steamer-

of-war Lerzundi was allowed to receive coal and enlist men in Valparaiso, while coal was refused to the Spanish vessels, because it had been made contraband of war by the Government of Chili. The fourth complaint relates principally to the same subject as the preceding one; and lastly is cited the case of a French man-of-war allowed to receive coal, when at war with the republic of Mexico, while the ships of Spain were refused the same, because supposed to be at war with Peru.

The admiral goes on to say that he is instructed to demand that "satisfactory explanations be given for each of these grievances; and, moreover, that one of the forts of the republic shall salute the Spanish ensign with a salvo of twenty-one guns, which will be answered by one of an equal number to the Chilean flag." In conclusion he states, that "if within four days from the date of this communication no answer to it shall be received, all diplomatic relations will be considered at an end between Spain and Chili, and the persons composing the Spanish Legation will be received on board the ship carrying his pennant; and if the necessity should occur to use the force under his command, which he should most sincerely regret, he will consider himself bound to obtain indemnification for the losses suffered by the Spanish squadron in consequence of the dispositions made by the Chilean Government; such indemnification not being now claimed by the Government of Spain save in the possibility of recurring to force of arms, when it will then be held by the undersigned as a part of his solemn duty."

In reply to this, Señor Alvaro Covarrubias, the Chilean Minister of Foreign Affairs, first acknowledges its receipt, under date of September 21st, and then goes on to review fully all the complaints contained therein. With regard to the first charge, he asserts that the occurrences before the house of the Spanish Consul involved no insult to the Spanish flag, as had been acknowledged by Señor Tavira, by the Spanish Government, and by Admiral Pareja himself. The language of the paper "San Martín" had been publicly rebuked by the President of the Republic in a much more emphatic manner than that suggested by the admiral. As regards the third and fourth charges, the decree concerning the coaling of the Peruvian steamer had been issued at a time when no state of open hostilities was supposed to exist, while, on the contrary, such a state did seem to the Chilean Government to exist at the time when coal was refused to the Spanish vessels. On these grounds, the note says, the Chilean Government "cannot confess itself culpable of imaginary insults against Spain, nor accept the humiliating and disgraceful proposal that the Spanish flag should be saluted by the guns of the republic—a proposition which is peremptorily and firmly refused."

To this note Pareja replied by a "second ultimatum," dated "on board the Villa de Ma-

drid, in the port of Valparaiso, September 22d," in which he says, that obeying the orders of his Government, he must make known, that if at six o'clock on the morning of the 24th of September, the Government of the republic should not have acceded to his request, all diplomatic relations existing between Spain and Chili would be at an end, and he would be obliged, at the expiration of that time, to seek to obtain with the force at his command that satisfaction which the Government of Santiago refused to give by means of pacific measures, as he ardently desired.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs, in his reply to this ultimatum (September 23d), defined the position of his Government as follows: "The Government of the republic henceforth refuses, whatever future contingencies may arise, all demands for indemnification arising from the employment of the forces at the command of the Spanish Admiral. The entire and exclusive responsibility, incalculable evils which the coming conflict will bring to Chili and her people, foreign as well as native, must rest upon the oppressor, upon the Government of Spain and its agents who wish to submit the republic to the most distressing and injurious proceedings without a shadow of justice, without even a plausible pretext. Consequently, the Government of the undersigned will reclaim from that of Spain the amplest and most complete reparation for all damages that may be sustained by Chili growing out of the present difficulties."

The Government of Chili at once furnished copies of the correspondence with Pareja to the Diplomatic Corps resident in Santiago, and at a meeting of that body, composed of the following gentlemen, viz.: Thomas Nelson, Minister of the United States, acting as President; William Taylour Thompson, of Great Britain; F. Cory, of France; Antonio Ferro, Hernojenes de Irisarri, and Levenhagen, representing the kingdom of Prussia and the republics of Colombia and Guatemala—a very strong remonstrance was addressed to the Spanish Admiral against his precipitate action, but which elicited no satisfactory reply. In the third and last note of the ministers, dated September 28th, they say: "The undersigned consider that the said note does not destroy the observation and objections which they permitted themselves to make to H. E. in regard to the proceedings which he has adopted in order to arrange the differences existing between the Government of her Catholic Majesty and the Republic of Chili; finding themselves obliged, to their regret, to reiterate and maintain the reserves and protests contained in their communications of the 22d and 24th of this month."

As soon as Pareja's intentions were fully disclosed, and his determination to enforce the demand of Spain by hostilities, notwithstanding all efforts to the contrary, looked upon as settled, the Congress of Chili, in both houses, passed a declaration of war, as proposed, over the signatures of the President and all the mem-

bers of the cabinet. A loan of twenty millions of dollars was authorized, and unlimited power granted the Executive for raising troops and procuring ships for the defence of the country.

At this time the blockading squadron off the coast of Chili consisted of the *Villa de Madrid* (flagship) and *Resolucion*, steam screw frigates, at Valparaiso; the *Blanca* and *Berenguela*, vessels of the same class, at Caldera; the *Marquez de la Victoria*, another screw frigate at Coquimbo, while the gunboats (screw) *Covadonga* and another, name unknown, were to be used as tenders, or to blockade the minor ports of the south coast. The huge iron-clad frigate and ram *Numancia*—a most formidable ship, of thirty-nine heavy guns—was at Callao, but soon after joined the blockading fleet.

On September 28th the Chilean corvette *Esmeralda* and steamer *Maipo* succeeded in getting through the blockading fleet. They were well armed and fully manned, and were provisioned for a long cruise.

Admiral Pareja in so far yielded to the remonstrances of the diplomatic corps against the legality of the blockade of some forty ports by seven steamers, as to restrict it to six; viz., Valparaiso, Caldera, Coquimbo, Herradura (Guayacan), Tomé, and Talcahuano, thus acknowledging the illegality of the former general blockade, on paper, and giving a good case to all who had been exposed to loss by the previous notification. Even this restricted blockade the Spaniards found it impossible to make effective, and soon after raised the blockade of Tomé and Talcahuano.

The Government and Congress of Chili showed an unflinching determination to resist the Spanish aggression to the last. Congress successfully labored to restore confidence to the funds; roads were begun to open up direct communications to the principal towns, where formerly such were all by sea; a line of telegraph was being rapidly pushed forward, to connect the extremes of Chili. By a decree of October 7th, all customs duties were for the present abolished, whether on imports or exports; and thirty-six coast towns were declared ports* of Chili. By a decree of October 19th this freedom was annulled, so far as the ports effectually blockaded were concerned. The Government also decreed: First, that all the subjects of the Spanish crown resident in whatever part of Chili, should remove to Santiago, and there be matriculated, and brought within the vigilance of the authorities; and, secondly, that the notaries, bankers, and managers of insurance,

railway, and other companies, should not authorize any transfer of Spanish property or assets.

On November 26th the Chilean steamer *Esmeralda* succeeded in capturing the Spanish gunboat *Covadonga* off Papudo, having on board Admiral Pareja's correspondence. The engagement lasted about half an hour, fourteen of the Spaniards were wounded and two killed. The *Esmeralda* sustained no damage whatever. The prisoners taken were a commandant, six officers, and about one hundred and ten men, who were treated very kindly both by the authorities and the people. The commander of the *Esmeralda*, Don Juan Williams Robollo, was rewarded for his bravery by being raised to the rank of post captain, and his countrymen commenced a subscription to present the gallant seaman with a sword of honor. Previous to this affair the Chileans had captured a launch belonging to the Spanish ship *Resolucion*. This launch, mounting a cannon, had been doing duty at Quiriquine, Tomé, and Talcahuano. On the evening of the 17th of November the little Chilean tug steamer *Independencia*, two guns, was steaming along the coast of Itata, and when within cannon-shot of the launch was brought to by a discharge. The steamer stopped at once and put out her lights. The launch came alongside demanding her surrender and boarding her with forty men. As soon as they were on deck the crew of the *Independencia* seized and made every man prisoner, took the launch in tow, and handed over the prize and prisoners to the authorities at Maule.

The want of success in his operations against Chili, and especially the news of the capture of the *Covadonga*, so affected the mind of Admiral Pareja that he committed suicide November 28th. He was temporarily succeeded in the command of the squadron by Commodore Nunez, of the *Numancia*, who raised the blockade of all the Chilean ports except two, Valparaiso and Caldera.

On December 5th a special envoy of the Government of Chili to Peru, Domingo Santa Maria, concluded with a Peruvian commissioner, Toribio Pacheco, an offensive and defensive treaty against Spain. (See the text of the treaty under PERU.) No publicity, however, was given to the treaty until it was ratified by the Chilean Congress, and the solemn proclamation of the treaty did not take place until January 14, 1866.

In the southern provinces of Concepcion and Valdivia gold mines were discovered, and new coal mines were opened in the south. Favorable reports were also received of the quicksilver mines lately discovered in the hills about Valparaiso.

The Chilean Congress, in July, had a long and animated discussion on amending Article No. 5 of the Constitution. This article No. 5 is as follows: "The religion of the Republic of Chili is the Roman Catholic, to the exclusion

* These ports are the following: In the province of Chiloé, Chacabuco and Castro; in Llanquihue, Mellipulli and Calbuco; in Valdivia, Rio Aueno; in Arauco, Carampangue and Lebu; in Concepcion, Cobura, Lata, Lotilla, Penco, and Lirquem; in Mañe, Curanipe and Buchupureo; in Colchagua, Llico and Enman; in Santiago, San Antonio and San Antonio de las Bodegas; in Valparaiso, Algarrobo and San Jose; in Aconcagua, Lapallar, Papudo, Pichidangu, and los Vilos; in Coquimbo, Tongal, Guayacan, Tatoralillo, and Guanta; in Atacama, Carrizal-Bajo, Sarcoc, Pina, Blanca, Flamenec, Chanaral de las Animas, Toltal, Cobre, Papozo, Pan de Azucar, and Oblispio.

of the public exercise of any other." The discussion terminated in a way quite satisfactory to the Liberal party, notwithstanding the full strength of the Catholic party was brought to bear for the purpose of upholding this article. The law, as now approved by Congress and sanctioned by the Executive, declares in Article 1—That worship within buildings belonging to private persons is allowed to those who do not profess the Roman Catholic religion; and in Article 2—That Dissenters are allowed to establish and sustain private schools for the initiation of their own children in the doctrines of their religion.

CHINA. An empire in Eastern Asia. Emperor Ki-Tsang (before his accession to the throne, Tsai-Sung), born in 1855, succeeded his father, Heng-Fund, in 1861. Population estimated in 1849 at 415,000,000.*

The beginning of the year 1865 found the power of the Taipings broken. Their great leaders were mostly dead, and their vast armies dispersed. Numerous bands, however, constituting together a considerable force, continued the rebellion. In the latter part of 1864 their chief leader, and "Protector-General," Shi-Wong, said to be a brother of Chung-Wong, the best leader in the old army, issued two notifications, one to the people of the country, and another to the foreign treaty powers. In the address to the people, the Protector-General informs them that the Tartar dynasty must be displaced, and that the empire of China must be governed by Chinese. No violence will be offered to those who submit to Taiping rule. The second notification issued by the Taiping leader is addressed to the treaty powers. The Protector-General deprecates all feelings of hostility between his people and foreign powers. He intimates his intention of pushing his campaigns over the empire. He proposes terms of cooperation with the powers. These terms are, a constant supply of arms and ammunition to begin with. Then it is proposed that foreign nations shall commence a career of conquest under the sanction and authority of the heavenly dynasty. The plan laid down is that the powers shall ravage the coasts, seize whatever ports they choose, to become their own property, and retain for their own use all the spoil they can lay hands upon. Furthermore, the Taipings undertake to conduct operations in the interior and move toward Peking simultaneously with the progress of the foreigners along the coast. The Taipings go on to say that every city which they take will be duly plundered, and one-half of the proceeds in each case handed over to their powerful allies.

The headquarters of the Taipings were at Changchow, in the province of Fo-kien, and distant from the treaty fort of Amoy only fifteen miles. In March and April several engagements took place in the vicinity of Chang-

chow; in one the rebels lost 2,000 men, in the later one they defeated the Imperialists with a loss of 1,000 men. In May they evacuated Changchow, where they had been for some time so closely invested that a few weeks, it was thought, would have rendered their situation untenable. Having collected a number of Europeans and made their men perfect in drill, they pressed forward in the south and southeast, and contributed their share to the general disorder of the empire, which at this time was suffering from two other rebellions. After this time, little was heard of the independent operations of the Taipings, and they are mentioned only in connection with the other rebels. In May, the American Burgevine, while on his way from Amoy to join the Taiping garrison at Changchow, was arrested by the Mandarins. The Chinese officials informed the American Consul at Amoy, who repeatedly, but in vain, demanded his release, but he was kept as a prisoner by the Viceroy at Foochow. Subsequently it was officially reported that, with other prisoners, he had been drowned.

In January, 1865, an insurrection of the Mohammedan Dsunganes in Western Tartary, the origin of which dates back to the year 1862, assumed large and threatening dimensions. According to advices received from St. Petersburg, the loss of the province of Ili to the Chinese, as well as the remainder of Western Tartary, was a settled matter from the beginning of the year. Kashgar, Yarkand, Aksu, Tchongoutchak, and all the other principal towns in the region, were wrested from them by the insurgents. The only place which the Chinese continued to hold was Kuldja, the capital of Ili province, on the Russian frontier. According to direct advices, received by the St. Petersburg "Invalide," and dated November 4, Kopal, Russian province of Semipalatinsk (which borders upon Chinese Toorkistan), Kuldja (Urga), with its Chinese garrison, was still being besieged by the Dsunganes, who were in hopes of taking it shortly. The Kirghise of the region, finding the Chinese power on the decline, began to rebel and plunder; and there was a rumor that 5,000 Chinese militia, who had been colonized in those parts, intended crossing the frontier, and seeking refuge in Russian territory, where they would be well received and provided with land from the abundant domains of the Government. In Kashgar and Yarkand the Dsunganes had been beaten by the tribes of Kiptchak. According to a current, but, the "Invalide" says, absurd report, the English had asked permission of the Kiptchak to establish a factory on the Lake Sari Kach, situate in a dominant position on the ridge separating Kunduz from Kashgar.

The Nien-fei ("northern rebels"), whose insurrection, like that of the Mohammedans, began several years ago, obtained also in the first months of the year 1865 several successes. They contrived in the early part of April to

* For further statistical information, see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864.

take possession of the country north of the Yellow River, and to occupy the unwall'd city of Chung-sing, situated near the junction of the river with the Grand Canal. The Imperialists sought to prevent the Nien-fei from gaining possession of the canal, and thereby interrupting the direct communication with Pekin. They succeeded in driving them from this important position, and then guarded the right bank of the Huang-ho, thus protecting the wealthy cities in the Kiang-peh. San-ko-lin-sin, the commanding general of the Chinese army, was, however, killed in battle, and was succeeded by Tsing-Kuo-Fan, who, it was thought, would prove, as a general, greatly inferior to his predecessor. The rebels derived great strength from the presence of three renowned leaders, viz., Miao, a son of the late Miao Pei-ling, Chang, a son of the equally renowned Chang Lo-hsing, and Shên, a son of the Manchow Shên Pao, who was executed in 1864 for corrupt practices in Shan-si. In May and June the Nien-fei obtained many successes in Shantung, and pressed on as far as the left bank of the Huang-ho (Yellow River). In July they advanced, in conjunction with bands of Taipings and of Mohammedans, to within 200 miles of Pekin, and at one time were even reported to have captured that city. This report was, however, not confirmed; but they were driven off by the Imperialist troops, and their power in the latter part of the year considerably decreased.

In the latter months of the year acts of piracy along the coast of China became very frequent and troublesome to the foreign commerce. Among the vessels captured by the pirates was the Hamburg vessel J. H. Bockleman, and a Prussian bark, Fohkien, owed her escape only to the fortunate circumstance of another vessel heaving in sight. Of the boldness of the pirates and the inability of the Chinese Government to stop their operations, the "Overland China Mail" of Hong Kong speaks as follows: "They have the best information, have well-manned boats, armed in a very efficient manner, safe harbors of refuge, excellent markets for their plunder, and such an amount of voluntary or enforced coöperation from the petty mandarins, soldiers, and coast populations, that they are everywhere certain of assistance, and, if needs be, of support. We have further in these revelations the most convincing proofs of the utter powerlessness of the Chinese naval squadrons to effect any thing against the pirate fleets, even when spurred into motion by the remonstrances of our consuls, or shamed into a momentary display of energy and courage by the presence and coöperation of our gunboats. So numerous, so powerful, and so well-informed, too, have the pirates become, that the gunboats themselves, generally so successful, have begun to return baffled and without success. The attention of the Chinese Government must sooner or later be called to this matter."

The only remedy, it was thought, for the

present, could be found in arming every vessel. In November several gunboats attacked a fleet of piratical vessels, destroying ten craft and capturing a lorch'a.

An Imperial decree, of April 3d, announced that Prince Kung was degraded and deprived of his appointment for corruption and for disrespect toward the Emperor. His disgrace was unconnected with the foreign policy, and in May he was reinstated in the Foreign Board.

Mr. Robert Hart, the Inspector-General of Customs at Hong Kong, obtained in 1865 from the Government of Pekin a concession in favor of ship-owners which cannot fail to be of the greatest advantage to foreign merchants. Under the new arrangement the natives of China are permitted to purchase foreign vessels, and to sail them under the Chinese flag. It may, therefore, soon be expected that the unwieldy Chinese junks will be set aside for foreign ships, manned by foreign seamen, and commanded by foreign captains. The effect of this highly advantageous concession on the part of the Pekin Government will thus be to give new facilities for the carrying on of the coasting trade along an immense range of the Chinese seaboard.

In August a treaty of commerce between China and Holland was ratified.

The letters of the Roman Catholic missionaries in China mention a great religious movement as taking place at present among all the population of that vast empire. Hundreds of villages, they say, are becoming converted to Catholicism, but the number of missionaries is quite insufficient to gather in the abundant harvest. The bishops of China have, therefore, made an earnest appeal to the devotedness of the Catholic priests in Europe to aid in the conversion of so many millions. Of Protestant missionaries (including ladies) there were in China, in 1865, one hundred and eighty-seven, while over fifteen were either absent on leave or on their way out to join the mission. They were distributed over the various stations as follows: Canton, 30; Hong Kong, 22; Swatow, 7; Amoy, 14; Fuhchan, 20; Ningpo, 21; Shanghai, 25; Hankow, 5; Chefoo, 9; Tungchow, 7; Tientsin, 11; and Pekin, 16. Of these, 92 are American, 78 are English, and 18 are German.

On October 5th a regular postal communication was opened between Kiakh'ta and Tientsin, by way of Ourga, Kalgain, and Pekin. Single letters, or letters containing enclosures of money or documents, as also parcels and telegraphic despatches, are forwarded four times a month both ways. The post leaves St. Petersburg for Kiakh'ta every Tuesday and Friday, and reaches Kiakh'ta in five weeks.

CHOLERA, ASIATIC. This disease, which had three times previously during the present century scourged the countries of Europe, and committed terrible ravages on this continent, appeared during the summer of 1865 in Arabia, Turkey, and Egypt, and visited the countries bordering on the Medierranean, and in the

autumn prevailed with considerable severity in Paris and the north of France, and attacked a few of the inhabitants of the southern seaports of England. It was also brought to the port of New York by a ship from Havre, but a rigid quarantine being maintained the disease gained no foothold on the land. In view of the strong probability of its reappearance both in England and America in the summer of 1866, it may be well to give a brief history of its progress in the past, its causes, diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment. The home of the disease is, and has been for centuries, in the East. The low marshy grounds overflowed often by the great rivers of India, Siam, Burmah, and Cochin China, reeking with abundant filth and vegetable decay, to which the abject poverty and degradation of the miserable inhabitants of those regions largely contribute, are fitting nests for breeding and nursing the pestilence. Accordingly we find that for the last five hundred years it has been endemic in all these countries, and that every few years it has assumed an epidemic form and ravaged the territory for hundreds of miles, slaying its tens of thousands of victims. In the year 1629, Bontius, a Dutch physician residing at Batavia, described to the medical profession in Europe this formidable and deadly disease, and his description was preserved and repeated by other medical writers; and perhaps a hundred years later, British and French physicians in India, who had witnessed its ravages, confirmed the description of Bontius, and sent home accounts of the destructive character of the plague. Outside of the profession, however, in Europe and America, intelligent citizens knew little and cared less in regard to the diseases of India and the East. So remote was the country, and so slow and difficult the communication with it, that it never entered the minds even of professional men, that it could find its way to the distant shores of Europe, or the still more distant ones of America. The time came, however, as intercourse with the East grew more frequent and easy, when the pestilence began to move out from its nest and march eastward and westward. Why, at the precise period when it first started upon its travels, it should have invaded countries hitherto free from it, is one of those inexplicable facts in the history of epidemics, upon which speculation is useless. It is, nevertheless, well ascertained that after remaining stationary for centuries, in the year 1817 it raged with great violence at Jessore, a large town near the mouths of the Ganges. It spread, not very swiftly, but yet with awful certainty, in all directions, and by August of the following year had reached Bombay, on the western side of the peninsula. Thence it travelled through Arabia, Persia, Mesopotamia, Syria, etc., on its westward course, and, continuing to extend itself eastward from its place of origin, invaded the Burmese empire, Siam, Java, China, and the other populous countries of that portion of the earth.

Still, its progress was very slow. Several days

frequently lapsed before it passed from one town to another only a few miles distant. The means of communication were, in the regions where it prevailed, very imperfect, and to this cause its sluggish movements must be attributed. In these days of steam its course is more rapid.

Up to 1823 its ravages had not extended beyond Asia; but in that year it appeared at Orenburg and Astrachan, two towns situated on the eastern frontier of Russia. Here it remained until 1828, when it increased in violence, attacking a tenth of the inhabitants of the province of Orenburg, and proving fatal to a fourth of those affected.

In 1830 it reappeared at Astrachan. In less than a month 4,000 persons died of it in that city, and over 21,000 perished from it in the province. Ascending the Volga, it reached Moscow, destroying thousands in that city; and, continuing its fatal course, appeared at St. Petersburg on the 26th of June, 1831. From Astrachan it also diverged along the northern coast of the Black Sea, and thence spread into Austria, Poland, Prussia, and Northern Germany generally. In August, 1831, it was conveyed to Cairo by a caravan from Mecca. Thousands perished from it on the road, and over 15,000 died of it in the former city.

On the 26th of October, 1831, the disease appeared for the first time in England, at Sunderland, a town situated on the North Sea, near Newcastle. It was supposed to have been introduced from Hamburg by a returned collier. It showed very little disposition for some time to pass beyond the limits of this city, and was mainly confined to the worst parts of the town; according to a statement made at that time, it crept like a skulking hyena from one dirty lane to another, affecting localities remarkable for their filth, poverty, and wretchedness, and carrying off those who, from decrepitude, drunkenness, hunger, or uncleanness, were already fit subjects for the grave.

From Sunderland it spread slowly through the northern part of England and Scotland, and did not break out in London till the 14th of February following, when some persons living in the immediate vicinity of the shipping were attacked. In this city, as in all others in which the disease had made its appearance, the districts mainly affected were those chiefly distinguished for their filthiness and an utter disregard of all sanitary regulations. Thus, for instance, the streets of St. Olive, St. Thomas, and Whitechapel, which were the most unhealthy districts, were stated to be "a disgrace to the civilized world." In Whitechapel, the great majority of its confined and crowded streets, courts, and alleys were without ventilation, water, or sewerage. In Lambeth, where the cholera also prevailed extensively, the cleansing, drainage, and water supply were either totally wanting or grievously defective. It was invariably noticed that the disease was especially prevalent in those sections where typhus and typhoid fevers and other affections

due to dirt and overcrowding were most liable to occur.

On the 8th of June, 1832, the cholera broke out at Quebec, this being its first appearance on this side of the Atlantic. It was supposed to have been introduced in an emigrant ship, many of the passengers of which had died from it during the voyage. Two days afterwards it appeared at Montreal. On the 24th, New York was unexpectedly attacked—the cities and towns along the coast to the north entirely escaping. From New York it extended to Albany, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, New Orleans, etc.—most of the larger towns being visited, but some unaccountably remaining exempt from its ravages. The first case in New York occurred at the corner of Gold and Frankfort Streets. The patient was a native male citizen. Some cases immediately followed in Cherry Street; the subjects were Irish emigrants, who had arrived at Quebec in the autumn of 1831, and had resided in Albany till the month of May, 1832, when they had removed to New York. On the 27th, the disease manifested itself at Bellevue Hospital. The patient was an aged woman who had not been out of the institution for three years, and who had held no communication with the city. Reade, Washington, and Duane Streets, the Five Points, and the whole region of the Sixth Ward, were visited by the epidemic with fearful violence. Rotten Row, in Laurens, between Grand and Broome Streets, was another deadly centre of the malady. In all these places, as well as in the others where it raged with the greatest intensity, the local and removable conditions of general insalubrity were abundant.

The epidemic reached its height in New York on the 21st of July, from which period it continued to decline. It did not finally disappear from the United States for three or four years.

So much for the first epidemic of Asiatic cholera. In Great Britain and Ireland over 116,000 cases and 40,000 deaths occurred. In the cities of Quebec, Montreal, New York, and Philadelphia, embracing, at that time, about 450,000 inhabitants, there were over 18,000 cases and 8,000 deaths.

The sporadic cases which occurred in the United States, and especially in the Western States, as late as 1836 finally ceased entirely, and for twelve years Western Europe and the United States were freed from its scourge. In India, however, it continued to be endemic, and as often as once in three or four years blazed out in a fierce and destructive epidemic. Other of the Asiatic countries were also visited again, and their population decimated by it. At length it again took up its line of march northward and westward. Early in 1846 it appeared at Kurrachee, near the mouth of the Indus, where it raged with terrific violence, more than 8,000 of its victims dying within a few days. Thence it passed on to Teheran, the capital of Persia, where its severity was such that 300 perished daily for several weeks in a population of not more than 60,000. "Those who

were attacked dropped down suddenly in a state of lethargy, and at the end of two or three hours expired without any convulsions or vomiting, but from a complete stagnation of the blood, to which no remedies could restore its circulation."

Entering Europe almost by the identical route which it traversed on its first visitation, though travelling with much greater rapidity than it did at that time, the cholera ravaged parts of Russia and Turkey during the years 1847 and 1848. In the summer of 1848 it seemed to decline in violence, and hopes were entertained that Western Europe would not be visited by it. These hopes, however, proved fallacious. In the autumn of 1848 it appeared in France and Great Britain, revisiting, during the next eight months with almost unerring certainty, every place in which it had appeared in the epidemic of 1832-'33, and seeking out the same filthy lanes and undrained sections of the cities where it had then committed its greatest ravages. Its character was even more malignant than in its previous visit. 53,293 persons were carried off by it in England and Wales, without reckoning fatal cases of diarrhoea, most of which were really cholera in its earlier stages.

On the 9th of November, 1848, the ship New York left Havre for the city of New York, with 985 passengers. There was no cholera either at Havre or Paris when the vessel sailed, and the passengers remained healthy till they had been out sixteen days. One of them was then taken ill with a disease resembling cholera, another and another case followed, until, when the vessel arrived at Staten Island, on the 4th of December, eight or ten had died, and as many were still suffering from the disease. Cases continued to occur at quarantine among the passengers and the patients of the Marine Hospital. A few days after the ship arrived at quarantine, an individual came from there to the city, and stopped at a German emigrant house on the corner of Cedar and Greenwich Streets. He was attacked with the disease, and being carried back died in a few hours. On the 11th of December another case occurred in the same house. This house was excessively filthy, and contained upwards of two hundred lodgers, mostly emigrants. One other case occurred at 161 Washington Street, and then the disease ceased its ravages. In all, there were ninety-two cases and forty-eight deaths.

But as usual it was only resting from its labors. During the first week in April, 1849, it reappeared at quarantine, and by the 30th of May forty-three had died of it. In the city it made its irruption in the most filthy regions and among the lowest of the population.

Meanwhile it had appeared in New Orleans, and had spread over the greater part of the Eastern and Western States; the emigrant parties and military expeditions on the prairies suffered severely from it; many tribes of Indians expe-

rienced its attacks, and the mortality from it in California was fearful. It did not entirely disappear from the United States till 1855, and in 1854 became very violent in some localities. In 1853 and 1854 it prevailed again in Great Britain, and in 1855 and 1856 the allied armies in the Crimea suffered intensely from the pestilence.

After a period of nearly ten years it again commenced its westward march, and in the beginning of May, 1865, it broke out with terrible fury among the pilgrims to Mecca, who congregated in that city to the number of more than 200,000, and under the circumstances of privation, filth, and suffering, best calculated to aggravate its intensity. It is stated that, within the space of less than three weeks, more than a million sheep and camels were slaughtered as sacrifices, and their offal left to putrefy in that tropical climate. This alone is sufficient to account for the fearful mortality which so speedily followed. It was said that fully 150,000 of these poor wretches were attacked by it either at Mecca or on their way to or from that city, and the pilgrimage routes were marked for long distances by their bones.

On the 10th or 11th of May, the first death from cholera occurred at Alexandria, in Egypt, the disease having been brought to that city by pilgrims returning from Mecca. From that date to the 16th of July, 3,800 deaths had ensued from the pestilence, and there had been about 10,000 cases in a population of less than 60,000. Rosetta Santa and Zagari were attacked about the same time. In June it had reached Cairo. On the 3d of July it appeared at Constantinople, and almost simultaneously several cases occurred at Ancona. From Alexandria it was imported into Marseilles in a steamer. Its ravages in Cairo were frightful, nearly 500 perishing from it in a single day. In Constantinople, where it produced a terrible panic, under the influence of which one hundred and fifty thousand of the inhabitants fled from the city, many of them only to perish by the way, its malignity was remarkable. The authorities carefully concealed the number of deaths, which were believed in the height of the epidemic to have exceeded 2,000 per day. A terrible fire which occurred on the 5th of September and lasted till the 8th, destroying 15,000 houses, checked it completely, as the great fire in London did the plague in 1666. Some of the cities of Italy, Ancona in particular, were terribly scourged, the want of cleanliness and sanitary measures furnishing the disease with a great number of victims, while other cities, establishing a rigid quarantine and maintaining strictly their sanitary police, were able to keep it at bay, or at most had but a few isolated cases. In Marseilles it was less virulent, though still formidable. It was carried to Paris from Marseilles by travellers, but great efforts had been made to place the city in a favorable sanitary condition, and though many were attacked, the disease was milder and more

amenable to treatment in most cases than in the East. On the 24th of October there were two well-marked cases of it at Southampton, England. The disease spread to some of the neighboring towns, but the timely appearance of cold weather soon checked its progress.

On the 3d of November the steamship *Atlanta* came into the lower bay of New York having cholera on board. She was last from Havre (12th October), where she had received about 400 German passengers, mostly in the steerage, who had passed through Paris where cholera was then prevailing, and on the second day out a child died from a mild attack of cholera; others were attacked soon after, and during the voyage sixty were taken ill, some of them, however, with small-pox; sixteen died, and the remainder for the most part began to recover. After her arrival at quarantine thirty-six more were taken ill, of whom four died. The survivors who were ill were removed to the floating hospital, *Florence Nightingale*, where they recovered. There were 525 passengers in the steerage. None of the cabin passengers took the disease. None of the small-pox cases proved fatal. The vessel was detained at quarantine and thoroughly purified, and the disease did not spread, though there were in the city of New York in November and December a number of cases presenting to some extent the symptoms of cholera. There has been hitherto a remarkable uniformity in the mortality from cholera. In 1830-'32 in Great Britain and on the Continent, the deaths in private practice were about 39.5 per cent., in hospitals 57.25 per cent. In 1849 in New York the whole number of cases reported outside the hospitals in fifty-two days were 2,631, of which 915 died, or 34.78 per cent.; in the hospitals there were 1,621 cases, of which 880, or 53.71 per cent., died. In Egypt, Turkey, and Italy, during the present epidemic, the number of deaths was about 55 per cent. of the whole number of cases. In Marseilles the mortality was less, and in Paris not over 30 per cent. The disease was carried in November from Marseilles to Point-à-Pitri in the island of Guadeloupe, and there it has raged fearfully, nearly 6,000 of the inhabitants of that island and those immediately adjacent having fallen victims to it.

The causes which produce cholera and aid in its dissemination are of two kinds, the *remote* and the *proximate*. The *remote causes* are the existence of extensive vegetable decay, producing malarious and depressing influences, want of cleanliness, want of efficient ventilation; the poisoning of the air by the escape of foul and noxious gases from sewers, vaults, and privies, imperfect drainage and sewerage, the accumulation of decaying garbage in the streets, cellars, and elsewhere. The presence of the noxious odors and gases from these sources, and their absorption into the human system by the lungs and the absorbents, will of itself produce diarrhoea, nausea, prostration, the congestion of the blood upon the vital organs, and often

spasm, collapse, and death. Their existence in the highest degree of intensity in the bottom lands of the Ganges, the Brahmaputra, the Irrawadi, or the Meinam, may account for its apparently spontaneous generation there. In other countries, however, there has been needed apparently a germ of the disease to fall into these prepared seed-beds, to develop into the formidable and deadly epidemic. It is well settled that this germ is found in the discharges, either by vomiting or purgation, of those who are affected by it; and these excreta, permitted to flow into uncleansed gutters, privies, or sewers, impart their deadly character to whatever of decayed animal or vegetable matter may be brought in contact with them, and thus the disease is communicated with fearful rapidity through the poisoned air to hundreds, and perhaps thousands. This may serve to explain why the disease rages so frightfully in the crowded and filthy tenement houses, and the dirty and uncleansed back slums of our great cities, and why when it has once obtained a foothold there it is eradicated with such difficulty. Every case furnishes the poison which will be absorbed by scores or hundreds of persons, who will, if they remain in the vicinity, most surely be attacked by the disease, and if they attempt to fly, will, in all probability, bear it off with them.

Contagious, in the ordinary or in the medical sense of that word, namely, as being communicated by contact with the patients affected by it or by inoculation of the matter discharged, cholera certainly is not, but that it is *portable*, or capable of being transmitted by the carrying of these germs, from one place to another, in the excretions of persons who have already absorbed the poison, there can be no sort of doubt. And it is not impossible that the deadly virus, after having lain dormant for months, and perhaps for years, may be quickened into new vitality by some influences, climatic or other, which only develop it in the presence or in the approach of the pestilence. How otherwise shall we explain satisfactorily its return with such unerring certainty after an interval of some years, not simply to the same neighborhood, but to the same house, and the same room, to commence anew its ravages? This has occurred too often in London, in Edinburgh, in Glasgow, in Montreal, and in New York, to be a mere matter of accident.

The progress of the disease and the mode of its transmission from one city and country to another during the present epidemic, fully demonstrates its portable character: it has, in every instance, from its first appearance at Alexandria, on the 11th of May, to its introduction into Guadaloupe, and its existence on the Atalanta, been satisfactorily traced to emigrants, pilgrims, or travellers who have come directly from localities and dwellings where it existed. The investigations of Dr. Snow, an eminent physician and sanitarian of London, in the epidemic cholera of 1854-'56, fully confirm this

view. His theory was: 1st, that cholera was exclusively a disease of the alimentary canal; 2d, that the primary change in the alimentary canal is always induced by the induction therein of a specific poison; 3d, that the poison is exclusively contained in the intestinal contents of the infected person—that is to say, in what is purged from the bowels and vomited from the stomach. There is nothing breathed from the lungs, nothing thrown off from the skin that will propagate the disease; 4th, that the poison is neither a gas nor a vaporous, but a material substance, and exists either as a liquid or a solid. It cannot, therefore, be carried far by the atmosphere, and when dry must be attached to clothing, or disseminated through water, to be carried long distances.

He believed that the dissemination of the disease was accomplished in one of the following ways: 1st. The moist concretions of cholera on the clothes and bedding of infected persons might be carried mechanically by the vapor of water, and enter the mouth and nostrils in that form, and so be swallowed. In this way laundresses who washed the clothes of cholera patients often took the disease. 2d. The poison might dry on infected clothing, and from such clothing, on its being unfolded or moved, the solid organic matter might escape in small substance, to be wafted in the air, and be absorbed through the mouth by any one exposed to it. The disease was introduced into Guadaloupe by the clothing contained in a trunk belonging to a person who died on the voyage thither from Marseilles, where the cholera was then raging. The laundress who washed the clothing died of the cholera, and all her family. 3d. Persons who lay out the dead, and others in attendance, might actually carry the poison in their hands and infect themselves by taking food when their skin was not properly cleansed. Twenty-seven physicians and medical assistants in Constantinople were attacked and died during their attendance on the disease, and in Paris and Toulon similar results have followed. 4th. The very utensils, such as basins and cups, used by the sick, might convey the poison, as well as the cloths on which these utensils, after an imperfect washing, have been dried.

To these modes stated by Dr. Snow may be added that the effluvia from basins, bed-pans, etc., used by cholera patients, if suffered to remain, especially in small, close, or ill-ventilated rooms, charge the atmosphere and the bedding with the poison, which is often taken up by the absorbents or being inhaled passes into the stomachs of those in attendance. Further than this, the excretions thus charged with poison, if thrown into gutters, cesspools, privies, or open sewers, will communicate their deadly character to the vegetable and animal matters with which they are brought in contact, and the exhalations arising from these may be absorbed and induce the disease. Dr. Rich, who had charge of the cholera lazaretto in Malta, and afterwards in the Balearic Islands, in 1831.

noticed that the attendants who removed the excretions were attacked by the disease, and covered the surface of the vessels used with oil, and had a charge of chlorine gas passed at once through each, and from that time no new cases occurred among the attendants. As an illustration of the virulence of the poison of cholera, even when largely diluted, the following case, related by Dr. Snow, may be given. In 1854, there was a well in Broad Street, London, into which the contents of a sewer had been percolating for months. Of this water hundreds of persons had been drinking, and although cholera was present in other parts of London, there were no cases in this locality. At last a case of cholera occurred, and by means of the sewer the excretions of the patient were mingled with the water of the well. Within three days, more than five hundred persons, who used the water from this particular well, were attacked with the disease. Believing that the disease was communicated by this water, Dr. Snow removed the handle of the pump, and thus cut off the use of the water, and no more new cases appeared.

This view of the *portability* of the disease justifies the maintenance of a rigid quarantine, to prevent its admission from foreign ports, and indeed renders it imperative. If it once obtains a foothold it will naturally prevail most in those sections where filth, overcrowding, poor ventilation, and imperfect sewerage prevail; and once established there it will not be eradicated for many months, nor without great difficulty. It is, therefore, of the greatest importance that special pains should be taken to maintain cleanliness throughout our cities and towns, and to avoid those evils which, if they do not engender, at least aggravate disease.

We turn next to consider the *pathology* of the disease, or the portion of the human organism affected by it, and causing the symptoms which are characteristic of it.

We may, then, define Asiatic Cholera as a specific poison introduced in some manner into the system, and after a longer or shorter period of incubation, acting either through the blood primarily, or more probably through the nervous system, and especially on the great sympathetic nerve and its ganglia, producing at first great excitement, but, speedily, still greater depression of the vital powers—causing a kind of tetanic contraction of the capillary vessels and arteries, and thus emptying all the blood-vessels of the surface into the great central veins, and preventing the oxygenation of the blood by prohibiting its passage back to the heart through the lungs. This driving back the blood into the great central veins produces congestion and oppression of the liver, heart, kidneys, and alimentary canal, and the effort of Nature to relieve the system by violent purgation and vomiting, only results in exudation of the serous fluid of the blood, and secretions into the stomach and bowels, causing a rapid exhaustion and collapse. From this condition

unassisted Nature rarely rallies; but in a few and exceptional cases, a reaction takes place, and a fever sets in, which usually proves fatal.

The symptoms of the disease, from commencement to termination, may, with propriety, be detailed at some length, and in such a way as to enable the non-professional reader to recognize the disease without difficulty. Within a longer or shorter period after the poison has been absorbed by the system, usually only a very few hours, though in exceptional cases it may be days, there is a vague feeling of uneasiness in the stomach and bowels, accompanied by a sense of heat and disorder, with some looseness, a simple feculent diarrhoea, with little or no griping, at first with but infrequent discharges, three or four in a day, but increasing by the second day to ten or twelve. Accompanying this diarrhoea there is soon occasional nausea, with a constantly increasing lassitude and languor. After purging, the patient is giddy or dizzy, and very weak. There is an empty, hollow feeling at the stomach, and soon some vomiting, at first of no great amount, but a thin watery fluid mixed with a little bile, and perhaps some undigested food. By this time there is a slight tendency to shivering, though no distinct chill. The stomach and bowels are distended, and the more frequent stools are no longer feculent, but thin, whitish, having the appearance of whey or rice water, with starchy looking fæces floating in them, and, though there may be once or twice traces of bile, it soon disappears. There is a restlessness about the patient, and he complains of ringing in his ears, a tingling sensation in his hands and feet, as if they were asleep, and slight cramps in his feet. The pulse, at this stage, is somewhat quicker and weaker than in health, the tongue is moist and slightly furred, but the patient complains of thirst. The features have an unnatural sharpness, and the countenance an anxious and apprehensive expression.

If now the case is suffered to go on without medical interference, or a further time elapses before any thing is done for the patient, the purging becomes more frequent, abundant, and sudden, the discharges being violent, "shot out," as the attendants will say, and always of the rice or barley water character, with flaky or starchy particles floating in them, and with each purging there is a sinking of the pulse, severe cramps in the feet and legs, and increased helplessness and prostration. Vomiting accompanies the purging, and the matter ejected from the stomach is similar in character to that which comes from the bowels, with occasionally some traces of bile; but the vomiting is not so copious as the purging, and after a time ceases. As the patient grows weaker the purging ceases also; but before this, spasms of a tetanic character have developed from the cramps which at first affected the feet and legs; the fingers and toes thrill and tingle as if they were asleep; this is followed by a quivering—rather strange than painful—feeling in the hands and feet:

then a sudden twitching, and stiffening, and twisting of the toes and fingers, which greatly alarms the patient, and often brings tears. Then the calves of the legs, and the muscles of the arms and thighs and loins are drawn up in excruciating knots; the integuments of the abdomen are raised in irregular folds, the belly itself drawn violently backward toward the spine, the diaphragm upward and inward, and toward the chest. There is hardness and constant pain in the region of the bowels, and the flesh is sore to the touch. Agonizing, however, as these spasms are, there is no convulsion, no blunting of the intelligence, no unconsciousness. In the interval of these spasms, the expression of the countenance is bloodless and corpse-like; there are livid circles around the mouth, and the dull, sunken eyes; the features are sharp and contracted; the expression helpless, wild, and terror-stricken; the lips blue; the face and neck have a leaden, brown, or purple hue, according to the complexion of the patient or the severity of the attack; the hands are withered, and the fingers wrinkled and sodden, resembling those of the washerwoman when just taken from her tub; the large superficial veins are very dark, almost black; the respiration is broken, labored, and irregular, inspiration appearing to be effected by an immense effort of the chest, while the nostrils, instead of expanding, collapse, and stop the ingress of the air, and the expiration is hurried and convulsive. The breath is intensely cold, much colder than the atmosphere; the tongue, perhaps, white and loaded, but always moist, flabby, and chilled, having a feeling like the nose of a dog or a bit of dead flesh. The feet, legs, thighs, and arms, and soon the abdomen and chest, also have the discoloration so marked in the dead body, and the toes, like the fingers, are shrunken and withered. The patient tosses incessantly from side to side, laboring and struggling for breath; his voice is a hoarse, plaintive whisper, or occasionally a low poignant wail or a weak whine; he calls constantly in piteous tones for "water, water, water," to allay the all-consuming thirst, and in broken sentences, a word at a time, complains of the weight and anguish at his heart, and the fire in his stomach, bowels, and throat. His skin is deadly cold, and wholly or nearly insensible to the action of either mustard or blister, yet at times he complains of feeling too warm, and endeavors to throw off the bedclothes. The secretions have all ceased; there is no urine, no bile, no saliva, and no tears. There is no genuine perspiration, but a cold, clammy sweat, possessing in a marked degree the death odor, exudes from the relaxed pores of every portion of the body; the lips and cheeks puff out and flap in expiration, with a white froth between them as in apoplexy. The spasms have cramped the very vitals; the pulse, which has been growing feeble and feebler for hours, ceases, at the wrist; the broken heavings of the chest grow fewer and fainter; there is a quivering among the tendons of the wrist; a long, weary, con-

vulsive sob, but no rattle, and all is over. Of course, all of these symptoms may not be present in every case; in rare and exceptional instances, the preliminary diarrhoea has been absent, and an obstinate constipation has continued up to the time when the explosive purgation and cramps set in; but in no case of genuine cholera are the rice-water stools, the terrible cramps, the tetanic spasms, the oppressed breathing, the chilled breath, the dog-nose feel of the tongue, the withered, sodden condition of the hands and fingers, and the wild, haggard, pinched, and anxious expression of the countenance absent. The entire course of the disease which we have thus endeavored to portray may be run in twelve hours, or it may occupy three or even four days. Spontaneous recovery, without medication, when the attack is severe, is exceedingly rare.

From the description given of the pathology and characteristic symptoms of the disease, it is not difficult to determine the indications to be fulfilled in the treatment of the disease. There may be a diversity of views as to the particular means by which the object is accomplished, but all would agree as to the principles upon which the treatment ought to proceed. In the first, or what some physicians would call the preliminary step, but which is, nevertheless, really cholera, the diarrhoea which precedes the more violent purging, vomiting, and spasms, the first indication is to check the diarrhoea without inducing inflammation or undue excitement of the system. It is to be understood and remembered, that the purging is an effort of nature to rid the system of the poison which it has imbibed; and though it is likely to be ineffectual, yet it should not be checked in such a way as to leave the alimentary canal in a state of violent irritation, but so far as possible the highly excited nervous and vascular tissues of the intestines must be soothed and quieted. Those who have read carefully the statement given of the pathology of the disease, will recollect that one feature of it was, that the general vascular system, the small blood-vessels which approached the surface were greatly depressed and constricted, and the blood thrown from the surface inward upon the central veins and the vital organs. Another indication, then, is to restore the circulation upon the surface, to call the blood back from the internal organs which are becoming oppressed by it, to run its usual course in the superficial veins and arteries. The accomplishment of this will fulfil a third indication, that of restoring the secretions from the liver, kidneys, salivary glands, &c., which have been suppressed by the overwhelming amount of work thrown upon them, and the want of vitalized or aerated blood to stimulate their action. The circulation fully restored, and the system relieved from the depressing influence of the poison, the next indication will speedily be fulfilled. The liver will again secrete, and send forth the bile to restore healthy action in the stomach and bowels, and the kidneys once

more undertake their functions of eliminating their secretion from the blood. The fifth indication is to moderate and control the reaction which now sets in, in such a way as to avoid congestion, local determination, or inflammation of the vital organs.

If the disease has passed beyond this stage before any attempts are made to grapple with it, the indications for treatment are somewhat changed. The tendency to spasm, which is closing with violence the superficial blood-vessels, and hurling the non-oxygenated blood, dark, thick, and viscid, upon the already overburdened vital organs, must be controlled and subdued, the surface circulation restored, and the secretions reestablished, a work of great difficulty, but one which in most cases of considerable vital power can be accomplished.

Even when the symptoms of oppression of the lungs and heart have grown still more distressing, and the poor victim already cold and deathly, except where the fierce fire of the disease burns and tortures stomach and heart, tosses in piteous distress from side to side, and finds no relief, his case may yet not be past all hope. If, even then, the blood can be impelled to the surface and the extremities, before it becomes too viscid for movement; if secretion can be reestablished and a free glowing perspiration made to take the place of the clammy and fetid exudation which now bedews the skin, the limbs resume their vitality, and the misery at the heart be relieved, the patient may yet be saved; and to these objects all the resources of medical skill must be directed.

Let us, then, glance at the different methods of treatment which have been recommended, having in view the fulfilling of these indications. The thousand remedies which have been prescribed empirically, and without reference to the nature of the disease, merit no further notice than this, that their prescribers have sometimes ignorantly blundered upon remedies which did accomplish the objects desired, though without any intention on their part.

In the preliminary stage the authorities are very generally agreed on the propriety of using alteratives rather than astringents and stimulants solely. Perhaps nothing better for this purpose has been or can be prescribed than the aromatic syrup of rhubarb of the shops, with the addition of two grains of carbonate of soda to the ounce. Of this a tablespoonful may be given as a dose to an adult, to be repeated if necessary twice or thrice, and if the diarrhoea is obstinate, with the addition of twenty or twenty-five drops of laudanum. Absolute rest in this stage of the disease is indispensable. The patient must take to his bed and keep it, and be warmly covered. If the disease is obstinate, apply a flannel roller around the abdomen, and repeating the dose of laudanum and rhubarb, give an enema of two to four ounces of starch emulsion with a teaspoonful of laudanum, and surround the patient with bags of hot sand, bottles of hot water, stockings filled with hot boiled potatoes,

mashed, or something of the kind which will promote free perspiration and bring the blood to the surface. A mustard poultice to the abdomen, and others to the calves of the legs, will prove advantageous, if there is fullness and pain in the abdominal region, or any tendency to cramps.

The treatment of this stage by the missionaries in Constantinople, in 1848, in 1855, and in the recent epidemic, which proved wonderfully successful, varied but little from this; it was as follows, as stated by the Rev. Cyrus Hamlin, D. D., who had been most active in the treatment of cholera among all classes:

"The mixture which I used in 1848, 1855, and 1865 has saved thousands. It consists of equal parts by measure of—1. Laudanum and Spirits of Camphor; 2. Tincture of Rhubarb, thirty drops for an adult, on a lump of sugar, will often check the diarrhoea. But to prevent its return, care should always be taken to continue the medicine every four hours in diminishing doses, twenty-five, twenty, fifteen, ten, nine, when careful diet is all that will be needed.

"In case the first dose does not stay the diarrhoea, continue to give in increasing doses thirty-five, forty, forty-five and sixty drops at every movement of the bowels. Large doses will produce no injury while the diarrhoea lasts. When that is checked, then is the time for caution. I have never seen a case of diarrhoea taken in season which was not thus controlled, but some cases of advanced diarrhoea, and especially of relapse, paid no heed to it whatever. As soon as this becomes apparent, I have always resorted to this course: Prepare a teacup of starch, boiled as for use in starching linen, and stir into it a full teaspoonful of laudanum for an injection. Give one-third at each movement of the bowels.

"In one desperate case, abandoned as hopeless by a physician, I could not stop the diarrhoea until the seventh injection, which contained near a teaspoonful of laudanum. The patient recovered, and is in perfect health. At the same time I use prepared chalk in ten grain doses, with a few drops of laudanum and camphor to each." The missionaries also applied mustard poultices to the pit of the stomach, and enjoined perfect rest. The "Potter's Powder" of the shops (prepared chalk, pulverized camphor, and carb. ammoniac) will be found, in many cases, a preferable mode of administering the chalk and camphor, to that suggested by Dr. Hamlin.

In more advanced cases the missionaries say: "When there is vomiting and purging, perhaps also cramps and colic pains, the following mixture should always be resorted to: Equal parts of laudanum, tincture of capsicum, tincture of ginger, and tincture of cardamom seeds. Dose, thirty to forty drops, or half a teaspoonful in a little water, and to be increased according to the urgency of the case. In case the first dose should be rejected, the second, which should stand ready, should be given immediately after the spasm of vomiting has ceased. Use large

mustard poultices of strong pure mustard on the stomach, bowels, calves of the legs, feet, &c., as the case seems to require."

Some of the more eminent of the English and French physicians oppose the use of opium in any form, and advocate the use of diffusible stimulants, compound spirits of ammonia, champagne, and brandy, with inhalations of chloroform, and the internal use of that remedy, with spirits of turpentine and brandy, six drops of chloroform, forty of turpentine, and a wine-glass of diluted brandy, and follow this by calomel (five grains) and beef's gall (ten grains), alternating the calomel and chloroform at intervals of an hour or oftener, till reaction comes on. Others use chloroform and brandy without the spirits of turpentine. The object which these physicians desire to attain by the use of the chloroform, by inhalation and internally, is the subduing of the cramps and spasms, thereby enabling the superficial circulation to be restored. The success which has followed this mode of treatment is said to have been marked; but it is not so well adapted as that which has been already described for administration by those who have had no medical knowledge or experience, and the success which has resulted from it would seem to be no greater.

The first stage of the disease, prior to the establishment of the tetanic spasms, and at all events before the stage of exhaustion or collapse, is the favorable one for successful treatment. Taken at this stage, cholera is not often a fatal disease. Ninety-five, and in some countries ninety-nine out of every hundred patients attacked, recover if properly treated.

But when the cramps and spasms have tortured the patient, when the blood has retreated upon the centres of life, and the poor fellow, already apparently more than half dead, whispers in those painful tones for "water, water, water," while his wild, despairing gaze seeks vainly for help, and his poor, withered, sodden hands are laid piteously on his breast, the case is, though not hopeless, yet one demanding the highest courage, perseverance, and skill. We have shown what are the indications for treatment at this stage, in which the struggle is emphatically one for life. By what medicines shall these indications be best fulfilled?

The appliances for maintaining and rousing the heat of the surface already mentioned, bags of sand, bottles of hot water, or flannel cloths wrung out in very hot water and covered with blankets, must be continued and increased; the mustard poultices should be often renewed, and the abdomen, thighs, and legs covered with them; frictions with hot cloths kept up with vigor and zeal, the patient kept on his back, and carefully covered. An eminent physician who has had large experience in the treatment of the disease in India, in Europe, and in this country, urges that in addition to these external means of endeavoring to restore vital action, the following treatment should be adopted: A large injection of from three to four pints of as hot

water as the hand can bear, with six ounces of brandy (whiskey would probably be equally effective), and two drachms (teaspoonful) of laudanum, should be thrown up the rectum, and at the expiration of an hour may be drawn off by a tube, when it will be found quite cold, and another enema of hot water without the laudanum and brandy immediately thrown up. At the same time administer by the mouth, every half hour, a teaspoonful of a mixture of equal parts of laudanum and spirits of camphor in a half ounce of brandy. At the expiration of an hour from the administration of the second injection throw up a third, adding this time again the brandy and laudanum. At intervals of half an hour, midway between the doses of laudanum and camphor, give five grains of *quinine*, either in the form of solution, or better, if attainable, in the sugar-coated pills. If this is rejected repeat it immediately, and if the laudanum and camphor are thrown up, give a grain and a half of dry opium every hour till the patient ceases to vomit. Apply, if possible, mustard poultices to the spine, and rub the limbs vigorously with dry warm flannel sprinkled with powdered mustard, and check the tendency to vomiting by linen cloths wrung out in hot water and laid on the pit of the stomach. Appease the thirst by giving the patient bits of ice of the size of a hickory-nut, to suck or swallow whole, and if the cramps are distressing control and relieve them by the firm application of roller bandages. This treatment may well be called heroic, but the eminent practitioner who commends it, asserts that it had very rarely failed, and that it is to be maintained till the withered, puckered, sodden fingers begin to become plump and warm with the heat of the returning circulation, and then when the signs of reaction are becoming marked, stop the injections, double the interval between the doses of quinine and between those of laudanum and camphor, and immediately give twenty grains of calomel. If at the expiration of two hours the evacuations have not become bilious and natural, repeat the dose. If they have, stop the quinine and the laudanum and camphor, and give ten grains of calomel, which should be followed up, at the expiration of two or three hours more, with a full dose of castor oil (two ounces or more). If by this time, as will probably be the case, the patient has passed urine and dropped into a restful slumber, he is saved, and requires henceforth only good nursing and simple farinaceous food, with mild tonics, to be restored to complete health.

There is, in some cases, apparently irrespective of the treatment, a tendency to a severe fever in the period of reaction. The fever is analogous to typhus, though with perhaps an unusual tendency to congestion of the brain. This tendency is to be corrected by leeches behind the ears or on the neck, blisters on the back of the neck, and ice to the head. In other respects the treatment does not differ materially from that of ordinary mild cases of typhus.

The missionaries at Constantinople resorted to a less heroic treatment when called to cases of collapse, yet were successful, losing but 17½ per cent. of patients of this class. They gave in frequent doses their compound of equal parts of laudanum, tincture of capsicum, tincture of ginger, and tincture of cardamom seeds, giving forty drops or more every half hour, or oftener if rejected by the stomach, and adding a table-spoonful of brandy at the same intervals. They maintained the same external measures of relief, hot bags of sand, bottles of hot water, mustard poultices, &c., already described. The thirst they relieved by gum arabic water or camomile tea, in small quantities, and Sydenham's white decoction. For a day or two after the attack was controlled the patient was kept on a diet of rice water, arrowroot, Sydenham's decoction, crust water, and camomile tea.

During the entire prevalence of the epidemic in Constantinople these heroic men went forth day after day among the caravansaries and the hovels of the poor, both often intensely filthy, equipped with a bottle each of these two mixtures above described, a few pounds of ground mustard, a bottle of brandy, a paper of camomile flowers, and a paper of gum arabic, and ministered healing to hundreds and thousands, who, but for them, would have perished.

There is, however, strong opposition among very eminent practitioners to the use of opium and permanent stimulants in cholera. We have already referred to the recommendation of the use of chloroform, both by inhalation and internal administration, in the early stages of the disease. Dr. Davies, who was appointed by the Royal College of Physicians to investigate and report upon the treatment of cholera, gave details of forty-seven cases of cholera, and thirteen of the worst forms of the preliminary diarrhœa, treated by chloroform internally in doses of from seven to ten minims every hour, half hour, or quarter of an hour, according to the severity of the symptoms. Of these ten, all cholera cases, died, and the remainder recovered. These were almost wholly from the better classes, and were therefore hardly a fair average. Dr. Davies was not disposed to confide in chloroform so fully as some of his colleagues. Dr. Braithwaite insists upon relying upon it to the exclusion of opium, camphor, calomel, or quinine, giving only, where absolutely necessary, compound spirits of ammonia, with chloric ether and champagne, or some other mild wine. So far is he from seeking to check the vomiting and purging that he would encourage it by administering large quantities of cold water, with a little mustard in it, if necessary, and by the use of castor oil. He would put the patient in a hot hip bath with his feet in a foot bath, the hot water to have a pound of flour of mustard in it, and the temperature to be maintained or increased by adding hot water, till reaction sets in, and the cramps and spasms relax.

Another mode of treatment which has made some stir in the medical world, is that intro-

duced by Dr. Chapman, of applying ice to the spine to control and subdue the spasm, availing himself otherwise of the usual external remedies.

The followers of Hahnemann have boasted of their wonderful success in the treatment of the disease in Berlin in former epidemics, but their statistics were based on too small a number of selected cases to be a fair criterion of the success of their peculiar mode of treatment; and during the prevalence of the epidemic at this time in Europe, their method has proved such a failure as to be strongly reprobated by many who were formerly favorably disposed toward it. In the French Academy of Sciences, at its session of October 30, 1865, M. Elie de Beaumont presented facts showing that the region of the copper mines of Rio Tinto in Andalusia, Spain, had never been visited by the cholera, although there was a large mining population there, and though the adjacent country had suffered severely from its ravages; and that this immunity was probably due to the fumes of sulphurous and arsenious acid disengaged in the roasting of the ores. It was stated that the inhabitants of a village two leagues distant, where cholera prevailed, had sent to the mine to obtain a quantity of the ore to roast in a public place to put an end to the disease. This suggested the use of arsenious acid as a remedy, which had been tried with success in some cases. The sulphate of copper, it was said, had also been found a valuable medicine in the treatment of cholera.

After all, the spread of cholera in any city or town will depend very greatly upon its sanitary condition. Once introduced from abroad it may, even in the most cleanly city and the best ventilated dwellings, find some victims among the feeble, the intemperate, and the licentious; it may indeed strike down now and then a subject among those whose habits are irreproachable, but whose health is not firm; but it will soon pass away if the filth, foul air, bad ventilation, and drunkenness, and lewdness, which furnish it with its most numerous victims, are not present to give it aliment. But when it visits a city reeking with animal and vegetable decay, and every foul odor, like Constantinople or Cairo (and we fear we might add, too truly, New York), it will riot in destruction, and though its most numerous victims will be the poor, the vicious, and depraved, it will not spare the dwellers in lofty dwellings, nor those of pure and peaceful life. Paris, by timely and careful sanitary precautions, escaped with a comparatively light visitation, and other cities may well follow her example.

CLEMENS, Hon. JEREMIAH, an American statesman, born in Huntsville, Alabama, December 28, 1814, died at his residence in that town, May 21, 1865. He was educated at La Grange College and the University of Alabama, studied law at the University of Transylvania, in Kentucky, and was admitted to the bar in 1834. In 1843 he was appointed United States

Attorney for the Northern District of Alabama, and in 1839, 1840, and 1841 he was elected to the State Legislature. In 1842 he went to Texas as lieutenant-colonel, having raised a company of volunteer troops. On his return he was again elected to the Legislature in 1843-'44—in the latter year he also served as Presidential Elector. In 1848 he was appointed Governor of the Civil and Military Department of the Gadsden Purchase in Mexico, which position he held until the close of the war. From 1849 to 1853 he represented Alabama in the United States Senate, and was again Presidential Elector in 1856.

Mr. Clemens was a member of the Convention in Alabama which voted the State out of the Union, but protested against its action. He subsequently gave way to the popular tide setting so strongly against him, and for a time accepted office under the Confederacy. In 1864, however, he had returned to his former allegiance, and in a letter addressed to his fellow-citizens, warmly advocated the reelection of Mr. Lincoln, and defended his policy.

Mr. Clemens was one of the ablest men of Alabama, having, perhaps, more genius than any other man the State has produced. He had attained eminence at the bar whilst still young, and in the Senate of the United States he took high rank as an able and eloquent debater, and was generally esteemed for his genial social habits. He was the author of several very successful novels, among which are "Barnard Lyle" (1853); "Mustang Gray" (1857); and "A Story of the Times of Aaron Burr and Alexander Hamilton." He was also engaged in the preparation of a history of the war, giving an insight into the character, causes, and conduct of the war in that portion of Northern Alabama where he lived, but which his death leaves unfinished.

COBDEN, RICHARD, an English Statesman and author, the champion of Free Trade and leader of the Liberal party in England, born at Dunford, near Midhurst, England, June 8, 1804, and died in London, April 2, 1865. His father was a freehold farmer, and held the small estate of Dunford in his own right. Young Cobden was educated at the grammar-school of Midhurst, which had then a high reputation, and on the death of his father, which occurred while he was yet a lad, he was taken under the guardianship of his uncle, who was a London warehouseman, and soon entered his relative's establishment as youngest clerk. After a time he removed to another establishment in the same department of trade, where, though diligent in business, he attracted the attention of his employer by his eagerness to acquire information, and the extent and variety of his reading. His employer, a merchant of the old school, remonstrated with him often for reading so much, assuring him that if he persisted in the habit, it would ruin him for life. Mr. Cobden took the warning in good part, but lived to see it falsified, for his em-

ployer failed in business, and Cobden, when a prosperous tradesman in Manchester, sustained him from his own abundant resources. At an unusually early age, Mr. Cobden left the indoor duties of the warehouse to enter upon the active, but somewhat perilous career of a commercial traveller, and in this capacity solicited orders for the house which employed him. In his new sphere he became exceedingly popular, and brought a large amount of orders to the house which he represented, while he carefully avoided the vices which were so prevalent in the class to which he belonged. His frankness, probity, and manliness of character, as well as his evident talent for business, made him friends among the customers of the house; and when, in his twenty-sixth year, his employers withdrew from business and he had found a business in which he felt that he could do well, one of these customers, Mr. John Lewis, loaned him five hundred pounds to aid in purchasing the stock and good will of the establishment he was desirous of buying. The young men with whom he had associated himself in his new enterprise established three houses: one at Sadden, near Clitheroe, for the printing of calicoes, under the firm name of Sheriff, Foster & Co., and two for their sale, one in London, under the title of Sheriff, Gillet & Co., and another in Manchester, under Mr. Cobden's personal supervision, under the firm name of Richard Cobden & Co. He speedily introduced a new system of business into the cotton print trade. Up to that time it had been the custom of the manufacturers to print a few pieces of their new designs, and watch cautiously and carefully to ascertain what patterns were most acceptable to the public, and then print large quantities of those which were preferred, and supply the retail dealers. Mr. Cobden possessing admirable taste, excellent business tact, and a remarkable knowledge of the trade in all its details, abandoned this slow and cautious policy, and fixing upon the best designs, printed off large quantities at once, and pushed their sale energetically throughout the country. Those pieces which remained unsold in the home market were promptly shipped to other countries, and as a consequence the house was soon in a highly prosperous condition. To further the interests of his firm, Mr. Cobden visited the Continent repeatedly, extending his tour with the best results to Greece, Egypt, and Turkey in 1834, and to the United States in 1835. By this time Cobden's prints had become fashionable, and such was the admirable taste of the designs, that even the families of the aristocracy and the Princess Victoria appeared in public clad in them. It was in 1835 that Mr. Cobden first manifested an interest in political affairs. The occasion was the struggle on the part of the inhabitants of Manchester to procure an act of incorporation for their town. Mr. Cobden contributed a number of able articles in support of this movement to the "Manchester Times," over the signature of "Libra,"

and the editors of the "Times" became interested to form the acquaintance of their unknown correspondent, and requested him to visit their office. He was solicited to address a meeting called to aid the movement, but declined, as he had never spoken in public. As his friends insisted, however, he made the attempt, but failed signally. Not deterred by this failure, he overcame his diffidence, and soon was in demand as a forcible and impressive speaker. On the incorporation of Manchester he was elected one of its first Aldermen, and soon began to be a recognized leader in the efforts to establish a system of National education. It was in connection with this enterprise that he first became personally acquainted with John Bright.

In 1835, in the very dawning of the Free Trade movement in Manchester, when as yet the people were in the midst of their plentiful harvests, indifferent to any change in the corn-laws, and Parliament, with its large majority of landholders, scouted and scorned the idea of any change which should render their profits less exorbitant, Mr. Cobden joined the little band of Free Traders. His first effort in behalf of the cause, was a stout pamphlet entitled "England, Ireland, and America," by a Manchester manufacturer. This pamphlet was from beginning to end a vigorous and powerful protest against the foreign policy of Lord Palmerston. Soon after he contributed to "Tait's Magazine" four articles, subsequently collected in a pamphlet having for their object to allay the fear of Russia which was then excited by the Government and others. Like his former pamphlet this was earnest, pertinent, and logical. In both there were passages which indicated how deeply the opposition to the corn-law monopoly had imbedded his whole being, and these, incidental as they were, served to exhibit the spirit and purpose of the man.

It was not, however, till the autumn of 1838, when two years of bad crops had raised the price of wheat to seventy-two shillings the quarter, just double what it had been in 1835, and the corn-laws still prevented importation, that the people were ready for any decisive movement to agitate for the abrogation of those laws. In September, 1837, Dr. Bowring, who had been travelling in Egypt, and on the Continent, on a mission for the promotion of free commercial intercourse, visited Manchester, and in a public meeting denounced the corn-laws in unmeasured terms. An anti-corn-law association was immediately formed, pledged to exert itself against any and every corn-law. Eleven thousand pounds sterling were raised at once, and a lecturer procured to deliver popular addresses on the subject throughout Lancashire. These proved successful in inciting the people to think on the subject, and soon the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, which though professing dissatisfaction with the corn-laws, had been strangely apathetic in regard to them, took strong and decided ground, and resolved

to petition Parliament for total repeal. Other anti-corn-law associations sprang up in the other manufacturing towns of England, and in February, 1839, delegates from all met at London, and had an interview with Lord Melbourne, then Premier, and, through Mr. Villiers, prayed to be heard at the bar of the House, in support of his motion for the repeal of the corn-laws. Parliament refused their request with scorn. The delegates returned to Manchester and there formed a permanent organization to be called "The Anti-corn-law League," which should embrace in its membership the entire country, and to agitate for repeal throughout Great Britain by means of tracts, lectures, periodicals, etc., etc. The struggle for the next five or six years between the landholders and privileged classes for the retention of their monopoly, and the anti-corn-law league for the repeal of all restrictions on the importation of bread-stuffs, was a desperate one.

In 1841 Mr. Cobden was elected a member of Parliament for Stockport, and almost immediately took rank with the ablest debaters and the most accomplished statesmen in that body. The efforts of the landholders, at first, to put him down by jeers and derision, were met with such dignity and self-possession that they were not repeated. The number of Free Traders increased with each Parliament, but Cobden was at all times their acknowledged leader. In this position he came often into collision with the premier, Sir Robert Peel, who inclined to half measures, but with each conflict the premier's respect for the great Free Trader rose, till finally the long battle was won, and one by one the hereditary enemies of Free Trade were compelled to abandon the doctrines they had cherished for a lifetime, and give in their adhesion to the propositions of a Manchester manufacturer. The premier, in the session of 1846, moved the repeal of the corn-laws in the House of Commons, and the Duke of Wellington performed the same duty in the House of Lords, greatly against his will, and only, it was said, on the assurance of Sir Robert Peel that if he did not, he should be compelled to resign and ask the Queen to send for Mr. Cobden to form a ministry. But the labor necessary for the accomplishment of this great change had not been all, or mainly, expended in the House of Commons. During all the vacations of Parliament, Mr. Cobden had been constantly engaged in appealing to the people in behalf of Free Trade. The manufacturing towns had given in their adhesion to the cause, but the agricultural districts were only to be converted by patient labor and clear demonstration. After a time, great numbers of the landed aristocracy who at first opposed Cobden with great bitterness came round to his views, and when at last victory crowned the efforts of the league, there was general rejoicing. But this constant and severe effort had materially impaired Mr. Cobden's naturally vigorous constitution, as it had seriously injured his fortune. His health was

somewhat improved by a year or more of travel, during which he visited France, Spain, Italy, Germany, and Russia. Before he set out upon this journey, Lord John Russell, then premier, offered him a place in the cabinet, which he declined. During his absence, the Anti-corn-law League, and the Free Traders generally, subscribed and presented to him on his return the munificent sum of £80,000 (\$400,000), a contribution made to testify their sense of gratitude to him for the benefits he had conferred upon the country, and which, while it should enable him to withdraw from his business, would leave him at liberty to devote his whole time to the service of the nation. A part of this sum was expended in the purchase of his paternal estate of Dunford and the lands adjacent, and the fitting it up as a desirable residence for a country gentleman, and the remainder was invested in the bonds and stock of the Illinois Central Railroad, an investment which was for a time unproductive, but which before his death had begun to yield a liberal return for the capital invested.

In 1848 Mr. Cobden returned to his legislative duties, having been elected both for the West Riding of Yorkshire and for Stockport, in his absence. He chose the larger constituency, and labored with great zeal for the repeal of the navigation laws, another of those ancient abuses which should have been done away long ago. There was at this time one of those absurd panics in relation to a French invasion, which have kept the British nation in a state of terror much of the time for the last fifteen or twenty years, and have cost them untold sums, but Mr. Cobden's effective ridicule did much toward quieting it. In the spring of 1848, on the 23d of May, on the occasion of Mr. Hume's motion, Mr. Cobden took bold and decisive ground in favor of Parliamentary reform. In this he included extension of the suffrage, the vote by secret ballot, and the shortening of the duration of Parliaments. While the question of Free Trade was undecided, he had appropriately refused to take an active part in any other measure of reform; but that once settled, he was free to advance to other measures of hardly less importance. He also sought earnestly the reduction of the national expenditure of a war-like character, and the introduction of a stipulation for arbitration into all international treaties; and for the latter purpose he encouraged and took part in the Peace Congresses which were held for several years in the different capitals of Europe.

Then came the Crimean war; and Richard Cobden and John Bright, who had been reproached with cowardice and pusillanimity for their advocacy of universal peace and good will among men, when the populace were madly bent on a war with France, were not the men to desert their principles when war came with a powerful foe, and was waged in reality for an abstraction. It was of course unpopular to breast the waves of clamor and obloquy which

beat against them: when a nation is drawn or driven into war, however unjust or unrighteous may be the contest, it is always difficult to stem the popular current which invariably sets in for war; but neither Cobden nor his friend Bright were wanting in moral courage, and they dared, in the face of the bitterest abuse, to maintain their views in Parliament throughout the struggle. At length peace was restored, and with the negotiations which resulted in the Treaty of Paris, in 1856, came a new triumph for Cobden. The arbitration clause, of which he had so warmly urged the incorporation into all future treaties of the great powers of Europe, was, in substance, incorporated into this treaty.

The Chinese war in 1857, in which, on pretexts which were utterly unjustifiable as a ground of war with a weak and almost helpless nation, the Government had sanctioned acts of most barbarous aggression and had carried their invasion to the Chinese capital itself, was even more abhorrent to Mr. Cobden's sense of right than the war with Russia. He denounced it with all his eloquence, and moved and carried through the House of Commons, by a majority of sixteen, a vote of censure on the Ministry, and of want of confidence in the Government. Palmerston, now premier, at once dissolved Parliament, and appealed to the country in a new election. The war-cry was raised, and in the insane fury of the moment, Cobden and Bright and a large number of the Free Trade and Peace men were defeated. The triumph of the Palmerston party was short, however; Milner Gibson, who, though defeated in his own borough, was returned from another, overthrew the Palmerston government in 1858, on a vote of confidence, and after a short trial of a Tory Cabinet, that was defeated; and the adroit and sagacious Palmerston discovered that he could only return to power by introducing a large liberal element into his new Cabinet. Mr. Cobden, meantime, soon after his defeat, went abroad and spent nearly two years on the Continent and in the United States. His extended tour in the latter country, and the familiarity he gained with our institutions, was of great service to him and to the interests of freedom in the years that followed. During his absence he had been returned to Parliament by the borough of Rochdale; and as he approached the Liverpool harbor, the steamer on which he was returning was boarded by a deputation of gentlemen, who informed him that Lord Palmerston had designated him as President of the Board of Trade in his new cabinet. Mr. Cobden promptly declined the offered post, in a personal interview with Lord Palmerston, alleging as a reason that his views had always differed so much from those of the premier, that he could not in justice to his own character for consistency, or his duty to his country, consent to serve as member of a cabinet with those from whom he conscientiously differed so greatly. Palmerston was disappointed and annoyed by his refusal, but

he could not avoid honoring him for his fidelity to his convictions. At the earnest solicitation of the premier, Mr. Cobden consented to negotiate the Treaty of Commerce with France, in doing which he was involved in no complicity with the other action of the ministers, while he conferred a great and lasting benefit on both countries, and greatly diminished the probabilities of war between them. This treaty of commerce, which reduced the prohibitory duties respectively on British and French goods to an *ad valorem* of twenty-five or thirty per cent., abolished all duties, with but the fewest possible exceptions, on British manufactured goods, and reduced materially the charges on English iron, coal, and coke, was, both in its inception and its completion, despite the numberless obstacles which prejudice, protectionist views, and personal hostility brought to bear against it, one of the greatest triumphs of diplomacy in our own or any other age. It was fitly regarded by Mr. Cobden's friends as the crowning achievement in his long career of advocacy of the doctrines of Free Trade. After its completion, Lord Palmerston, on the part of her Majesty, offered to Mr. Cobden a baronetcy and a place in the Privy Council, but he declined, modestly but firmly, both the hereditary rank and the personal honor.

In the five years which followed, the frail tenure of his health prevented him from accomplishing as much public labor as had been his wont, but his pen was active, and occasionally he made speeches in Parliament and to his constituents, in which the old fire and eloquence gleamed out, while the principles he advocated, though sometimes new in their application, were the same which had guided his whole public life. He urged the repeal of the paper duty, as a tax on knowledge; the reduction of the national expenditure, especially in the vast sums wasted on fortifications, armored ships, experimental cannon, and small-arms. He was ever the earnest and consistent friend of the United States and the decided opponent of the multifarious schemes for recognizing, aiding, or giving countenance to the so-called Southern Confederacy; and even in our darkest hours, when many of our friends in Great Britain regarded the cause of the Union as hopeless, his words ever came with a cheery tone to encourage us to hold on and hold out till the final victory was gained. To his vigorous remonstrances, too, was it mainly due, that on several critical occasions the English Government did not drift into war with the United States. He did not live to see the end, but he came so near it as to predict on the 5th of February, 1865, its coming within ninety days, a prediction which was fully verified. His death was the result of a visit to London in order to be present in Parliament at a very inclement season, which induced a severe paroxysm of asthma, proving fatal April 2, 1865.

CODIFICATION. It has been well remarked that the American Revolution of 1776 effected our independence of the Government

of England, and left our independence of her laws, her language, and her literature yet to be achieved. The latter was necessarily to be the work of time, and the ninety years which have elapsed have already done a great deal. We have an American literature; our language has adopted many "Americanisms," and in our laws there have been many departures from the ancient law of the mother country. It is now proposed, in the State of New York, to make a still greater departure, in the form of codifying the whole body of the law.

The *civil law*, which dates its origin back more than twenty centuries, and which obtains in all of Europe but a portion of Great Britain, and in all of America but the United States and the British Provinces, has several times been codified. The codes of Theodosius, of Justinian, and of Napoleon, and in this country, of Louisiana, are all codifications of the *civil law*. But the *common law*, whose origin is scarcely one thousand years distant, and which obtains in all the British dominions, and in all of the United States but Louisiana, has never yet been codified, though in different periods such minds as those of Bacon, Bentham, and Brongham have contemplated it.

Scattered as the rules of the common law are, through the whole body of the statute law, the customs of the people, and the decisions of the courts for several centuries, and subject to constant changes by adjudication, it would seem that codification had at length become a necessity; yet in the language of Chancellor Kent, "the great objection to all kinds of codification, when it runs into detail, is that the rules are not maleable, they cannot accommodate to circumstances, they are imperative." Those rules being reduced to the form of a statute, come within the maxim that "the statute is like a tyrant; where he comes he makes all void; but the common law is like a nursing father, and makes void that part only where the fault is, and preserves the rest."

Notwithstanding all this, the State of New York has long entertained the idea of codifying its law, and has made itself a pioneer in the task. The attempt was first made in the revised statutes of 1830. All prior revisions of the statutes had been mere compilations, but this was an essay at codification. Carried out as it was by three minds, well fitted for the task, though necessarily running very much into detail, it has received the sanction of thirty-five years of stability. In the previous thirty years there had been two revisions—in 1801 and 1818.

The favor with which this effort at codification had been received prompted the New York Constitutional Convention of 1846 to make a further attempt. There was, accordingly, inserted in the Constitution a clause, that the Legislature, at its first session after the adoption of the Constitution, should appoint three commissioners, whose duty it should be to reduce into a written and systematic code the whole

body of the law, or so much and such parts thereof as to the commissioners should seem practicable and expedient; and a further clause providing for three commissioners "to revise, reform, simplify, and abridge the rules of practice, pleadings, forms, and proceedings of the Courts of Record."

Accordingly, in 1847, the Legislature created two commissions—one, in reference to proceedings, consisted of Arphaxed Loomis, Nicholas Hill, Jr., and David Graham. Mr. Hill having resigned, David Dudley Field was appointed in his place. Their report was made in part in 1848, and their code adopted. With various amendments since made, that is now the code of practice in the State. The residue of their report was afterwards made, but was never adopted by the Legislature. The first part of their work bore the marks of haste; but rendered necessary as it was by the then recent amalgamation of the Courts of Law and Equity, it obtained a fast foothold, and now bids fair to achieve permanency. It has been adopted in some others of the States.

The other commission—to codify the whole body of the law—consisted of Reuben H. Walworth, who, as Chancellor of the State, had established an enviable monument of juridical ability, Alvah Worden, and John A. Collier. Chancellor Walworth declined the task, and Anthony L. Robertson, afterwards Chief Justice of the Superior Court, was appointed in his place. In 1849 a new commission was appointed, consisting of John C. Spencer (who had been one of the revisers of the statutes in 1830), Alvah Worden, and Seth C. Hawley. In 1850 that law was repealed. Here the provision of the Constitution slumbered until 1857, when David Dudley Field, William Curtis Noyes, and Alexander W. Bradford were appointed commissioners, with the proviso that they should receive no compensation. These gentlemen were all extensively engaged in the practice of the law in the city of New York, and, of course, devoted only their leisure moments to the task. They made reports of their work in its progress from time to time, and made their final report in the latter part of 1865. In the mean time Mr. Noyes had died.

The law appointing them required them to present to the next Legislature a general analysis projected by them. Such report was made in 1858, in which they proclaimed the ambitious purpose of presenting "in a condensed and convenient form the great body of the law, not the laws of England, nor the laws of France, nor yet the laws of Rome, but the laws of the foremost American Commonwealth, formed out of those which were brought in by our ancestors and those which have sprung from the genius and the wants of our own land."

Their occasional reports, as well as their final one, have been distributed very generally among the judges and the profession, but do not as yet seem to have attracted much attention, or

awakened much interest, and it remains to be seen whether their work will receive any more notice from the Legislature than did the second report of the Commissioners of Practice. It is, however, somewhat significant of the difficulty of the task and of the public feeling on the subject, that the injunction of the Constitution has produced so little fruit in twenty years.

The aim of the commissioners has been, in connection with the work of the Commissioners of Practice, to form five distinct codes of the law of the State:

1. Proceedings in civil cases.
2. Proceedings in criminal cases (including the law of evidence).
3. The political code, declaring the rights of citizens, defining the territory, and prescribing the general and local Government of the State.
4. The penal code, defining crimes and punishments.
5. The civil code, embracing the law of personal rights and relations, of property, and of obligations, and having four divisions. The *first*, relating to persons, defines their civil condition, enumerates their personal rights, and declares their personal relations such as husband and wife, parent and child, guardian and ward, and master and servant. The *second*, relating to property, embraces real and personal property, the interests and estates therein, and the modes of acquisition, uses, powers and wills, corporations, shipping, and navigation. The *third*, relating to obligations, embraces the whole subject of contracts, express or by implication of law, and the law of sale, exchange, bailment, service carriage, trusts, agency, partnership, insurance, indemnity, suretyship, pledge, mortgage, lien, and commercial paper. The *fourth* relates to relief and the mode of securing rights by specific performance or by damages, and the relation of debtor and creditor, and includes and explains some few of the many maxims of jurisprudence.

The commissioners properly speak of this as an "immense range of subjects," and of the work as a "vast undertaking." This is no place to discuss the manner in which the work has been accomplished. That task will be performed in other forums. It is enough now to speak of it as the beginning of a work which the enterprising and energetic spirit of our people will yet accomplish, for our people will not long submit to be tied down by rules having their origin and their interpretation in an age of feudalism, utterly antagonistic to the enlarged freedom which is the very soul of our institutions.

How far the proposed code departs from those ancient laws, it is not proposed now to consider. The commissioners say that all they profess is "that they have endeavored to collect those general rules known to our law which are applicable to our present circumstances and ought to be continued." This may or may not embrace all the reforms which our

"present circumstances" demand. One thing is certain, that there is great perspicacity in their comprehension of the topics of which they treat. Whether they are as felicitous in the language in which they clothe their proposed enactments is another thing, and that is of no small moment, for *verba ligant homines* is very often true in the law.

There are several considerations which affect the question whether it is probable that the code as proposed will be adopted?

One is, the small amount of time and attention that the commissioners have been able to devote to the task. Aiming to codify the whole body of the law, it required an intimate knowledge of the whole law, an examination of all the adjudications upon it for several centuries, and a deep and careful consideration of all the changes which the change of circumstances in those centuries had made or rendered necessary. Less than that might render the proposed plan valuable as a suggestion of improvements, but hardly sufficient as a complete system of itself.

The code Napoleon, with all its aids from pre-existing codes, was ten years under the consideration of the courts of France, and the ablest men in the kingdom. The penal code alone of Prussia was twenty-five years in preparation. The code Justinian, with like aid from previous codifications, was confided to seventeen persons, who completed their work in three years.

Another question is, whether it has not been too minute in its details, and not confined itself to what is deemed the proper office of a code, namely, the annunciation of general principles. If it has this fault, it is a serious one, for one of the great merits of the common law, and which has ever been one of the greatest objections to its codification, has been its elasticity, whereby its general principles could be and have been adapted to any change of circumstances which time wrought out; such as the discovery of the mariner's compass, the art of printing, the use of steam as a motive power, the magnetic telegraph, the advancing freedom of the masses, etc., etc. All experience has shown that any modification of the law which deprives its administrators of the power of adapting it to the ever-varying changes of human affairs and compels a resort to the Legislature is injurious precisely as it is dilatory, expensive, and uncertain.

While certainty in the law is the mother of repose, so human laws must ever keep pace with human progress. To achieve both these objects at the same time—to frame a code of laws that shall unite stability with elasticity—that shall insure the certainty which gives repose, and the expansiveness that shall embrace the ever-varying demands of human progress, is a task which has never yet been achieved, and to which perhaps no human genius is equal. Though that end may not be fully attainable, it may yet be approached, and that work will come the nearest to that end which deals

most in general principles, and the most successfully avoids details; that which draws the most largely upon the wisdom of the past for its rules of conduct, of duty, and of right, and which leaves the most to the future in the application of them to the affairs of life. It is evident that the commissioners have realized these ideas, and the great question yet to be solved is, how well they have performed the mighty work of carrying them out. *Hic labor, hoc opus est.*

Another question of interest is, How much of the law does this work profess to codify? All of it or only a part, and if so what part? "No body of law depends," or it would seem can depend, "merely upon the enactments of the legislative power. A great number of its maxims and principles originate and are formed, in all nations and at all times, by the opinions and manners of the people, by the decisions of the judges, and by scientific exertions for the elaboration and development of the law which already exists as well as that which lives in the minds of the people." "A legal maxim of this kind introduced and established by public opinion, habit and custom, by the practice of the courts or by the jurists, has equal force with an explicit law" (*Kaufman's Makelday*). The reports of the commissioners would seem to imply that this branch of the law is embraced within the scope of their work. It is not easy to perceive how this part of the task can be performed at all, and still more how it could be performed with the limited means within their command. Very much of the value of the work, if this topic is included, must depend on the manner in which it is accomplished. The work certainly shows great labor by the commissioners; but still the question is, how far any labor within the time employed could possibly accomplish this whole task?

Another question is, how far the proposed code has a tendency to produce uncertainty by changing words or phraseology. It sometimes takes many years and many adjudications to settle the meaning of a word or phrase in the law. A change from the well-settled phraseology often leads to serious difficulties. Any indulgence of the code in this practice will create a formidable obstacle in its way. Take, for instance, a specimen of its attempt to enact a legal maxim; "where one of two innocent persons must suffer by the act of a third, he by whose negligence it happened must be the sufferer." The word "negligence" has obtained a definite meaning in the law. The true rule is, that in the assumed case the loss must fall on him who by his act has enabled the offending party to perpetrate the wrong, and it is not at all necessary that the act shall be one of "negligence," for the act, to have the effect, may either be by design or after all reasonable precautions. Does the proposed enactment mean to alter the law, by limiting it to negligence, or does it mean to require a new definition of that word?

And yet another important question is, whether this proposed code is intended to be confined to the common law strictly so called, or will embrace also the Law Merchant and the Civil Law, or such parts of them only as are now received as a part of the law of the State.

It is only now about one hundred years since, under the lead of Lord Mansfield, the Law Merchant, as it had obtained for centuries in the commercial States of Europe, was introduced into and engrafted upon the prevailing law in England. The law as thus improved was at our Revolution made the law of our land. But Lord Mansfield did not bring in the whole of the Law Merchant, and since his day, both in England and in this country, more and more of it has been adopted as parts of the prevailing system. So it has been in England and in this country, that within the same period other portions of the Civil Law have been introduced into our existing law. Now the questions are, Does the proposed code embrace the whole of the Law Merchant and the Civil Law, or only such parts of them as have been already adopted by us? And if only the latter, does the code mean to arrest this prevailing practice of drawing upon the wisdom of the Civil Law for our rules of action? If such is the purpose or such will be its effect, then it would seem to be of questionable propriety to shut our vast and growing interests off, from the advantage of seeking for aid in the knowledge and experience of many ages. If such is not the purpose, then the code will necessarily be shorn of much of its intended permanency and certainty, by the continuance of the practice of incorporating into our system other rules of the civil law. It is not easy to say how this is: for the code includes the Law of Insurance, the whole of which is taken from the Civil Law. Yet in the Law of Sales of Chattels, the common law rule of *Caveat Emptor* is preserved. The Civil Law says that a sound price means a sound article. The Common Laws says No, let the purchaser look out for himself. And he has no remedy for latent defects, however much they may impair the value of the thing bought, unless he has taken a warranty or has been actually defrauded. This code not only adopts this very unjust rule of the common law, but actually makes it worse by means of its proposed enactment that no warranty shall be implied, thus stopping the progress of our courts toward the adoption of the honest rule of the two. These instances are illustrations only of the difficulty of the task undertaken, and of the importance of the question asked in this regard.

These objections may seem trivial, but they are not, because they show a tendency to unsettle the law where it has been the work of centuries to render it certain.

But be this as it may, this effort will be memorable as the first attempt to codify the whole body of the common law, and subject it to a

process to which the civil law has been once and again subjected, with undoubted profit and advantage to the peoples among whom it has been attempted. Whether this effort also will be beneficial, must depend on how far there will be preserved that elasticity which has hitherto enabled the common law to keep pace with advancing freedom and civilization among men.

Following in the track of New York, the British Province of Canada has aimed at codification of its law. The codification of the body of the law has been completed by the commissioners appointed for that purpose, and their report will soon be presented to the Colonial Legislature for its consideration. The code of civil procedure has not yet been completed, and though in an advanced state, is not yet ready for legislative action.

COGSWELL, MASON FITCH, M. D., an eminent physician and medical writer, born at Hartford, Conn., November 10, 1809, died in Albany, January 21, 1865. He was the son of Dr. M. F. Cogswell, formerly a prominent physician and surgeon in Hartford; graduated at Yale College, and subsequently entered the office of Dr. Alexander Stevens, of New York, with whom he remained as a private student until the year 1832, when he received his degree from the College of Physicians and Surgeons of New York. In 1833 he commenced practice in Albany, and gradually, with the increase of years and the growth of experience, rose to the first rank of his profession. He was for a long time one of the physicians of the City Hospital. On the breaking out of the war he was appointed examining surgeon at this post, many thousand volunteers passing under his supervision. He was subsequently surgeon of the Post Hospital, assistant surgeon of the United States Hospital, and, at the time of his decease, had been nominated surgeon.

In 1862, during the Peninsular campaign, he was active in organizing a field hospital at the White House in Virginia, and the exposure and arduous labors incident to that work led to serious inroads upon his health. In February, 1863, with Dr. Thomas Hun, he was appointed, under the direction of the Sanitary Commission, to inspect the Western hospitals, and the duty was performed with efficiency and thoroughness.

Dr. Cogswell's public and professional career was eminently characterized by a strong sense of duty, strict integrity, and untiring self-devotion. He was animated, always, by the purest and noblest impulses, guided by reason and principle. He carried his heart with him to the bedside, and, whilst alleviating suffering by his skill, solaced the patient with his gentle kindness and sympathy. His loyalty to his country seemed to be infused into his care for the sick and wounded soldiers, and imparted warmth and earnestness to his hospital labors.

COLLAMER, Hon. JACOB, LL.D., U. S. Senator from Vermont, born in Troy, N. Y., in

1792, died at Woodstock, Vt., Nov. 9, 1865. In childhood he removed to Burlington, and was graduated at the University of Vermont in 1810. He studied law at St. Albans, and was admitted to practice at that place in 1812, after which he made the frontier campaign as a lieutenant of artillery in the detached militia in the United States service. He accomplished his course of preparatory collegiate and professional studies without any other pecuniary means than such as his own industry supplied. Until 1833 he practised law in Washington, Orange, and Windsor Counties, commencing at Barre. In 1821, 1822, 1827, 1828, he represented the town of Royalton in the General Assembly. In 1833 he was elected an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of Vermont, and was continued on the bench until 1842, when he declined a reelection. In 1843 he was chosen to represent the Second District in Congress, was reelected in 1844 and 1846, but in 1849 declined to be again a candidate. In March, 1849, he was appointed Postmaster-General by President Taylor, but on the death of the President, he, with the entire cabinet, resigned. He was soon afterwards made Supreme Judge of his own State, holding that office until 1854, when he was chosen United States Senator, which office he filled up to the time of his death.

He served as Chairman of the Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads, and also of that on the Library, and as a member of other important committees. Judge Collamer was a man of clear and acute intellect, and of great integrity of character. His principles of political action were well defined, and were held with great tenacity; they were the result of his own independent reflection, rather than of party relations, and though not pressed with any thing like undue obstinacy, were never yielded to considerations of mere expediency. He was a sturdy advocate of freedom and human rights, and a devoted lover of the Federal Constitution. He received the degree of LL.D. from the University of Vermont, and from Dartmouth College, New Hampshire.

COLOMBIA, UNITED STATES OF, a republic in South America, President (April 1, 1864, to April 1, 1866), Dr. Manuel Murillo. Ministry: Valenzuela (Interior); Ouenca (Finances); Santiago Perez (Exterior); War and Navy, Gen. Valerio Barriga. The President is elected by an absolute majority of the States; a direct vote of the people is given at the election. The Senate consists of 27 members, 3 for each of the States. The number of the Chamber of Representatives is at the rate of one representative for every 50,000 inhabitants, and every fraction not less than 20,000. Minister of the United States near the Government of Colombia, Allan A. Burton (appointed May 21, 1861); Colombian Minister at Washington, Gen. Eustagio Salgar (reappointed in 1865). The area amounts to 480,800 square miles. The population of the nine States composing the republic is about as follows:

Antioquia.....	597,323	Magdalena.....	100,284
Bolívar.....	173,006	Panama.....	173,732
Boyaca.....	442,996	Santander.....	494,000
Cauca.....	437,103	Tollima.....	250,968
Cundinamarca.....	391,006	Total.....	3,794,478

The capital of the republic is Bogota, in the State of Cundinamarca. According to the message presented by President Murillo to the Federal Congress in February, 1865, the expenditures were estimated in the budget of the next financial year at 2,715,128 piastres; the receipts at 2,020,000 piastres; deficit at 695,128.

The public debt amounted in 1861 to 44,000,000 piastres, of which 84,690,000 were due to Englishmen. The Federal army numbers 2,000 men on the peace footing. In time of war, every State is required to furnish a contingent of one per cent. of its population. The imports of the year 1863 amount to 14,500,000 piastres, and the exports to 12,500,000 piastres. The value of the merchandise over the Panama Railroad was valued, in 1863, at 82,500,000 piastres, and, in 1864, to 100,000,000 piastres. The number of passengers in 1864, was 41,185.

Several of the States were, during the year 1865, agitated by internal troubles, but the Federal Government was not involved in them, and at the close of the year universal quiet was restored.

At the election held for President, General Tomas C. de Mosquera was chosen, receiving the votes of seven States. In the State of Panama, nearly all the votes were cast for General José H. Lopez, and the State of Antioquia voted for Señor Pedro José Berrio.

Both the Government and the people of the United States of Colombia continue to express in the strongest terms their sympathy with the republicans of Mexico and the governments of Chili and Peru in their struggle against European aggression. The Legislature of the State of Boyaca adopted the following resolution unanimously:

The Legislative Assembly of the Sovereign State of Boyaca, has heard with grief and indignation the news of more insidious and tyrannical measures on the part of Spain, the old enemy of America, who is now threatening Chili; this Assembly prays Providence so to guide the policy of the National Government of Colombia, that in the event of another conflict impending over the Continent of Columbus, her conduct may be essentially dignified, energetic, and American.

Similar resolutions passed the Legislatures of other States.

A law passed by the Colombian Congress on April 19, 1865, concerning the civil rights of foreign residents, called forth an immediate protest from the English and French Ministers as conflicting with the rights of foreigners residing or passing through the country. The Minister of the United States referred the matter to the Home Government, which, in consideration of the great American interests at stake, and especially on the Isthmus, protested also against the law, as shown by the following

extract from his communication, dated Bogota, November 22, 1865 :

The undersigned has received orders from his Government to represent to that of Colombia that the United States of America cannot consider this new law as having any force or obligation which affects their citizens, in any case when said law may contravene the existing treaties or international law.

The undersigned, obeying the imperious demand of that frank straightforwardness which always ought to characterize the intercourse between friendly nations, holds it to be his duty to represent to the Colombian Government, besides : that the Government of the United States of America finds itself obliged to retain the hope that the citizens of either of the two republics, within the territories that are subject to the jurisdiction of the other, be they passing through or residing in it, are respectively entitled to a real, effective, and prompt reparation for all injuries done there to their rights in contravention of the stipulations of the existing treaties between the two countries, or of modern international usages ; and as the Government of the United States acknowledges its just obligation to make such reparation to Colombian citizens, whenever such injuries should unexpectedly be done to them, in the same manner it hopes, and will insist upon, that equal justice be done to its own citizens, when their rights have been or may be so violated.

As the correspondence which formerly had taken place about this matter between the Department of your Excellency and this Legation, has been made public, it behooves the Government of your Excellency to decide if the interests of their respective countries will be served by giving publicity also to the present note.

The undersigned avails himself of this occasion to renew to your Excellency the assurances of his distinguished consideration. ALLAN A. BURTON.
To His Excellency Sr. Santiago Perez, Secretary of Home and Foreign Relations, &c., &c.

The one hundred and fifty miles of telegraph constructed by the American firm of Davidson, Stiles & Woolsey, having been completed to the satisfaction of the Government, the latter party have contracted for four hundred additional miles, which are to be constructed immediately.

COLORADO. A territory of the United States, lying between the thirty-seventh and forty-first parallels of north latitude, and the hundred and second and hundred and ninth degrees of longitude, west from Greenwich, and embracing an area of one hundred and five thousand eight hundred and eighteen square miles. It is at present divided into seventeen counties, viz. : Arrapahoe, Boulder, Clear Creek, Conejos, Costilla, Douglas, El Paso, Fremont, Gilpin, Huerfano, Jefferson, Lake, Laramie, Park, Pueblo, Summit, and Weld. The capital and the chief town of the territory is Denver, in Arrapahoe County. It was organized as a territory by act of Congress of March 2, 1861, which vested the legislative power in a Governor and Legislative Assembly, to consist of a Council and House of Representatives. The legislature, treasurer, auditor, and superintendent of schools were authorized to be elected by the people ; all other officers, including the judiciary, were to be appointed by the President of the United States.

In consequence of the great influx of population into Colorado subsequent to the discov-

eries of gold in the Rocky Mountain ranges, measures were taken in 1864 to form a State Government, and an enabling act was passed for that purpose at the first session of the thirty-eighth Congress. A convention was called in the territory in the same year, by which a constitution was adopted. The project for obtaining admission into the Union failed, however, by a considerable vote, mainly in consequence of the unpopularity of prominent men connected with it, and no further action was taken in the matter until the succeeding year, when a convention assembled in Denver, August 8, to consider the propriety of forming a State Government and of framing a constitution, to be subsequently submitted to the people for ratification. On August 12, the convention adopted a constitution, which was voted upon on September 5, with the following result :

For the Constitution.....	3,025
Against the Constitution.....	2,570
Majority in favor.....	155

This instrument gives the right of suffrage to "every white male citizen of the age of twenty-one years and upward, who is by birth, or has become by naturalization or by treaty, or shall have declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, according to the laws thereof, and who shall have resided in the State of Colorado for six months next preceding the election, and shall have been a resident ten days of the precinct or election district in which he offers to vote, shall be deemed a qualified elector, and entitled to a vote at the same." Exceptions are made in the case of insane persons, felons, soldiers or sailors in the United States service, and persons refusing to take the oath of allegiance to the United States. Among the miscellaneous provisions of the Constitution was one, submitting to popular vote the question whether the word "white" in the above clause should be stricken out, which was decided in the negative by a majority of three thousand seven hundred and sixteen in a total vote of four thousand six hundred and sixty-eight.

The Constitution further provides that the legislative power of the State shall be vested in a Senate and House of Representatives, to be called the Legislative Assembly ; the former to consist of thirteen members, to be elected for two years, and the latter of twenty-six, to be elected annually. The Senate may, ultimately, be increased to thirty-nine, and the house to seventy-eight members. The sessions are to be annual. Members of the Legislative Assembly must be above the age of twenty-one, citizens of the United States, and residents and qualified voters of the districts they are elected to represent. Bills may originate in either House, but may be rejected or amended by the other. The Legislature is required at its first session to provide for a census, to be taken between January and July, 1866, and every six years thereafter, and which shall form the basis of a new apportionment of senators and repre-

representatives. The executive and administrative department is to consist of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, who must be each thirty years of age or upwards, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Attorney-General, and superintendent of Public Instruction, who are to be elected every second year, and are to hold office for two years. The Lieutenant-Governor is made the presiding officer of the Senate. The judicial office is made elective, and its duration is limited, in the higher courts, to three years, and, in the lower courts, to two years. The compensation provided for different public officers is as follows:

Governor, \$2,000 per annum.
Lieutenant-Governor, \$8 per diem, during the session of the Legislature, and mileage.
Secretary of State, \$1,500 per annum.
Treasurer, \$1,000 per annum.
Superintendent of Public Instruction, \$1,000.
Attorney-General, \$1,000.
Members of Legislature, \$5 per diem, during the session of the Legislature, and mileage.

The judges of the Supreme Court are authorized to receive a salary to be fixed by the Legislature, and which shall not exceed \$6,000, nor be less than \$4,000. By a special provision, the pay of members of the Legislature ceases if the session exceeds forty days in duration. Other clauses prohibit the establishment of banks of issue, or the circulation of any species of bank bills except those authorized by act of Congress; vest the title of property owned by religious, educational, or charitable corporations in trustees; and provide for a State University. Amendments to the Constitution are to be adopted by a two-thirds vote in each branch of the Legislature, and subsequently ratified by popular vote. The following was also passed by the Convention:

Is Irrevocable Ordinance, adopting the Constitution of the United States, and for other purposes.

Whereas, The People of Colorado, by their delegates duly elected, in convention assembled, have deemed it expedient to make application to Congress for the admission of Colorado into the Union as a State, on an equal footing with other States, and have framed a constitution for said State; and whereas it is deemed right and proper for this convention to declare on the behalf of the people of said Territory, that they adopt the Constitution of the United States. * * * * *

Now, therefore, this convention, duly elected by the people of Colorado, pursuant to a call of the same, being duly organized, do hereby, on behalf of, and by the authority of the people of said Territory of Colorado, adopt the Constitution of the United States, and accept all of the following propositions, to wit:

We do declare by authority of, and in behalf of the people of the Territory of Colorado, and ordain by this ordinance irrevocable, except upon the above conditions, that there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the State of Colorado, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted; that perfect toleration of religious sentiment shall be secured, and no inhabitant of said State shall ever be molested in person or property on account of his or her mode of religious worship; and that the people inhabiting said Territory of Colorado, do agree and declare that they forever disclaim all right and title to the unappropriated lands lying within said Territory, and

that the same shall be and remain at the sole and entire disposal of the United States; and that lands belonging to citizens of the United States residing without the State, shall never be taxed higher than the lands belonging to residents thereof; and that no taxes shall be imposed by said State on lands or property therein belonging to, or which may hereafter be purchased by the United States.

It is further ordained, That all treaties of whatever name or nature made between the Government of the United States and any foreign power, are hereby fully ratified and confirmed by this Constitution.

The Constitution having been adopted, an election for State officers took place in the succeeding November, which resulted in the return, with one exception, of the Republican candidates by large majorities. For Governor, William Gilpin, the regular Republican candidate, received three thousand one hundred and twenty-three votes, to one thousand eight hundred and thirty-five for Scudder, independent Republican, and two thousand five hundred and ninety-nine for Craig, the democratic candidate. The Republican candidate for Secretary of State was elected by four thousand five hundred and twenty-two votes against two thousand six hundred and forty-four, given to his democratic competitor. The Legislature elected was largely Republican in both branches. At the same time George M. Chilcott, Republican, was elected representative in Congress by three thousand one hundred and four votes against one thousand six hundred and ninety-six for Belden, independent Republican, and two thousand one hundred and nineteen for Cavanaugh, Democrat. The following represents the present State Government of Colorado:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT.

Governor—William Gilpin, Republican.
Lieutenant-Governor—George A. Hinsdale, Democrat.
Secretary of State—Josiah H. Gest, Republican.
Treasurer—Alexander W. Atkins, Republican.
Superintendent Public Instruction—Rufus K. Frisbee, Republican.
Attorney-General—U. B. Holloway, Republican.
[All elected for two years from the first Monday in January, 1866.]

SUPREME COURT.

William H. Goraline, Republican, on all tickets.
Allen A. Bradford, Republican, also on democratic ticket.
J. Bright Smith, Republican, on straight ticket.
[To draw for terms of one, two, and three years; successors to be elected for three years.]

In compliance with an ordinance adopted by the Constitutional Convention, the Legislature, elected in November, 1865, convened at Golden City, fifteen miles west of Denver, on the second Tuesday of the succeeding December, and was organized by the choice of the Republican candidates for presiding officers in both branches. John Evans, the former territorial governor, and Jerome B. Chaffee, recently speaker of the House in the territorial legislature, both Republicans, were elected United States Senators, and early in January, 1866, in compliance with a joint resolution of the legislative assembly, presented the papers relating to the State or-

ganization to the President of the United States, asking his influence in favor of the early admission of the State into the Union. This the President declined to do, but submitted the whole matter to Congress, as will appear by the following communication :

I transmit herewith a communication addressed to me by Messrs. John Evans and J. B. Chaffee as United States Senators elect from the State of Colorado, together with the accompanying documents. Under the authority of the act of Congress, approved the 21st day of March, 1864, the people of Colorado through a convention formed a constitution making provision for a State Government, which, when submitted to the qualified voters of the Territory, was rejected. In the Summer of 1865, a second convention was called by the Executive Committees of the several political parties in the Territory, which assembled at Denver on the 8th day of August. On the 13th of that month, this convention adopted a State Constitution, which was submitted to the people on the 5th of September, 1865, and ratified by a majority of 155 of the qualified voters. The proceedings in the second instance having differed in time and mode from those specified in the Act of March, 1864, I have declined to issue the proclamation for which provision is made in the fifth section of the law, and therefore submit the question for the consultation and further action of Congress.

(Signed) ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, D. C., Jan. 12, 1866.

This document was referred to the Senate Committee on Territories, which, on January 18th, reported a bill for the admission of Colorado into the Union, under the Constitution adopted by her people.

The population of Colorado, according to the census of 1860, was thirty-four thousand two hundred and seventy-seven, besides from six to eight thousand tribal Indians, principally Arapahoes and Utes. During 1860 and 1861 the influx of emigrants, led thither by reports of the abundance and richness of the gold and silver mines among the mountains, was such as to increase the population to upward of sixty thousand. The operations of this class of miners being for the most part individual and confined to surface working, the superficial deposits of the precious metals were soon exhausted, or at least did not prove sufficiently remunerative to the restless adventurers who worked them. At the same time came reports of discoveries of rich deposits of gold in the new Territories of Montana and Idaho, under the influence of which nearly the whole of the floating population, which had built up Colorado so rapidly, moved northward to the new diggings. The result has been that the population in 1865 was estimated at several thousand less than in 1860. Other causes have, however, contributed to this result, among which may be mentioned the obstacles to emigration, created by the recent hostilities and depredations of the neighboring Indian tribes, and the high prices of labor and the necessities of life, and also the necessity of a large capital for the profitable working of the mines.

The mineral wealth of the country is nevertheless almost incalculable; and, even under favorable circumstances, it is probable that

many years will elapse before the veins of gold, silver, copper, iron, and coal, with which the mountain regions abound, can be properly worked. The surface working, or "gulch mining," as it is called, has for some time ceased to be profitable, and the chief attention is now given to solid mining, which, for the reasons above enumerated, and also on account of the expensive machinery required, and the difficulty of separating a fair percentage of the precious metals from the ore, has for the last two years been prosecuted with comparatively little activity. Probably not more than twenty-five of the hundred stamp mills in the Territory were in operation during 1865. When expenses return to the currency standard, and travel to Colorado becomes safe, and when the experiments now making to give increased productiveness to smelting the ores are completed, the business will undoubtedly become profitable and be actively resumed. Meanwhile the population now resident in the territory is a permanent and industrious one, and forms a nucleus well adapted for building up a prosperous commonwealth. The principal centre of the mining business at present is situated a little to the north and west of Denver, along and up Clear Creek, and around the towns of Blackhawk, Central City, and Nevada. The second centre, which, however, is now very imperfectly developed, is near what is called the South Park, a beautiful table land of prairie and wood, about fifty miles south of Denver. For actual production of the precious metals, Colorado ranks second only to California. No accurate statistics exist as to the value of the amount produced by her mines, but the most trustworthy data show that it is not far from twenty-five millions.

The year 1865 was a disastrous one to the agricultural interests of Colorado. In consequence of the difficulty of obtaining food, and particularly grain and vegetables from the East, a larger breadth of land was planted than during any preceding year. The uplands were found to be even more fertile than the bottom lands, and for the purpose of obviating the ill-effects of the long dry seasons to which the region is liable, preparations were made at great expense to irrigate thousands of acres. The rains proved unusually abundant, and every thing indicated a season of plenty, when the country was visited by immense swarms of grasshoppers, which devoured almost every growing thing. Only a few fields of grain and potatoes escaped their ravages, but not enough of any species of crops was raised to affect the price of imported grain or vegetables. This visitation is, however, regarded as only an exceptional occurrence, and with proper irrigation, which is about to be widely introduced, it is anticipated that the profits of farming will hereafter be large. As a sheep-raising country, the mountain region is known to offer great advantages.

Two important undertakings were commenced

in 1865, the successful completion of which will considerably lessen the distance between Colorado and the East and the West. The one is a new road from Denver to Leavenworth, known as the Smoky Hill route, one hundred miles shorter than that previously used, and much better; and the other, a short and expeditious route from Denver to Salt Lake City, over Boulder Pass and the Middle and North Parks, on which, in August, large forces of laborers were employed, commencing at each terminus.

COMMERCE. The restoration of peace, after four years of domestic war, gave a fresh impulse to the movements of commerce, and to her sisters, manufactures and agriculture. The official returns of the general commerce of the country include the movements to the 30th June only, the termination of the fiscal year of the United States; hence but little of the increase experienced during the calendar year of 1865 is indicated by the official tables of the Treasury Department at Washington, thus ending in June, 1865. The following are the general results for the last official year (July, 1864, to June, 1865, both inclusive) compared with the three previous years:

Statement of the value of domestic and foreign produce and manufactures exported from the United States during the fiscal years ending June 30, 1862, 1863, 1864, and 1865, respectively, reduced to gold value; including specie, amount of reduction, and value of exports in gold for each year.

YEARS.	Currency value, including Specie.	Reduction.	Gold Value.
1862....	\$229,983,955	\$2,611,429	\$227,197,556
1863....	322,359,254	69,940,051	252,419,308
1864....	301,984,561	83,495,809	218,489,352
1865....	386,697,123	142,521,741	194,175,393
Total.	\$1,190,979,923	\$298,768,590	\$892,211,398

ENCAPITULATION.

Domestic exports, exclusive of specie	\$308,698,856	\$1,107,180,646
Domestic specie exported.....	208,447,290	
Total domestic.....	517,146,146	
Foreign exports, exclusive of specie	63,178,222	83,949,277
Foreign specie exported.....	20,671,065	
Total foreign.....	83,849,287	
Total exports.....	601,035,433	1,190,979,928
Reduction on domestic exports.....	276,623,677	298,768,590
Reduction on foreign exports.....	22,142,862	
Total reduction.....	298,766,539	
Total gold value, 4 years.....		\$892,211,398

Comparative statement of Imports and Exports (reduced to gold value) during the fiscal years ending June 30th, 1862, 1863, 1864, and 1865, and exhibiting the excess of importations over exportations each year.

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports, gold value.	Excess of Imports.
1862....	\$273,257,051	\$227,127,556	\$46,229,495
1863....	252,919,930	252,419,208	500,717
1864....	329,562,895	218,489,252	111,073,643
1865....	224,839,310	194,175,393	30,663,917
Total	\$1,092,179,676	\$892,211,398	\$199,968,298

The effects of civil war upon commerce cannot be more clearly demonstrated than in the

reduction of the tonnage owned throughout the country between the years 1861 and 1865, from an aggregate of 5,539,818 tons to 4,986,401 tons, including steam vessels, while the tonnage employed in foreign trade was reduced from 2,642,000 tons in 1860, to 1,092,000 tons in 1865, a falling off equivalent to about sixty per cent. The following are the official returns for the past six years:

YEAR.	Registered sail tonnage.	Registered steam tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed sail tonnage.	Enrolled & licensed steam tonnage.	Total tonnage.
1860.....	2,448,941	97,296	2,086,990	770,641	5,358,868
1861.....	2,540,090	103,608	1,192,589	774,296	5,509,518
1862.....	2,177,256	118,998	2,924,449	596,465	5,112,165
1863.....	1,892,399	138,215	2,660,313	489,755	5,196,081
1864.....	1,473,876	106,519	2,550,690	833,816	4,964,801
1865*-Old	1,022,465	69,589	1,866,594	553,189	3,511,787
" *New	482,109	23,469	724,901	844,515	1,579,694

In order to illustrate the commercial movements of the country since the discovery of gold in California, and the effects of such discovery, the following comparative table is useful:

YEAR.	EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.			Total Imports.
	Domestic Produce.	Foreign Merchandise.	Total.	
1849....	\$192,666,955	\$13,088,865	\$145,735,830	\$147,357,439
1850....	196,946,912	14,951,809	151,898,720	173,188,313
1851....	196,689,718	21,695,293	218,385,011	216,224,932
1852....	192,368,984	17,239,882	209,608,866	212,945,443
1853....	213,417,697	17,558,460	230,976,157	267,973,647
1854....	253,399,879	24,858,194	278,258,074	304,562,351
1855....	246,708,538	28,448,598	275,156,546	261,468,520
1856....	310,586,290	16,375,575	326,961,909	314,689,942
1857....	338,985,065	23,976,617	362,961,682	360,899,141
1858....	293,758,379	20,388,142	314,146,521	292,613,150
1859....	335,594,385	20,595,077	356,189,462	338,765,189
1860....	378,189,274	26,968,922	405,158,196	362,166,254
1861....	228,609,486	15,271,791	243,911,277	296,598,135
1862....	213,069,519	16,869,466	229,938,985	273,357,051
1863....	305,884,998	16,474,256	322,359,254	329,919,920
1864....	281,899,371	20,116,190	301,984,561	329,562,895
1865....	306,306,768	30,399,365	336,697,123	284,839,310

It should be stated that the years 1862-'63-'64-'65 were those in which specie payments were suspended. The imports above are given in the gold valuation, while the exports of 1862 and 1865 are estimated upon a depreciated paper valuation.

Tonnage of the several districts of the State of New York on the 30th June, 1865, and the total of the United States under the old admeasurement.

NEW YORK.	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed.	Tonnage of U. S.
Champlain		40,510	40,510
Oswego.....		58,008	58,008
Niagara.....		816	816
Genesee.....			
Oswegatchie.....		56,618	56,618
Buffalo Creek.....		528	2,704
Bag Harbor.....		4,161	4,161
Greenport.....		5,519	5,519
Dunkirk.....			
New York.....	471,478	751,791	1,223,269
	478,655	917,442	1,391,096
Other States and Districts.	618,849	1,507,841	2,126,691
Total U. S., June, 1865.	1,092,004	2,424,788	3,516,787

* Admeasurement.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE EXPORTS OF STAPLE PRODUCTIONS, BREADSTUFFS, PROVISIONS, OILS, &c., FROM THE UNITED STATES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1864, COMPARED WITH THE YEARS 1861, 1862, 1863, AND 1864.						
ARTICLES.	1859-'60.	1860-'61.	1861-'62.	1862-'63.	1863-'64.	1864-'65.
Wheat, bushels.....	\$4,155,183	\$1,290,138	\$93,865,060	\$7,299,573	\$42,573,395	\$19,387,197
Wheat Flour, bbls.....	3,611,596	4,327,881	24,683,355	4,892,088	27,134,677	27,295,081
Indian Corn, bushels.....	3,314,155	10,604,089	6,984,308	10,867,888	10,072,704	3,671,183
Corn Meal, bbls.....	288,709	912,075	604,306	773,844	257,949	1,439,896
Rye and other Grains.....	1,068,304	2,864,625	1,898,757	593,986
Eye and other Meats, bbls.....	11,482	48,173	55,761	14,468	54,458	82,468
Bread or Biscuit.....	473,740	490,949	582,268	771,952
Eggs.....	2,567,399	156,890	88,244	68,490
Beef.....	2,674,364	2,017,077	3,804,771
Butter, lbs.....	7,640,914	1,144,891	2,835,985	24,691,947	4,164,644	31,388,375
Cheese, lbs.....	15,515,799	1,960,680	32,870,812	84,082,678	4,216,804	88,069,468
Pork.....	3,182,818	3,980,158	4,384,775	6,948,185
Hams and Bacon, lbs.....	225,844,610	2,273,708	50,296,882	4,631,627	141,273,766	12,268,729
Lard, lbs.....	40,399,519	4,545,831	47,908,911	4,729,297	118,573,307	10,591,712
Lard Oil, gals.....	60,200	55,768	85,676	299,608	145,068	9,107,435
Tallow, lbs.....	15,269,585	1,598,176	29,718,664	2,942,400	68,792,754	153,454
Candles, lbs.....	6,088,885	5,025,067	820,935	6,100,099	991,890	30,692,965
Soap, lbs.....	6,852,465	494,405	7,207,240	455,996	9,956,954	5,018,313
Fish, pickled.....	191,684	686,040	736,524	1,226,168
Fish, dry, cwt.....	219,628	690,088	219,515	890,885	429,316	938,477
Oils, whale and sperm, gals.....	2,375,008	2,542,855	2,709,929	2,248,982	921,181	692,966
Oils, coal and petroleum, gals.....	192,387	1,107,707
Spirits, distilled, gals.....	4,068,780	6,548,777	7,221,874	2,692,487	1,785,575	3,387,517
Tobacco, in leaf, bbls.....	173,844	15,906,547	183,480	116,728	1,545,087	1,844,788
Tobacco, manufactured, lbs.....	17,797,293	3,368,487	15,188,590	2,842,037	118,750	2,987,858
Cotton, lbs.....	1,767,666,893	191,804,535	307,523,489	84,038,455	7,070,172	41,399,138
Coal, tons.....	187,069	740,788	160,047	613,028	3,698,966	7,294,318
Clover Seed, bushels.....	116,574	504,919	200,417	218,046	9,044,840	6,730,549
Hops, lbs.....	278,267	33,566	8,837,173	66,064	1,207,802	1,242,371
Hides.....	1,084,300	998,309	173,021	86,157
Ice, tons.....	49,158	188,134	2,185,708	501,175	446,545
Animals, living.....	82,968	1,788,265	8,692,794	1,845,268
Wool, lbs.....	1,055,928	1,835,001	640,828	8,864,061	1,316,946	1,029,566
.....	899,512	192,667	277,431	59,957
.....	846,875	100,767	392,584	435,394
.....	240,481	176,434	460,192	204,731

Annexed is a comparative summary of the clearances from the port of New York during the calendar year of 1865. As many vessels arriving from foreign ports clear thence for a coastwise port, the clearances for foreign ports are generally much fewer than the direct arrivals:

	No. Vessels.	Tonnage.	Seamen.
American vessels...	990	664,006	20,453
Foreign vessels...	8,202	1,495,226	54,264
Total cleared in 1865	4,192	2,159,822	74,717
" 1864	4,460	2,259,448½	74,894
" 1863	4,666	2,891,605	76,689
" 1862	5,016	2,457,522½	77,086
" 1861	4,603	2,398,766½	74,925
" 1860	8,312	1,970,997½	68,750
" 1859	8,253	1,584,188½	56,537
" 1858	2,851	1,830,295½	48,728
" 1857	2,947	1,622,707½	58,097
" 1856	8,864	1,709,788½	67,391
" 1855	8,025	1,426,201½	47,570
" 1854	8,278	1,528,104½	58,250
" 1853	8,469	1,521,286½	54,839
" 1852	8,085	1,855,514	50,459

The American shipping engaged in the foreign trade of the port of New York has declined from 3,034 tons in 1861 to 1,430 tons in 1865, while the foreign tonnage has increased from 943 tons in 1858 to over 3,200 tons in 1863 to 1865. The general results are as follows for the year 1865, compared with previous years:

	AMERICAN.		FOREIGN.	
	No. Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. Vessels.	Tonnage.
1865...	1,892	807,580½	1,451	446,756½
1864...	2,959	1,144,485	1,490	470,566½
1863...	2,407	1,231,951	1,440	478,087
1862...	3,071	1,321,674½	1,508	491,580½
1861...	2,686	1,442,282½	1,411	477,631½
1860...	2,457	1,340,257½	904	220,000
1859...	2,768	1,684,596½	1,098	386,262½
1858...	2,790	1,478,579½	1,061	492,425
1857...	2,473	1,260,043	943	433,823½
1856...	2,956	1,302,024½	1,319	597,826
1855...	2,872	1,487,589½	1,474	677,062
1854...	3,094	1,618,258	1,948	865,446½
1853...	2,003	1,472,989½	2,718	1,079,492
1852...	1,722	986,718	8,261	1,395,684½
1851...	1,568	845,172½	8,207	1,416,784½
1850...	1,430	774,459	3,210	1,473,815

The following is a statement of the treasure movement at New York for the last seven years, showing the amounts received from California, foreign ports, and the interior, and the amounts shipped to foreign ports and the interior, yearly, for the seven years ending December 31, 1865; also the amount in banks and the Sub-Treasury at the commencement and close of each year:

	Treasure in Banks and Sub-Treasury.	ACCESSIONS OF TREASURE.				Total supply of treasure.	TREASURE WITHDRAWN.			Treasure in Banks and Sub-Treasury.
		Received from California.	Imported from foreign ports.	From inland sources and hoards.	Aggregate accessions.		Exported to foreign ports.	Returned to land and to hoards.	Aggregate withdrawn.	
1865...	\$80,054,450	\$21,581,756	\$2,187,011	\$37,532,311	\$61,301,108	\$91,235,558	\$80,008,688	\$7,620,901	\$87,624,594	\$58,630,974
1864...	87,992,584	12,907,808	2,265,522	30,291,221	45,464,546	88,457,090	50,308,122	2,599,503	58,402,630	80,054,450
1863...	40,971,000	12,207,320	1,525,279	38,040,001	46,775,600	87,746,590	49,754,056		49,754,056	87,992,584
1862...	29,080,000	25,079,787	1,890,377	43,907,957	71,873,021	100,408,021	59,487,021		59,487,021	40,971,000
1861...	30,100,000	34,435,949	87,093,413		71,674,362	101,674,362	4,236,250	68,403,112	72,644,362	29,080,000
1860...	24,590,000	34,530,271	8,552,390	18,162,538	56,595,459	88,185,457	42,191,171	10,894,256	58,085,459	30,100,000
1859...	32,238,000	30,592,720	2,516,421	24,881,275	67,240,416	99,478,416	69,715,866	8,167,550	72,883,416	32,238,000
6 years, 1860-65	\$2,238,000	190,835,636	56,073,258	182,765,628	419,229,512	452,462,502	306,141,169	92,690,257	392,331,526	\$2,238,000

In the table below are given the number of vessels, and the amount of American tonnage, also the amount belonging to foreign countries, and the total amount of both American and foreign entered at the port of New York from foreign ports since the year 1821. This includes only the craft engaged in the foreign trade, and is exclusive of the arrivals and departures from and to other domestic ports:

YEAR.	No. Arrivals.	Tons—American.	Tons—Foreign.	Total tons.
1821..	912	155,723	16,240	171,963
1822..	1,172	208,082½	23,707½	231,790½
1823..	1,217	208,308	22,481	230,789
1824..	1,364	236,080½	16,689	252,769½
1825..	1,436	255,524½	20,654½	276,179½
1826..	1,389	246,174½	28,522½	274,697
1827..	1,414	255,276	37,896½	293,172½
1828..	1,277	236,308½	39,368½	275,677
1829..	1,310	255,691½	25,820½	281,512
1830..	1,489	280,918	38,797½	319,715½
1831..	1,604	274,237½	62,772	337,009
1832..	1,503	295,293½	106,425	401,718½
1833..	1,926	302,083½	110,835	412,918½
1834..	1,992	352,225½	96,679½	448,904½
1835..	2,044	373,465	99,999	473,464
1836..	2,985	407,095½	149,684½	556,780
1837..	2,071	368,011½	171,800½	539,812½
1838..	1,790	377,568½	94,326½	471,895
1839..	2,159	422,340½	142,985½	565,325½
1840..	1,953	409,458	118,126	527,584
1841..	2,115	420,052½	125,073½	545,126
1842..	1,962	406,623½	145,615½	552,239
1843..	1,832	385,124½	106,870½	492,000
1844..	2,208	428,074½	155,298½	583,373½
1845..	2,144	472,491½	140,858½	613,350
1846..	2,292	496,761	185,404	682,165
1847..	3,147	603,482½	333,537	937,019½
1848..	3,060	657,794½	367,322½	1,025,116½
1849..	3,227	734,008½	414,096	1,148,104½
1850..	3,343	807,580½	441,756½	1,249,337
1851..	3,840	1,144,485	479,556½	1,624,041½
1852..	3,847	1,231,951	478,087	1,709,958½
1853..	4,079	1,321,674½	491,580½	1,813,255
1854..	4,047	1,422,282½	477,034½	1,919,317½
1855..	3,891	1,349,257½	220,000	1,569,257½
1856..	3,861	1,684,596½	386,262½	2,070,859½
1857..	3,851	1,478,579½	492,425	1,971,004½
1858..	3,421	1,260,043	498,828½	1,698,871½
1859..	3,905	1,302,024½	597,826½	1,899,851½
1860..	4,346	1,487,589½	677,062	2,164,651½
1861..	4,077	1,618,258	865,446½	2,483,704½
1862..	5,406	1,472,989½	1,079,492	2,552,481½
1863..	4,983	986,718	1,393,634½	2,380,352½
1864..	4,775	845,172½	1,416,784½	2,261,957½
1865..	4,640	774,459	1,473,815	2,248,273

It will be seen by this table that during the war the influence of Southern privateers was very considerable. This is apparent from the steady decrease of American tonnage, and an equally steady increase of the foreign. The decline of the aggregate tonnage has also been steady since the year 1862, but it has arisen from causes affecting the general commerce of the country.

COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE. The regulations adopted by the Federal Government relative to intercourse between the citizens of the Northern States and those in insurrection, have been stated in previous volumes. The Act of Congress passed July 13, 1861, authorizing the President to declare by proclamation the people of certain States to be in a state of insurrection, and that all commercial intercourse with them should cease, produced a clear and distinct condition of war. Under the operation of the law, a question arose as to the course to be pursued with those cities and towns of the Southern States which might be subdued and occupied. If commercial intercourse continued to be broken off with those people, it was asked how they were to be fed and subsisted. By the modern laws of war, it has been held that the Power which declared war might modify that declaration in relation to intercourse with particular places for particular purposes. On this ground, the above-mentioned act contained a provision authorizing the President, in his discretion, and under regulation from the Treasury Department, to permit intercourse in such articles, and with such places and persons as the public service might require. This provision was inserted in the law because the President, having no power to declare war, of course had no authority to modify that war, except only as it should be given to him by Congress, which had the power to declare war. The object of the provision was, not to get supplies from the enemy, nor to buy their produce and pay them money to relieve them, but merely to sustain the people of that part of the country which was held by military possession. In the execution of the law a different construction was given to it. Regulations were made by the Treasury Department, and approved by the President, under which licenses were granted from time to time to individuals to trade upon the Mississippi for the purpose of getting cotton. The effect of this system was very serious upon the characters of the officers of the army there in command. At the session of Congress in the summer of 1864 an act was passed to put a stop to that kind of trade by revoking the authority to grant licenses except for supplying the necessities of the loyal inhabitants within the lines of actual occupation. This resulted in generally stopping the previous trade. But the same act, passed through Congress with much haste, contained a section authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to appoint agents to purchase for the United States any products of States declared to be in insurrection, at such places as the Secretary should designate, etc. In the month of December, 1864, the President issued his order directing, under the regulations of the Secretary, the agents appointed to go down and execute the law and make the purchases. By the regulations and the executive order, the whole of the people of the country who had control of any productions for sale were authorized to come into the places designated

and offer them for sale. A vigorous traffic thus sprung up, and was in active progress when Gen. Grant issued the following order:

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE U. S.,
CITY POINT, March 10, 1865.

Special Orders No. 48.—The operations on all Treasury trade permits and all other trade permits and licenses to trade, by whomsoever granted, within the State of Virginia, except that portion known as the Eastern Shore, and within the States of North Carolina and South Carolina, and that portion of the State of Georgia immediately bordering on the Atlantic, including the city of Savannah, are hereby suspended until further orders.

All contracts and agreements made under or by virtue of any trade permit or license, within any of said States, or parts of States, during the existence of this order, will be deemed void, and the subject of such contracts or agreements will be seized by the military authorities for the benefit of the Government, whether the same is at the time of such contracts or agreements within their reach, or at any time thereafter comes within their reach, either by the operations of war or by the act of the contracting parties or their agents.

The delivery of all goods contracted for and not delivered before the publication of this order is prohibited. Supplies of all kinds are prohibited from passing into any of said States or parts of such States, except such as are absolutely necessary for the wants of those living within the lines of actual military occupation, and under no circumstances will military commanders allow them to pass beyond the lines they actually hold.

By command of Lieut.-Gen. GRANT.

T. S. BOWERS, Asst Adj't-Gen.

It was regarded at the time and under the existing state of military affairs as the most important order Gen. Grant had ever issued. It appeared by official records to affect contracts covering 500,000 bales of cotton, 16,000 barrels of turpentine, 5,000 barrels of tar, 2,000 barrels of rosin, and 100,000 boxes of tobacco. This order was revoked by Gen. Grant on April 11th.

On April 11th President Lincoln issued his proclamation declaring closed to foreign and domestic commerce the ports of Richmond, Tappahannock, Cherry Stone, Yorktown, and Petersburg, in Virginia; of Camden, Elizabeth City, Edenton, Plymouth, Washington, Newbern, Ocracoke, and Wilmington, in North Carolina; of Charleston, Georgetown, and Beaufort, in South Carolina; of Savannah, St. Mary's, Brunswick, and Darien, in Georgia; of Mobile, in Alabama; of Pearl River, Shieldsboro, Natchez, and Vicksburg, in Mississippi; of St. Augustine, St. Marks, Port Leon, St. Johns, Jacksonville, and Apalachicola, in Florida; of Teche and Franklin, in Louisiana; of Galveston, La Salle, Brazos de Santiago, Point Isabel, and Brownsville, in Texas.

On April 29th, President Johnson having succeeded President Lincoln, and "being desirous to relieve all loyal citizens and well-disposed persons residing in insurrectionary States from unnecessary commercial restrictions, to encourage them to return to peaceful pursuits," issued his proclamation ordering that all restrictions upon internal, domestic, and coast-wise commercial intercourse be discontinued

with such parts of the insurrectionary States as were east of the Mississippi River. There were excepted, however, the restrictions prescribed in compliance with any act of Congress, and the following articles contraband of war, to wit: "Arms, ammunition, and all articles from which ammunition is manufactured, gray uniforms and cloth, locomotives, cars, railroad iron and machinery for operating railroads, telegraph wires, insulators, and instruments for operating telegraph lines."

All existing military and naval orders of restriction were revoked. This was the first step toward removing all unnecessary restrictions upon trade in all parts of the Southern States embraced in the lines of military occupation.

On May 9th the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. McCulloch, issued a series of rules and regulations based upon this order of the President, for the purpose of putting it in immediate operation. These rules and regulations opened the door to trade by declaring, in the first place, that clearances for shipments of goods should be granted upon application of any "loyal person or parties," to such places as under the revenue and collection laws of the United States have been created and declared ports of entry and delivery in the coastwise trade. Under this provision goods of all kinds not declared contraband of war for the time being, could be sent southward, and the pressing needs of the people supplied. The facilities thus offered to the enterprise and capital of the North led to large shipments. Among the articles first sent were such as would enable the agricultural interest to commence work without delay, with a view to an early crop of Southern staples. After articles of merchandise reached one of the locations named by the President, the only restriction upon their sale was the obtaining of a license, which could be had by applying to the nearest officer of the Treasury Department, with the declaration by the person or persons so applying, that he or they are "loyal to the Government," and the payment of the fee prescribed by the internal revenue law. Articles of local production and consumption were totally exempt from the operation of these regulations, and could without fee or restriction be freely transported and sold at such points in the States as the owner or owners might desire. Cotton not produced by persons with their own labor, or the labor of others in their employ, was to be sold to and resold by an agent of the Government appointed for that special duty. Upon this class of cotton twenty-five per cent. of the value thereof was to be paid to the Government. On cotton, the product of the holder's own labor or of others in his employ, three cents per pound as a shipping fee was required.

On May 16th the President issued a proclamation to enjoin upon all naval, military, and civil officers, diligently to endeavor by all lawful means to arrest the Confederate cruisers on the high seas; and he added as follows:

And I further proclaim and declare that if, after a reasonable time shall have elapsed for this proclamation to become known in the ports of nations claiming to have been neutrals, the said insurgent cruisers and the persons on board of them shall continue to receive hospitality in the said ports, this Government will deem itself justified in refusing hospitality to the public vessels of such nations in ports of the United States, and in adopting such other measures as may be deemed advisable toward vindicating the national sovereignty.

On May 16th the Secretary of the Treasury issued a circular of instructions, respecting his regulations issued on the 9th. As the district west of the Mississippi had not been included nor the trade affected by the President's proclamation, the regulations of the previous year continued in full force. The usual clearance and entry of goods at the custom-houses was required for shipments east of the Mississippi, and when products other than cotton were offered for shipment from Southern ports, a certificate of a collector of International Revenue that the tax had been paid, was required.

On May 22d the President issued another proclamation, raising the blockade of the Atlantic Coast, and of the Gulf Coast, except a few ports in Texas, and relaxing the restrictions to all ports east of the Mississippi. The proclamation was as follows:

Whereas, By the proclamation of the President of the 11th day of April last, certain ports of the United States therein specified which had previously been subject to blockade were, for objects of public safety, declared, in conformity with previous special legislation of Congress, to be closed against foreign commerce during the national will to be thereafter expressed and made known by the President;

And whereas, Events and circumstances have since occurred which in my judgment render it expedient to remove that restriction, except as to the ports of Galveston, Lasalle, Brazos de Santiago, Point Isabel, and Brownsville, in the State of Texas;

Now, therefore, be it known that I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, do hereby declare that the ports aforesaid, not excepted as above, shall be open to foreign commerce from and after the first day of July; that commercial intercourse with the said ports may from that time be carried on, subject to the laws of the United States, and in pursuance of such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury. If, however, any vessel from a foreign port shall enter any of the before named excepted ports in the State of Texas, she will continue to be held liable to the penalties prescribed by the act of Congress, approved on the 18th day of July, 1861, and the persons on board of her to such penalties as may be incurred, pursuant to the laws of war for trading or attempting to trade with the enemy.

And I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, do hereby declare and make known that the United States of America do henceforth disallow all persons trading, or attempting to trade, in any ports of the United States, in violation of the laws thereof, all pretence of belligerent rights and privileges, and give notice that from the date of this proclamation all such offenders will be held and dealt with as pirates.

It is also ordered that all restrictions upon trade heretofore imposed in the territory of the United States east of the Mississippi River, save those relating to contraband of war, to the reservation of the rights of the United States, to property purchased in

the territory of an enemy, and to twenty-five per cent. upon the purchases of cotton, are removed.

All provisions of the internal revenue law will be carried into effect under the proper officers.

[L. s.] In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed. Done at the city of Washington, this, the 22d day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five, and of the independence of the United States of America the eighty-ninth.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

By order of the President:

W. HUNTER, Assistant Secretary of State.

Again, on June 13th, the President issued another proclamation declaring that all restrictions upon internal, domestic, and coastwise intercourse and trade, and upon removal of products of States declared in insurrection, reserving and excepting only those contraband of war, and those relating to the restoration of right of the United States to property purchased in the territory of an enemy and imported, were removed, and that on July 1st all restrictions on foreign commerce with the Southern ports, with the exceptions aforesaid, would be removed.

The proclamation also contained the following respecting the State of Tennessee:

I hereby also proclaim and declare that the insurrection, as far as it relates to and within the State of Tennessee, and the inhabitants of the said State of Tennessee as reorganized and constituted under their recently adopted constitution and reorganization and accepted by them, is suppressed, and therefore also that all disabilities and disqualifications attaching to said State and the inhabitants thereof consequent upon any proclamations issued by virtue of the fifth section of the act entitled "An act further to provide for collection of duties on imports and for other purposes," approved the 13th day of July, 1861, are removed; but nothing herein contained shall be considered or construed as in anywise changing or impairing any of the penalties and forfeitures for treason heretofore incurred under the laws of the United States, or any of the provisions, restrictions, or disabilities set forth in my proclamation, bearing date the 29th day of May, 1865, or as impairing existing regulations for the suspension of habeas corpus and the exercise of military law in cases where it shall be necessary for the general public safety and welfare during the existing insurrection. Nor shall this proclamation affect, or in any way impair, any laws heretofore passed by Congress and duly approved by the President, or any proclamation or orders issued by him during the aforesaid insurrection abolishing slavery, whether of persons or property, but on the contrary all such laws and proclamations heretofore made or issued are expressly saved and declared to be in full force and virtue.

Again, on June 24th, the President issued another proclamation removing all restrictions from the trade of States or parts of States west of the Mississippi, excepting so far as they were retained in Southern States east of the Mississippi, and officers of customs alone were required to exercise supervision.

These repeated proclamations having rendered nugatory in whole or in part the previous regulations issued by the Secretary of the Treasury, a new series was prepared. These declared all restrictions, except as aforesaid, to be removed, and gave to the officers of the cus-

toms all supervision to prevent the shipment of the prohibited articles. The other subordinate officers acting under the previous regulations were discharged. Agents to purchase products on Government account were required to close their business and send forward their resignations. Instructions of similar effect were given to all persons acting under previous regulations except the usual officers of the customs.

On August 29th the President issued his final proclamation, removing all restrictions, as follows:

Whereas, By my proclamation of the 13th and 24th of June, 1865, removing restrictions in part upon internal domestic and coastwise intercourse and trade with those States recently declared in insurrection, certain articles were excepted from the effect of said proclamation as contraband of war; and

Whereas, The necessity for restricting trade in said articles has now in a great measure ceased, it is hereby ordered that on and after the first day of September, 1865, all restrictions aforesaid be removed, so that the articles declared by the said proclamations to be contraband of war may be imported into and sold in said States, subject only to such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the City of Washington, this 29th day of August, in the year of our Lord 1865, and of the Independence of the United States the 90th.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President,

WM. H. SEWARD, Secretary of State.

This proclamation restored the commercial intercourse between the several States to the freedom which existed before the war.

In July an International Trade Convention assembled at Detroit. It consisted of four hundred members, and its deliberations were confined principally to subjects relating to the commerce of the States lying directly upon the great lakes, reciprocity, and the Niagara ship-canal. A Committee on Agriculture and Manufactures presented a series of resolutions, which were adopted, declaring that for the purpose of securing a permanent recompense to American labor and its products, as well as from financial necessity, "a discrimination in favor of these productions upon which American labor depends for its present prosperity, should be exercised by the Government when imposing duties upon foreign imports, because when human industry and labor languish, its ability to respond to the excise demands must be correspondingly impaired."

The Convention also recommended that the State of New York should at once proceed to enlarge her canals to such capacity as to allow the passage of ships, and adjust the tolls in favor of Western products. The Transit Committee declared in their report that the annual increase of the productions of the States bordering upon and tributary to the northern lakes had exceeded the capacity of transportation of all avenues to the Atlantic, and that the canals and various lines of railroads to and from those lakes "are wholly inadequate to the demand of the increased and rapidly growing commerce." Hence

they hailed with satisfaction the proposed enlargement of the Welland and St. Lawrence Canals; and demanded, that in the event of the negotiation of any treaty of reciprocity between the United States and British Provinces, the Federal Government should be careful to secure a guaranty of a sufficient depth of water to enable ocean steamers of not less than one thousand tons, cargo-carrying capacity, to pass from Port Colborne, C. W., to tide water.

CONANT, HANNAH O'BRIEN CHAPLIN, an American author, editor, and translator, born in 1812, at Danvers, Mass., died in Brooklyn, N. Y., February 18, 1865. She was the daughter of Rev. Jeremiah Chaplin, D.D., a Baptist clergyman distinguished for his learning, who, for many years, received students in theology into his family for instruction, and who was subsequently the first president of Waterville College. Possessing a remarkable aptitude for acquiring knowledge, and especially for linguistic attainments, and her family associations being almost entirely with eminent scholars, she was, at twenty years of age, far beyond most of her sex in scholarship. At that time she married Rev. Thomas J. Conant, D.D., an eminent Hebraist and Biblical scholar, and for many years a professor in Hamilton Theological Seminary. Though thoroughly domestic in her habits, and having the training of a large and interesting family on her hands, Mrs. Conant found time for literary pursuits, and kept up with the scholarship of the age in those departments which accorded alike with her husband's tastes and her own, the oriental languages and literature, in their bearings upon the Scriptures. At the same time she maintained a very thorough acquaintance with the current literature of the time. In 1838 she entered upon the editorship of the "Mother's Monthly Journal," then published at Utica, N. Y., and the brilliancy and ability of her editorial articles and essays soon won for the periodical a large circulation. In 1844 she translated a religious tale by Strauss, the evangelical court preacher at Berlin, entitled, "Lea; or, the Baptism in Jordan." In 1850-'52 she published translations of Neander's Commentaries on Philipians, John, and James." In 1855 appeared her first original publication (with the exception, we believe, of some Sabbath-school books), "The Earnest Man," a biography in one volume of the missionary Judson. In 1856 she published a "Popular History of English Bible Translation." In 1857, "The New England Theocracy," a translation of an outline of the early ecclesiastical history of New England, by Uden, a pupil of Neander; and in 1859, "The History of the English Bible," a work of great research and of rare ability, and which has become the standard authority on the subject. For more than ten years previous to her death she had resided in Brooklyn, and had been engaged in assisting her husband, who was the principal translator employed by the American Bible Union, in the preparation

of their new version of the Scriptures. For this service, Mrs. Conant's profound acquaintance with the oriental tongues, her complete command of language, and her exquisite literary tastes, admirably fitted her, and her assistance was of great value to the learned professor. But her intellectual activity was not satisfied with these labors. Aside from her home duties, which were never neglected, she found leisure to contribute constantly to the periodical press. Her leading articles and literary and art papers in the New York "Examiner," the "Independent," and other journals, attracted attention by the elegance and purity of their style, and the justice and taste of their criticisms. She had been confined to her house by illness for several months, but a fatal termination of her disease was not apprehended till about a week before her death.

CONFEDERATE STATES. At the beginning of 1865 the Government and people of the Confederate States were apparently as resolute in their policy of resistance and separation as at any previous period, but serious and alarming apprehensions existed lest that policy should ultimately be a failure. Four months previous the Confederacy presented the appearance of territorial compactness with its Northern frontier from the Atlantic to the border of Missouri, protected from invasion by a formidable military defence. The lapse of this short period had served to widen the separation of the Western portion by a more complete Federal occupation of the Mississippi River. Another division had been made between the Mississippi and the Savannah Rivers, and the third extended northward to the Richmond Peninsula and westward to Knoxville in Tennessee. In the Western division the war languished in consequence of the disorganization produced in Gen. Price's forces by the disasters and desertions in Missouri. East of the Mississippi were the remains of Gen. Hood's army, just driven, with severe loss, from before Nashville. It offered protection to the large district embracing a portion of the States of Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, and Florida, which was confronted by the well-organized and victorious army of Gen. Thomas, whose base was the Tennessee River. The railways in the rear of Gen. Hood on his line of retreat had been injured, and in places torn up. His force was liable to be much reduced by lack of supplies. On the south Mobile was threatened by the Federal fleet and the forces at New Orleans. The Eastern division presented an aspect no more encouraging. Gen. Sherman was preparing to move from Savannah through the Carolinas to cooperate with Grant against Richmond. His successful march through Georgia was an indication that while Thomas held Hood and Grant held Lee, he could, at his pleasure, move anywhere within the interior of the enemy's country. This was certain to take place unless an army could be suddenly created under Beauregard sufficiently strong to stay the progress of

his overwhelming forces. Before he had advanced ten days from Savannah, it was evident the enemy could not resist him, and he would be left free to destroy the communications by which supplies were brought to the armies defending Richmond, and, what was worst of all, to demoralize the labor system and the discipline of the slaves at the most populous points on his route. Thus the Confederacy was broken into fragments, and the annihilation of the military strength of the most important one of these was fearfully threatened.

At the same time the forces actually held in the field were so reduced as to be unable to attempt any serious offensive operation. Mr. Davis, a few months previous, declared in Georgia, that one-third of the army was absent without leave; and probably the number absent was in truth nearer one-half. It was stated in Richmond that from October 1, 1864, to February 4, 1865, nearly 72,000 men had deserted from the Confederate armies east of the Mississippi. The men were at home. In many instances they took no trouble to conceal themselves. Yet there were laws with penalties to be enforced, under which all deserters might be brought back to their posts. Not only was more than half the original territory of the Confederacy now lost, but Savannah and Wilmington had just been taken, and the last of its remaining seaports, Mobile and Charleston, were about to be more seriously threatened than ever before.

At the same time the finances of the Confederacy had reached an exhausted condition. The Treasury was empty, and the Government unable to turn to an available account the large resources of cotton in its possession. The money of the people, which now consisted of Government notes, had declined to such a point as to indicate that the credit of the Government was nearly gone. During the early part of the summer of 1861 gold and silver remained in circulation, although the State banks had suspended specie payments immediately after the secession of each State, but was so rapidly hoarded or bought up for speculation, that it soon disappeared, and gave place to every denomination of "fractional currency" known as "shinplasters." These soon became scattered over the States, and very few were ever redeemed. The Legislatures of the States during the winter gradually caused many of these notes to disappear, leaving the field clear for county and corporation fractional issues. These in turn, during the ensuing year, were made to give way, by further legislative action, to the postage stamps and half dollar notes of the Confederate Treasury. In the summer of 1862 this money became plentiful; but the first issues were limited, and being made upon inferior paper and in a poor style, they were rapidly worn, and soon assumed a miserable appearance. However, bank notes were now withdrawn, although at a premium, and Confederate money formed the entire currency.

The following statement shows the value of gold in this currency at Richmond from October, 1861, to the evacuation of that city:

1861.	For \$1.00 in Gold.	1862.	For \$1.00 in Gold.
October.....	1 10 to 1 15	January.....	1 18 to 1 22
November.....	1 15 to 1 17	February.....	1 25 to 1 26
December.....	1 18 to 1 20	March.....	1 28 to 1 30
		April.....	1 35 to 1 40
		May.....	1 50
		June.....	1 50
		July.....	1 50
		August.....	1 50
		September.....	1 75 to 2 00
		October.....	1 75 to 2 00
		November.....	2 50 to 3 00
		December.....	2 50 to 3 00
		1863.	
		January.....	3 10
		February.....	3 35
		March.....	4 20
		April.....	5 00 to 5 50
		May.....	6 00
		June.....	8 50
		1864.	
		January.....	21 00
		February.....	23 00 to 25 00
		March.....	23 00 to 24 00
		April.....	21 00 to 23 00
		May.....	19 00 to 20 00
		June.....	15 00 to 18 00
		July.....	20 00
		August.....	21 00 to 23 00
		September.....	22 00 to 23 00
		October.....	26 00
		November.....	27 00 to 33 00
		December.....	34 00 to 51 00
		1865.	
		January.....	45 00 to 53 00
		February.....	45 00 to 60 00
		March.....	60 00

Standing face to face with these gloomy realities on the one hand, and beholding the North on the other hand swelling still more the numbers of its vast armies and replenishing their stores from almost exhaustless resources, the Southern leaders gave no signs of wavering, nor uttered apprehensions of failure; but the effects of this apparent state of weakness upon the minds of the people were manifest from the measures taken to meet the crisis.

The assembly of the Legislature of Virginia early in January adopted a resolution for the appointment of Gen. Lee to the command of all the armies, which was laid before Mr. Davis, and to which he replied as follows:

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, RICHMOND, January 19th.

Meers. James F. Johnson, President pro tem, of the Virginia Senate, and Hugh W. Sheffield, Speaker of the Virginia House of Delegates.

GENTLEMEN: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your joint letter of the 17th inst., enclosing a resolution of the General Assembly of Virginia, passed on the 17th inst., and communicated in confidence, as directed by the Assembly. This resolution informs me that, in the opinion of the General Assembly of Virginia, the appointment of Gen. Robert E. Lee to the command of all the armies of the Confederate States would promote their efficiency and operate powerfully to reanimate the spirits of the armies, as well as of the people of the several States, and to inspire an increased confidence in the final success of our cause.

In your communication, you kindly assure me that the General Assembly, with a sincere confidence in my patriotic devotion to the welfare of the country, desire, in this critical period of our affairs, by such suggestions as occur to them, and by dedication, if need be, of the entire resources of the Commonwealth to the common cause, to strengthen my hands and to give success to our struggle for liberty and independence. This assurance is to me a source of the highest gratification; and while conveying to you my thanks for the expression of confidence of the General Assembly in my sincere devotion to our country and sacred cause, I must beg permission, in return, to bear witness to the unhesitating spirit with which Virginia has, from the moment when she first drew the sword, consecrated the blood of her

children and all her material resources to the achievement of the object of our struggle.

The opinion expressed by the General Assembly, in regard to Gen. Robert E. Lee, has my full concurrence. Virginia cannot have a higher regard for him, or a greater confidence in his character and ability, than is entertained by me. When Gen. Lee took command of the Army of Northern Virginia, he was in command of all the armies of the Confederate States. By my order of assignment, he continued in this general command, as well as in the immediate command of the Army of Northern Virginia, as long as I could resist his opinion that it was necessary to him to be relieved from one of these two duties. Ready as he has ever shown himself to be to perform any service that I desired him to render to his country, he left it for me to choose between his withdrawal from the command of the army in the field, or relieving him of general command of all the armies of the Confederate States.

It was only when satisfied with this necessity, I came to the conclusion to relieve him of general command, believing that the safety of the Capital and the success of our cause, depended, in a great measure, on then retaining him in command in the field with the Army of Northern Virginia. On several subsequent occasions the desire, on my part, to enlarge the sphere of Gen. Lee's usefulness, has led to renewed consideration of the subject, and he has always expressed his inability to assume the command of other armies than those now confided to him, unless relieved of the immediate command in the field of that army now opposed to Gen. Grant.

In conclusion, I assure the General Assembly that whenever it shall be found practicable by Gen. Lee to assume command of all the armies of the Confederate States, without withdrawing him from direct command of the Army of Northern Virginia, I will deem it promotive of the public interests to place him in such command, and will be happy to know that by so doing I am responding to their expressed desires. It will afford me great pleasure to see you, gentlemen, as proposed in your letter, whenever it may be convenient for you to visit me.

I am, very respectfully and truly yours,

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

About the same time the members of the Virginia delegation in the Confederate Congress, believing that the Confederacy was in extraordinary danger in consequence of serious misfortunes; that the public spirit was depressed; that the apprehensions for the public safety were increased by the belief that the public misfortunes were partially the result of mismanagement, and that one of the most important measures to be adopted was a reconstruction of the Cabinet, resolved to make this opinion known to Mr. Davis as the advice of his friends. The advice was thus tendered by the delegation, that a general reconstruction of the Cabinet was demanded by public sentiment, and was necessary for the restoration of the public confidence. The movement failed to accomplish the end designed. A correspondence ensued between Mr. Davis and his Secretary of War, which was made public. The delegation in a subsequent address say: "Misconceiving the spirit of our proceeding, our distinguished fellow-citizen, Mr. Seddon, without a general reconstruction of the Cabinet, resigned the office of Secretary of War. If we have unintentionally wounded his sensibilities, we deeply regret that such a consequence resulted from our action or from his construction of it.

"In a letter accepting his resignation the President declines to approve the propriety of his decision to resign, because, he adds, 'I can not admit the existence of a power or right in the legislative department of the Government, or in any part or branch of it, to control the continuance in office of those principal officers in each of the Executive Departments whose choice the Constitution has vested in the Chief Magistrate,' etc. He observes that the circumstances which gave rise to Mr. Seddon's resignation are without precedent. In conceding a just and legitimate influence to enlightened public opinion, he denies 'that the declaration of a State delegation, or even of one or both Houses, is entitled to be considered as the authentic expression of such opinion, or as requiring concession from a coördinate department of the Government.'

"The public can now judge how far the discussion of such topics was relevant to our action, and how justly or wisely the publication of such a correspondence, or the spirit which pervades it, responds to the proceedings and purposes of this delegation. That the friendly advice of a delegation, or the more authentic counsel of Congress, should be repelled in such a manner, with such claims and at such a time, is a circumstance which we deplore for the sake of the country, and, let us add, for the sake of the President. It will not provoke us to a resentful controversy. It cannot abate our devotion to the public cause. It does not alter our principles of action. But since, by the publication of this correspondence, members of the Cabinet have (probably with their consent) been placed before the tribunal of public opinion at issue with the Virginia delegation upon the question whether they should have remained or been retained in office, notwithstanding the condition of our country and all the indications of public sentiment, this delegation do not recoil from that issue."

The resignation of Mr. Seddon was followed by the appointment of Maj.-Gen. John C. Breckinridge as Secretary of War.

The Congress was at this time in session at Richmond, having assembled in November, and the public expectation was directed to that body for measures needed to strengthen and reinvigorate the army. The military committee considered that there were two sources of supply to the existing strength of the army: first, by the abolition of all details between eighteen and forty-five years of age; and, secondly, by the consolidation of existing regiments, and the reduction to the ranks of all officers without commands in the field. In their opinion some exceptions were required in the first measure, in order to exempt a limited number of skilled mechanics and citizens, indispensable in producing materials of war in Government establishments. It was proposed to fill the places of able-bodied white men engaged in any sort of labor in or out of the army, with slaves, and to give an unlimited power of detail for all

purposes over men above forty-five years of age. Thus, every able-bodied white man, between eighteen and forty-five, who was not an officer commanding in the field, would become an arms-bearing soldier. Retired and disabled officers and soldiers, and men above forty-five, would fill all other positions and discharge all other duties. It was further proposed to Congress to consolidate existing companies, battalions, and regiments, and to officer them by an examining board, appointed to select from all the officers of the organizations commissioned, those who were best qualified. The officers not selected were to be dropped, and required to organize themselves into companies, battalions, and regiments, to be officered from among themselves.

This measure of consolidation, etc., it was estimated, would add at least ten thousand able-bodied soldiers to the fighting army. It was further contemplated to make some reduction in the list of exemptions, and to create additional guards against the exemption of those fit for service. The proposition to arm the slaves had been incidentally discussed before this period, but was not regarded as a probable measure.

Meanwhile the public press was most vigorous in efforts to rally the military spirit of the people. It called for a prompt and resolute execution of the conscription law, by the apprehension of all who were absent without leave, and the summary execution of all deserters. It declared there was an abundance of bread and meat in the country, but the Commissary Department, or the railroads, were inefficient, and that the details of the former abounded in speculation and partiality. It clamored from all quarters for the appointment of the best officers to the military command, and denounced the executive officers and Congress because its clamors were unheeded, and charged the latter with being predisposed for peace.

In order to improve the condition of the Treasury, it was proposed in Congress to lay a special export duty on cotton and tobacco. Some members advocated the seizure by the Confederacy of all the cotton and tobacco, on the ground that it was necessary to adopt new measures adapted to the altered situation and circumstances. But two resources remained by which to assist the currency and the country: one was to call upon the States to give up to the Government the benefit of their separate State credit; the other was to draw upon the mine of wealth which the country possessed in its cotton and tobacco. The time had come when the issue was clearly presented whether the Government should take the cotton, or "let the Yankees take it." It was further urged, that the wheat, corn, meat, and other products of the country, had been impressed by the Government at rates far below their market value, and there was no reason why cotton and tobacco should be exempted.

The month of January, however, passed away without any action by Congress upon the important measures for strengthening the army or improving the condition of the treasury, or reviving the confidence of the people, and without any vigorous efforts on the part of the Executive to recover absentees from the army, or to check the progress of Sherman, who had begun his northern march from Savannah. On the contrary, advocates of an honorable peaceful settlement of the war had arisen in Congress, asserting that they were sustained by the volume of sentiment in the country and in the army, and by their own sense of duty, and that they were determined, in some form, the statesmanship of the country should be invoked to an honest effort "to end the carnival of death" by negotiation. In Congress a discussion took place upon the subject of peace, and the true course by which to commence the preliminaries. Views like these soon developed a division of sentiment. Those who opposed them, urged that they led directly to disorganization, distraction, and ruin; the "peaceful settlement" proposed, logically meant a reconstruction and submission on the best terms that could be begged. It was doubtless the existence of these views which led Mr. Davis to consent, against his own convictions of success, to appoint three commissioners to confer with President Lincoln, together with the belief that such conference would demonstrate to the Southern people again that subjugation or war were still the only alternatives before them. "Better go down fighting," said the public press, "better be subjugated and conquered than live to reflect that we brought our ruin upon our heads by a deceptive reconstruction." These were the views of Government, the majority of Congress, and of all exercising political authority. No step backward had been taken by its standard bearers since the Confederate flag was first raised aloft. If they might fail, they still seemed to be resolved to disappear forever as Confederates, with its folds waving over them to the last. This spirit was exhibited in the instructions of Mr. Davis to the three commissioners, which were, substantially, that negotiations should be conducted as between two independent nationalities, and that pending the negotiations an armistice of ninety days should be proclaimed.

The recent loss of Fort Fisher had produced a mingled feeling of dismay and indignation against the authorities at Richmond. It was urged that all the disasters of the previous two months had resulted from the policy which permitted Gen. Sherman to march unopposed through Georgia, and diverted Hood across the Tennessee River. This absence of opposition, however, resulted from the misinformation existing in the Cabinet at Richmond in regard to the troops in Georgia who were supposed likely to check Sherman, although he had one of the finest armies ever in the field. Neither did the authorities at Richmond compre-

head the sentiment beginning to prevail extensively in Georgia and South Carolina, and even in North Carolina and Virginia, which was one of strong disaffection. There was a deep conviction existing in those States that the Executive regarded the safety of Richmond as more important than any other point, whereas the loss of particular places in South Carolina, by cutting the communications, would involve the surrender of Richmond.

Amid this unsatisfactory state of public feeling, the peace commissioners returned from Fortress Monroe. Their mission had been an entire failure. A public meeting was at once called for midday in the African Church at Richmond to express the feelings of the people. Mr. Hunter, one of the Commissioners, Mr. Benjamin of the Cabinet, and other persons of eminence in the Confederacy appeared. Mr. Hunter said :

Having called you to order, it is proper that I should explain the object and purposes of this meeting. We stand here to consider the most momentous public issue that ever agitated a nation—one in which is involved the very life and being of a people, the existence of their laws and Government, their liberty and honor. Whatever is sacred in human affections, or dear to the hearts of men, is involved in this contest, and may God grant us the wisdom to devise, and the arm to execute those measures which, under His hand, shall effect our deliverance in this great crisis of our affairs. We are not responsible for the lives that have been given up in this contest, and our skirts are clear of the blood which has been shed. We entered it to maintain the right of self-government—a right which should have been as dear to our enemies as to us. It is a great American idea, the growth of American soil, and should in their eyes be as sacred as it is to us. For four long years we have been engaged in a war, the like of which has not been seen in modern times—the only approximations to which were the wars of Wallenstein and Attila, and the thirty years' war of Germany. And now, after these years of waste and destruction, we have been lately informed by the President of the United States that there can be no peace except upon the conditions of laying down our arms and absolute submission, to come in as rebels, and submit to laws confiscating our property, and awarding the death penalty to our citizens. Nor is this all. We are required to submit to an amendment to the United States Constitution, to turn loose the thousands of slaves in our midst without restraint, and without the education which they would require for self-preservation.

If any thing more was wanting to stir the blood, it was furnished when we were told that the United States could not consent to entertain any proposition coming from us as a people. That Government which makes treaties with the meanest and weakest of nations, tells us, a nation of seven millions of men, with arms in their hands, that it cannot entertain any proposition coming from rebels. Even upon the theory that we were rebels, upon what authority could they refuse to treat with us? There has been no civil war of any magnitude, which has not been terminated by treating. It would seem possible that Lincoln might have offered something to a people with two hundred thousand soldiers, and such soldiers, under arms. Could it be probable to him that we could go into the United States Government as rebels, assuming the responsibility of all the blood that has been shed, confessing that we have kept up a wicked and needless war, submitting to laws confiscating our property, and taking the lives of our people? It is true, he said that these laws would be

administered by him in a spirit of kindness; but when did men ever give to one man the power over their lives and property, and all that they hold dear, trusting to his spirit of kindness, and divesting themselves of the power to resist his tyranny? And it is to be remembered that whenever we go into the Union as a conquered people, we give up the laws of the United States, and must take such as they choose to make for us; and we go in without representation in making those laws; for Mr. Lincoln told us, told me, that while we could send representatives to the Yankee Congress, yet it rested with that Congress to say whether they would receive them or not. Thus we would cast every thing away, and go to them as a subdued, subjugated, and degraded people, to be held in subjection by their soldiery. Nor is all told yet. More than three million slaves are to be let loose, and one billion five hundred thousand dollars' worth of property destroyed at one fell swoop. These slaves are to wander about and become the lazzaroni of the land. The Congress would be continually interfering between the white and black man; the laws would be made by a Congress hostile to us, and any attempt to make these thriftless wanderers useful would be interfered with. If, under the old Government, they interfered with our domestic institutions, what would become of us if we were helpless in their hands, and those hands holding the power to arbitrate in all questions concerning us? They would raise questions about the State laws, and soon sweep away the barrier we might erect for the protection of social order and industry in our midst. But, fellow-citizens, I will not attempt to draw a picture of subjugation which must loom up before the eyes of every man who considers it. It would require a pencil dipped in blood to paint its gloom. I pass from this to the question of what is to become of the slaves. We know that in large districts of our country the men have been taken away by them, and the women left. Who is to support them? Under our system they were provided for and happy. Under their system they must perish; that system will destroy the whole negro race in this country. In the fierce competition for food between the white and the negro, the latter will be blasted like human life before a burning sirocco, and vanish like the mist before the sun. We draw the sword not for ourselves alone, but also for their sake. And the world, which stands coldly looking on, will find that the men whom they have excluded from their sympathy, are the hope of the black race. It was the exclamation of a celebrated French woman: "Oh, Liberty! what crimes are committed in thy name!" and we may parody by exclaiming: "Oh, Philanthropy! how much misery is caused in thy name!" Well may the negro rise up and pronounce judgment against it.

He then presented, in glowing words, the gains which would come with successful resistance, and said: "I trust and believe in the success of our cause. If our people exhibit the proper spirit, they will bring forth the deserters from their caves, and the skulkers who are avoiding the perils of the field will go forth to share the dangers of their countrymen."

Mr. Benjamin, Secretary of State, followed, and alluding to the numbers present and the cheers greeting the sentiments, he said: "How different from one short week ago. It seems an age, so magical has been the change. Then despondency and hope deferred weighed upon us. Men were querulous, and asking if it were true that no honorable peace were attainable except by continued warfare. Then it was said it was our perverse indisposition to negotiate that led to the arrogance of the invader. This

delusion went so far that it penetrated the legislative halls, and threatened the disruption of the harmony of our councils. Now, cheerful voices are heard all around, and hope beams on every countenance."

This great change he ascribed, not to any military successes, not to any new allies in foreign lands to stretch their arms to assist, but to the knowledge which had come to the hearts of the people. "We now know," he said, "in our hearts that this people must conquer its freedom or die."

He proceeded to relate how the peace commission came to be sent and its result, and asked, "What is our present duty? We want means. Are they in the country? If so, they belong to the country and not to the man who chances to hold them now." After portraying the determined spirit with which cotton had been sacrificed on the Mississippi to prevent its falling into the hands of "their enemies," he further said: "I now ask has any man a right to hold a bale of cotton from his country? No! I will say something in regard to tobacco. Take all the cotton and tobacco and make it the basis of means, without which we cannot go on. I want more, I want all the bacon, every thing which can feed soldiers, and I want it as a free gift to the country. Talk of rights! What right do the arrogant invaders leave you? I want another thing. War is a game that cannot be played without men. Where are the men? I am going to open my whole heart to you. Look to the trenches below Richmond. Is it not a shame that men who have sacrificed all in our defence should not be reinforced by all the means in our power? Is it any time now for antiquated patriotism to argue refusal to send them aid, be it white or black?"

Continuing, he said: "Our resources of white population have greatly diminished, but you had 680,000 black men of the same ages, and could Divine prophecy have told us of the fierceness of the enemy's death-grapple at our throats; could we have known what we now know, that Lincoln has confessed, that without 200,000 negroes which he stole from us, he would be compelled to give up the contest, should we have entertained any doubts upon the subject? I feel that the time is rapidly coming on when the people will wonder that they ever doubted. Let us say to every negro who wishes to go into the ranks, on condition of being made free, 'go and fight—you are free.' If we impress them, they will go against us. We know that every one who could fight for his freedom has no chance. The only side that has had advantage of this element is the Yankee people, who can beat us to the end of the year in making bargains. Let us imitate them in this. I would imitate them in nothing else. My own negroes have been to me and said, 'Master, set us free, and we'll fight for you. We had rather fight for you than for Yankees.' But suppose it should not be so? There is no harm in trying. With all my early

attachments and prejudices, I would give up all. It can only be done by States separately. What State will lead off in this thing? South Carolina I know will follow Virginia, as well as every other Southern State, if she but take the lead. When shall it be done? Now, now. Let your Legislature pass the necessary laws, and we will soon have 20,000 men down in those trenches fighting for their country.

"You must make up your minds to try that, or see your army withdrawn from before your town. I came to say disagreeable things. I tell you you are in danger, unless some radical measure be taken. I know not where white men can be had. It is said there are quartermasters' clerks, railroad employes, and men in bomb-proofs, but I tell you there are not enough able-bodied white men in the country. Do you suppose we have worked night after night, by this infamous gaslight you have here, and not found out this thing?"

The further proceedings of the meeting are unimportant. On the next day a member of the House of Congress, long a friend of Mr. Davis, brought forward a bill to give effect to the suggestions of Mr. Benjamin, and providing for the voluntary enlistment of slaves for military service. When the bill was offered in the House a motion was made to reject it, which was lost by yeas 21, nays 53. It did not propose to change the relation of the slaves to their owners except by the consent of the States in which they resided, and in pursuance of the laws thereof. A motion was then made to postpone the matter indefinitely, which was lost; another to refer it to the military committee was also lost; and the motion of the original mover for a select committee passed. The great degree of favor manifested for the bill indicated a radical change of sentiment, which finally, under the influence of events, ended in emancipation. The objections urged against the measure were that it would be virtually staking success in this great struggle on the capacity and fidelity of negro troops; that it would be obnoxious to a large portion of the soldiers; that the proposed liberation of the slaves becoming soldiers at the termination of the war was nothing but abolitionism; that by conscription of the slaves every ground assumed at the commencement of the war would be surrendered; and that it would be a confession of weakness which would operate to disadvantage both at home and abroad.

A resolution had already been offered in the Senate, instructing the Committee on Military Affairs to report a bill with the least possible delay, to take into the military service of the Confederate States, by voluntary enlistment, with the consent of the owners, or by conscription, not exceeding two hundred thousand negro soldiers, but was defeated. At the same time the demand for the appointment of Gen. Lee to the command of all the armies was successful. The appointment was made, and he at once issued the following order:

HEADQUARTERS CONFEDERATE ARMY, Feb. 9, 1863.

By authority of General Order No. 3, from the Adjutant and Inspector-General's office, I assume command of the military forces of the Confederate States. Deeply impressed with the difficulties and responsibility of the position, and humbly invoking the guidance of Almighty God, I rely, for success, upon the courage and fortitude of the army, sustained by the patriotism and firmness of the people, confident that their united efforts, under the blessing of Heaven, will secure peace and independence.

The headquarters of the army, to which all special reports will be addressed, will be for the present with the Army of Northern Virginia. The stated and regular returns, and reports of each army and department will be forwarded, as heretofore, to the office of the Adjutant and Inspector-General.

[Signed] R. E. LEE, General.

The reasons urged in favor of the appointment of Gen. Lee as Commander-in-chief, serve to show the existing evils which it was expected thereby to obviate. The appointment, it was said, would remove a load of anxiety by which all were depressed. They would feel at once that a hand both strong and steady was laid upon the wheel, and that it signified business and battle.

A firm assurance would at once grow up in the minds of the people that the strength and resources of the land would be applied in the wisest and most efficient manner, and that each separate command would be placed in the hands best able to wield it without favor or affection. The armies would eagerly hail such an appointment. But the most marked effect would be upon the Federals. They would understand there was to be no child's play. His name was specially connected with one measure of military necessity before the Congress which he had strongly urged should be passed, the very conception of which implied a grim resolve. It was the demand for negro soldiers.

Two days later he issued the following address to the soldiers:

General Order No. 2.

HEADQUARTERS ARMIES OF CONFEDERATE STATES, }
February 11, 1863.

In entering upon the campaign about to open, the General-in-chief feels assured that the soldiers who have so long and so nobly borne the hardships and dangers of the war, require no exhortation to respond to the calls of honor and duty. With the liberty transmitted by their forefathers, they have inherited the spirit to defend it. The choice between war and abject submission is before them. To such a proposal, brave men, with arms in their hands, can have but one answer. They cannot barter manhood for peace, nor the right of self-government for life or property.

But justice to them requires a sterner animadversion to those who have abandoned their comrades in the hour of peril. A last opportunity is offered them to wipe out the disgrace, and escape the punishment of their crimes. By authority of the President of the Confederate States, a pardon is announced to such deserters and men improperly absent, as shall return to the commands to which they belong, within the shortest possible time, not exceeding twenty days from the publication of this order, at the headquarters of the department in which they may be.

Those who may be prevented by interruption of communication, may report within the time specified, to the nearest enrolling officer, or other officer on duty, to be forwarded as soon as practicable; and upon

presenting certificates from such officer, showing compliance with this request, will receive the pardon hereby offered. Those who have deserted to the service of the enemy, or who have deserted after having been once pardoned for the same offence, and those who shall desert, or absent themselves without authority, after the publication of this order, shall be excluded from its benefits. Nor does the offer of pardon extend to other offences than desertion and absence without permission.

By the same authority it is also declared that no general amnesty will again be granted, and those who refuse to accept the pardon now offered, or who shall hereafter desert or absent themselves without leave, shall suffer such punishment as the courts may impose, and no application for clemency will be entertained.

Taking new resolution from the fate which our enemies intend for us, let every man devote all his energies to the common defence.

Our resources, fitly and vigorously employed, are ample, and with brave armies, sustained by a determined and united people, success, with God's assistance, cannot be doubtful. The advantage of the enemy will have but little value if we do not permit them to impair our resolution. Let us then oppose constancy to adversity, fortitude to suffering, and courage to danger, with the firm assurance that He who gave freedom to our fathers will bless the efforts of their children to preserve it.

R. E. LEE, General.

The portion of this order which appeals to the deserters was not followed by the success desired. Those men, in large numbers, appeared to be tired of the war. The views of Gen. Lee on the future aspect of affairs at this time, are expressed in the following letter:

HEADQUARTERS ARMY NORTHERN VIRGINIA, Feb. 4, 1863.
Brig.-Gen. Henry A. Wise, Commanding, etc.:

GENERAL: I have received the declaration of principles and rights made by your brigade, and return my thanks to yourself, your officers, and men. The spirit evinced in this document is the true one. If our people will sustain the noble soldiers of the Confederacy, and evince the same resolution and fortitude under their trials, which have characterized the army, I feel no apprehension about the issue of this contest. I do not see how we can, by any compromise or negotiation, abate aught of the rights claimed in this admirable declaration, without a surrender of the liberties we derived from our ancestors.

As long as soldiers are animated by such sentiments, and supported by the country, I believe that our overthrow is beyond the power of the enemy.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

R. E. LEE, General.

The public sentiment was in advance of Congress on the vital subject of strengthening the army. The calling of the slaves to the field was earnestly urged by Gen. Lee, and the failure of the bill in the Senate for that purpose; as above mentioned, was followed by immediate action on the part of the Virginia Legislature. On February 16th, in the Assembly of that body, the following resolution was reported by the Committee on Military Affairs:

The General Assembly of Virginia, deeply impressed with the importance of calling into active service the whole physical strength of the Confederate States in this momentous crisis, and it being the opinion of the highest military authority that the efficiency of our army may be greatly increased by the enlistment of negroes; therefore

Resolved, By the General Assembly of Virginia, That the Government of the Confederate States is

authorized, and the consent of this State is hereby given, to enlist such number of able-bodied slaves for the military service as may be deemed necessary, upon such terms and under such limitations as may be agreed upon between the Confederate States Government and the owners of such slaves.

The subsequent action of the Legislature led to the final passage of the measure by the Congress. Various propositions were introduced and considered. A bill, however, matured and passed by the House reached the Senate, and was there defeated; but under the action of the Virginia Legislature, her Senators were induced to change their vote, and it was passed. It made no change in the relation of owners of slaves, and authorized the General-in-chief to employ twenty-five per cent. of all between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years in military service, in whatever capacity he might direct. They were to receive the same pay, rations, and clothing, as other troops. At this time the public opinion in favor of the measure had become almost unanimous among both civilians and soldiers. It was passed at too late a moment to be executed with any effect.

Meanwhile, Gen. Sherman was beginning to loom up in the South. He had moved from Savannah with more than his usual vigor, and far more than his usual celerity. A broad track of desolation, sweeping along the great interior lines of railroad, marked his steps. By destroying these roads he deprived the Confederate forces of the feasibility of communication and combination, severed the communications of Gen. Lee with the South, and dissolved all the bonds of slavery. At the same time, Gen. Grant was filling up his ranks and concentrating from all points toward the doomed city, whose fall his army had so long awaited. The growing apprehension at the progress of Sherman caused the reappointment, to command the Army of the Tennessee, of Gen. Johnston, who had been relieved before Atlanta by Gen. Hood, and now succeeded Gen. Beauregard. On this occasion he issued the following order:

General Order No. 1.

CHARLOTTE, NORTH CAROLINA, February 25th.

In obedience to the order of the General-in-chief, the undersigned has assumed command of the Army of Tennessee, and all the troops in the Departments of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. He takes this position with strong hope, because he will have in counsel and on the field the aid of the high talents and skill of the general whom he succeeds. He exhorts all absent soldiers of the Army of Tennessee to rejoin their regiments and again confront the enemy they have so often encountered in Northern Georgia, and always with honor. He assures his comrades of that army who are still with their colors, that the confidence in their discipline and valor which he has publicly expressed, is undiminished.

[Signed]

J. E. JOHNSTON.

This change was made in compliance with public opinion, and with the request of Gen. Beauregard.

At this time the new circulation of the Treasury had reached five hundred millions of dollars, but its depreciation was such that currency was scarce both for the use of the author-

ities and the people. The proposition before Congress to impress the cotton and tobacco, contemplated taking a portion of that belonging to each man at a specie valuation, and issuing in payment bonds, payable in specie five years after the end of the war. The property thus impressed was to vest immediately in the Confederacy, and such part as was necessary should be applied to the use of the army, and the remainder to that of the Treasury, for the payment of appropriations. It was further proposed to issue a new class of notes, called "revenue bills," to the amount of two hundred millions of dollars, which were to be paid out for services rendered, and on contracts made after the month of May ensuing. These bills were to be paid out on specie valuations, and to be redeemed in Government cotton at fifty cents a pound, when presented in amount equivalent to the value of one or more bales. When redeemed the bills might be reissued, and the cotton so redeemed from the Government, and all cotton and tobacco transferred by Government, was to be forever after exempt from impressment, and might be unrestrictedly exported to neutral countries. It was further proposed to pay off the Government liabilities by the additional issue of four hundred millions in Treasury notes, and increase the taxes double the rate of the previous year, thereby absorbing the excessive circulation, and paying revenue bills at specie rates in future transactions. The arrears due to the army at this time were so considerable, that private individuals proposed to contribute to the relief of the Treasury for the payment of the troops, and the Secretary signified through the press his desire to receive such assistance. An offer was made by one citizen to be one of twenty-five to contribute two hundred thousand dollars each toward paying Gen. Lee's army.

It was not, however, until the 7th of March when the Congress acted decidedly upon a measure of taxation. The law enacted on that day levied a tax of eight per cent. on all property not expressly taxed at a different rate, on specie and bills of exchange twenty per cent., on currency five per cent. The interest on Government bonds was taxed as income under the existing laws. Upon profits made by buying and selling merchandise, on property of any description during the years 1865 and 1866, a tax of ten per cent. was levied, in addition to the tax on such profits as income, and upon all profits exceeding twenty-five per cent., a tax of twenty-five per cent. The property, income, and moneys of hospitals, asylums, churches, schools, and charitable institutions were exempt from taxation; also all property within the Federal lines, as long as it remained within such lines. The taxes were made due and were to be collected on the first day of June, one-half to be paid in Treasury notes, and the other half at the option of the party, in certificates of indebtedness, without any allowance for interest. It was also provided that upon all the

subjects of taxation mentioned in the act, and in the act approved on the 17th of February, 1864, there should be levied for the year 1865 an additional tax, equal to one-eighth the amount of tax on the same subjects imposed for the year 1865, which tax should be payable in Treasury notes of the new issue, and the money arising therefrom should be first appropriated to the payment of the increased compensation of soldiers, provided that this additional tax should not be construed to apply to or increase the tax in kind. A bill was also passed to raise coin for the purpose of furnishing the necessary supplies for the army, which authorized the Secretary to borrow the sum of three millions of dollars in coin; or, in case of failure, to levy a tax of twenty-five per cent. payable in kind on all the gold and silver coin, gold dust, bullion, and foreign exchange in the Confederate States. A division of public opinion was still apparent upon the measures by which the war could be brought to a close. It reduced the strength of the army, diminished the efficiency of the measures of the Government, and delayed the action of Congress on important measures. Among the methods proposed to arrive at the desired result was the following by Vice-President Stephens:

1. Let President Lincoln issue an address to the army and people of the South, embodying in that address what he has before said as to peace, and also what passed at his interview with the Commissioners.

2. Agree to appoint Commissioners on the part of the United States to meet State Commissioners on the part of such States as desire to meet at Nashville, Louisville, or Cincinnati, in April or May, to consult as to a peace, on the basis of such States returning to the Union upon the sole condition of obedience to the Constitution and laws of the republic.

3. An election by such States as shall send Commissioners to that convention, of Senators and Representatives to the Congress of the United States, to enter such Congress upon equal terms with other members of it, and such States to have equality on the floor of Congress with other States.

Whatever measures might have been proposed, they would have been of no avail without the concurrence of those in whose hands was held the public authority. These, whose official existence depended on final success, with all the ardor and earnestness that could arise only from the most sincere convictions of duty admitted no alternative to success through war. The Congress itself, near the close of its session, united in an appeal to the people to contribute every effort for the cause. This appeal not only presents many truths of the existing state of affairs, but is the last joint declaration ever made of the views and feelings of those who had been foremost in commencing and conducting this terrible strife. It was made, too, within about one month of the time when the organization of the Confederate States was destined to disappear forever from the midst of human affairs. It was as follows:

FELLOW-CITIZENS: The result of the Peace Commission is known to the country. The hopes of

those who have hitherto believed that an honorable termination might be put to the war, by negotiation, have been rudely disappointed. The enemy, after drawing us into a conference, abruptly terminated it by insisting upon terms which they well knew we could never accept. Our absolute surrender and submission to the will of the conqueror are the only conditions vouchsafed by our arrogant foe. We are told that if we will lay down our arms and place our lives, liberty, property, and domestic institutions at the feet of President Lincoln, that he will be merciful to us. Upon his clemency we must rely to save us from universal confiscation and extermination.

Yes; these are the conditions upon which the people of the sovereign States composing this Confederacy may be allowed to do—what? To return into the "Union" from which they solemnly and deliberately withdrew themselves, because their interests and their honor required it, and their repugnance to which four years of remorseless and cruel war have served to intensify. Thanks be to God, who controls and overrules the counsels of men, the haughty insolence of our enemies, which they hoped would intimidate and break the spirit of our people, is producing the very contrary effect. From every part of the country there comes up in response a shout of mingled indignation and defiance.

A noble enthusiasm reanimates our gallant army who have been battling so long for freedom and independence! Let us all be united now. Let there be no parties or factions among us. Let us rise to the might of the great occasion. Let us all be willing to spend and be spent in the cause of our country. Let us contribute freely, all that we have if need be, to carry on the war until our final triumph is secured. Let us take fraternal counsel together, and calmly consider our condition and prospects. Such a survey, we believe, must tend to reassure and encourage even the least sanguine.

We have, it is true, recently met with serious disasters. Our fortune is being severely tried. We have suffered much, and must be prepared to suffer more, in the cause in which we are struggling. Is the cause worth the sacrifice? To answer correctly, we must constantly keep in mind the end for which we are contending. What is our object in this war? The establishment of our independence, through which alone are to be secured the sovereignty of the States and the right of self-government. What is the alternative? Can the imagination over-color the picture which would be presented in the event of our failure? If we fail, not only political degradation, but social humiliation, must be our wretched lot. We would not only be political vassals, but social serfs. An enemy that has shown himself destitute of the ordinary sensibilities of human nature, and whose worst passions are embittered and inflamed against us, would assume the absolute control of our political and social destinies. In vain would a proud though vanquished people look even for that mercy which the conquered receive from a generous foe. Those "State rights" which we have been taught to prize so dearly as the greatest bulwark of constitutional liberty, and which from the earliest period of our history we have so jealously guarded, would be annihilated. The Confederate States would be held as conquered provinces by the despotic Government at Washington. They would be kept in subjugation by the stern hand of military power, as Venetia and Lombardy have been held by Austria—as Poland is held by the Russian Czar. Not only would we be deprived of every political franchise dear to freedom; but socially we would be degraded to the level of slaves, if, indeed, the refinement or malice in our enemies did not induce them to elevate the negro slave above his master. Not only would the property and estates of vanquished "rebels" be confiscated, but they would be divided and distributed among our African bondsmen.

But why pursue the hideous picture further?

Southern manhood revolts at the bare idea of the spectacle presented. Can you think of it unmoved? Can property—can life itself—be so dear to you as to allow you to weigh them for one moment against degradation so abject—against misery so profound? We do not and cannot believe it. If the proud memories and traditions of our first great Revolution do not nerve you to eternal resistance to such a consummation—nor the examples of our forefathers, who wrestled for the independence they bequeathed us during long years of suffering greater than we have endured—let not the precious blood that has been already shed, by our bravest and best in the present struggle, cry out to us from our yet reeking soil in vain! Fruitlessly, indeed, have these sons and brothers—martyrs of liberty—bled and died if we falter now in the path which they have illumined before us.

In the Revolution of '76 our armies and our people suffered far more than we have done. Our cities then were almost all in the hands of the British, and we were entirely cut off from all supplies from abroad, while our facilities for producing them, were infinitely less than they now are. Greene tells us that the battle of Eutaw was won by men who had scarcely shoes to their feet, or shirts to their backs. They protected their shoulders from being galled by the bands of their cross belts, by bunches of moss and tufts of grass. A detachment, marching to Greene's assistance, passed through a region so swept by both armies, that they were compelled to subsist on green peaches as their only diet. There was scarcely any salt for fifteen months, and when obtained it had to be used sparingly, mixed with hickory ashes. We need but allude to the terrible winter which Washington passed at Valley Forge with an army unpaid, half starved, and half naked, and shoeless, to convince us that much as our brave soldiers are now enduring, their forefathers, for a like cause, endured far more.

Washington did not then despair. Lee does not now despair of the final triumph of a righteous cause. Why should we be doubtful, much less despondent, of our ultimate success?

The extent of our territory, the food-producing capacity of our soil, the amount and character of our population, are elements of strength which, carefully husbanded and wisely employed, are amply sufficient to insure our final triumph. The passage of hostile armies through our country, though productive of cruel suffering to our people, and great pecuniary loss, gives the enemy no permanent advantage or foothold. To subjugate a country, its civil government must be suppressed by a continuing military force, or supplanted by another to which the inhabitants yield a voluntary or forced obedience. The passage of hostile armies through our territory cannot produce this result. Permanent garrisons would have to be stationed at a sufficient number of points to strangle all civil government before it could be pretended, even by the United States Government itself, that its authority was extended over these States. How many garrisons would it require? How many hundred thousand soldiers would suffice to suppress the civil government of all the States of the Confederacy, and to establish over them, even in name and form, the authority of the United States? In a geographical point of view, therefore, it may be asserted that the conquest of these Confederates, States is impracticable.

If we consider the food-producing capacity of our soil, we need feel no apprehension as to our ability to feed the people and any army we may put into the field. It is needless to go into details or adduce statistics in proof of this. It is obvious to every well-informed mind. Although the occupation by the enemy, and his ruthless policy of destroying the harvests, granaries, and agricultural implements of our people wherever he moves, had undoubtedly

diminished the amount of our cereals, still, in view of the fact that in every State without exception its agricultural labor has been devoted almost exclusively to the raising of breadstuffs (while before the war it was mainly devoted to the production of cotton, tobacco, and other exports), it is impossible to doubt that there is ample supply of food in the country. It is true that the deportation of our slaves by the enemy, and the barbarous policy reprobated by all authorities on ethics or international law has considerably diminished our agricultural labor. But when we reflect that in 1860, our exports, almost entirely the products of slave labor, amounted to two hundred and fifty millions of dollars, it may be safely assumed that our slaves, though reduced in number, are fully equal to the task of feeding both the population at home and the army in the field. Our transportation, it is true, is defective and inadequate, but this may be indefinitely improved by more energetic efforts and more thorough and systematic organization. We cannot believe, therefore, that on our bountiful soil, so richly blessed by Nature, there is any danger of our failing in this great contest for want of food, or of our being starved into submission to the hateful yoke of the conqueror.

But if we look to the amount and character of our population, we see especial reasons why we should be encouraged to hope for, nay, to be assured of an ultimate success. No people of our number can be subjugated, unless, false and recreant to themselves, their courage, faith, and fortitude fail them. We have upon our rolls a very large army of veteran soldiers. It is true—and it is sad truth to confess—that the number present for duty is terribly disproportioned to the entire aggregate. This is too notorious for concealment, and we have no desire to conceal anything. We wish to speak frankly and truthfully to you of the actual condition of things. The number of absentees from your armies has been a fruitful cause of disaster. On many a hard-fought field the tide of success had turned overwhelmingly in our favor, if all had been present whom duty required to participate in the strife. We will not stop to inquire into the causes of an evil which we have so much reason to deplore. The remedy is plainly in the hands of Congress, and it is our province to apply for it. But it is partly, also, in yours, and we appeal to you to use it. Let every good citizen frown down upon and indignantly discountenance all evasions of military duty—whether temporary or permanent—no matter how plausible the pretext, or how palliating the reason.

No duty in this crisis of our affairs can be more imperative than to fight for one's country, family, and home. Let no skulker, deserter, or absentee without leave from the army be tolerated in any community. Let the reproachful glance of our women, between whose honor and the brutal foe our noble army stands as a flaming sword, drive him back to the field. With proper effort, strict discipline, and an elevated tone of public opinion throughout the country, desertion and absenteeism in the army can be arrested, and all men liable to military duty put into and kept in the ranks of our army. If this be effected, we can maintain in the field a force sufficient to defy subjugation. But it is in the character of our population, especially, that we find those elements of strength which impress us with the conviction that we never can be conquered. Our people are peculiarly military in their characteristics. Better soldiers than those in our army, history has never shown. They have endured extreme hardships, and suffered with a fortitude, and fought against constant odds, with a gallantry that has earned the gratitude of their country and extorted the admiration of the world. But in addition to their military attributes, our people are preeminently of a proud and haughty spirit, and deeply imbued with the spirit of constitutional freedom. 1

belongs to their race and lineage; and, as Burke long ago remarked, their relation to the servile race in contact with them has intensified the feeling and invested this love of liberty with a sentiment of personal privilege. To suppose that a people with such military, political, and social characteristics will ever voluntarily submit to be ruled by any other Government than one of their own choice is too insulting to their pride to be entertained for a moment. And to doubt their capacity to achieve independence, and to maintain themselves as a separate Power among the nations of the earth, is to close our eyes to all the teachings of history—to ignore the proof which our forefathers have stamped upon its pages—to believe that human nature has changed, that we are a degenerate race—unworthy descendants of our Revolutionary sires.

The appointment by the President of Lee as "General-in-chief" has done much to restore confidence to the country, and to reinspire the army. All feel that we may safely repose this weighty trust and responsibility in that great soldier and devout patriot. All feel that we may lean upon him as our tower of strength. All feel that his calm courage and steadfast purpose, his military skill and wise judgment, will enable him to wield our armies with the maximum efficiency and strength. May God strengthen him for the great task to which a confiding people have called him!

To provide means for carrying on the war, Congress has been compelled to impose upon the country a heavy burden of taxation. But heavy as it is, it is not too heavy for the country to bear, and not heavier than our wants imperatively demand. It is impossible to maintain the mighty contest in which we are engaged, without vast expenditures of money. Money can only be raised by loans or taxation. Our condition does not enable us to effect the former. We must of necessity, therefore, resort to the latter. We appeal to you with confidence to submit cheerfully to the burdens which the defence of our country, your homes, and your liberties, render necessary. To contribute according to his means to that defence is as much an obligation upon the citizen as it is to peril his life upon the battle-field.

Let us then, fellow-countrymen, tread in the plain path of duty. No nation that has trod it faithfully and fearlessly ever, in the world's history, has stumbled and fallen. "Nations," says Burke, "never are murdered; they commit suicide." Let us not be guilty of the folly and crime of self-destruction. *** Considered, therefore, in every point of view, is it possible to believe that the people of the Confederate States will ever incur subjugation, or accept submission as the result of the great struggle in which we are engaged? Neither is it possible to believe that these States, compelled, by long years of unjust and unconstitutional action toward them by the Northern States, to withdraw from political union with them, can ever be tempted by any promises, or so-called "guarantees," again to unite themselves under a common government. Forced into this revolution by their faithless disregard of the obligations of the constitutional compact, and by the selfish and sectional legislation which they fastened upon us, what in the course of this war has occurred to change our opinion as to their character and purpose? The barbarity and unrelenting ferocity which has characterized their conduct of it, has excited the indignant wonder of the world. Falsehood, duplicity, and mean cunning, marked their course in its inauguration; and, in its progress, every artifice of low diplomacy and persistent misrepresentation has been resorted to by them to lessen us in the estimation of mankind. Our struggle for the right of self-government—which they themselves have always declared to be inalienable—has been held up to the world as a contest for the maintenance of African slavery—a purely State institution, over which neither the Confederate State Government nor the

United States Government has any constitutional control. To prevent foreign nations from according to us that recognition to which we were entitled by public law, and even the very language of existing treaties—a recognition of which they have themselves accorded to other countries on far slenderer grounds—they have deliberately falsified accounts of military operations, and our capacity and resources for continuing the contest.

A war which has been carried on for four years with every varying fortune, their ministers of state have again and again assured foreign powers could not possibly be waged by us for more than two or three months. And after all their insolent boasts of their power to crush us, they have been compelled to resort to foreign enlistments, and the arming of our captured slaves, in order to fill up the ranks of their armies. In spite of these practices, winked at, if not countenanced by European powers—they have practically confessed their inability to vanquish us in regular warfare, by the inhuman policy of destroying the dwellings, the food, and the agricultural implements of our non-combatant population—thus endeavoring, by the starvation of their wives and children, to break the indomitable spirit of our soldiers.

In the invasion of our soil neither private property, nor age, nor sex, has been spared from the rapacity and brutal passions of their mercenary legions. Wherever they have passed over the surface of our fair land, the blackness of desolation has marked their path, and such barbarous desolation has been their boast. Public records have been destroyed—institutions of learning—public and private libraries—pillaged or burned, and the temples of God sacrilegiously defiled.

Fellow-countrymen, will you, can you ever submit to be ruled by such a people? Can you ever join hands with them in fraternal union? Can you with all these things freshly before you—daily occurring on your native soil—ever return to political union with these despoilers of your houses, these violators of your wives and daughters? Never! A dark crimson stream divides you, which all the skill of negotiation can never bridge over. The Southern people have determined to be free and independent, and if their fortitude and courage do not fail them, it is impossible to doubt the issue. But there must be no halting, no hesitation, in the only path that leads to the goal. We must prove to our enemies, and prove to the world, that we cannot be conquered. We must convince them that though our soil may be overrun, the faith of our people in the great cause for which they are contending is unbroken, is unchanged—their will invincible. Let us emulate the example of the Russian people when invaded by the great army of Napoleon. Let us be willing to make any and every sacrifice, and consider it but a mere offering on the altar of our country. By the light of the blazing ruin of what had once been a proud palace, Napoleon read this inscription, which Rostopshin had affixed to his gate: "Frenchmen! I have spent eight years in embellishing this residence. Here I have lived happily in the bosom of my family—the inhabitants of this estate, numbering seventeen hundred and twenty persons, have quitted it at your approach; and I have, with my own hands, fired my beloved home, to prevent its pollution by your presence!" Shall our patriotism be colder and more calculating than that of the subjects of a despotic ruler? Have we less reason to resist—less reason to detest the invading armies of the North, than the Russians had to oppose and hate the French? Our enemies, with a boastful insolence unparalleled in the history of modern civilization have threatened not only our subjugation, but some of them have announced their determination, if successful in this struggle, to deport our entire white population, and supplant it with a new population, drawn from their own territory and European countries! While such

a threat may well excite our ridicule and contempt, the devilish spirit which prompts it must provoke in us an indignation that would render the feeblest people invincible! Think of it!!! That we, the descendants of a brave ancestry, who wrested from a powerful nation, by force of arms, the country which we inhabit—bequeathed to us by them, and upon which we have been born and reared; that we should be uprooted from it, and an alien population planted in our stead, is a thought that should inspire us with undying hostility to an enemy base enough to have conceived it. Every motive of honor and of self-interest, of patriotism and of domestic affection, every sentiment of manhood and self-respect, unite in nerving us to resist, to the last extremity, our cruel invaders. Success gives us a country and a proud position among the nations of the earth. Failure makes us the vassals of an arrogant people, secretly, if not openly, hated by the most enlightened and elevated portions of mankind. Success records us forever in letters of light upon one of the most glorious pages of history. Failure will compel us to drink the cup of humiliation even to the bitter dregs of having the history of our struggle written by New England historians! Success is within our reach.

Early in the month of March the movements of Sherman and others, in cutting off the railroad communications, were felt at Richmond. The subsistence of Gen. Lee's army was greatly jeopardized. Virginia and North Carolina were the only remaining States from which supplies could be expected. These were also dependent on the voluntary action of the people. Gen. Lee, in an appeal to the inhabitants of Virginia, said: "I cannot permit myself to doubt that the people will respond to it when they reflect upon the alternative presented to them. They have simply to choose whether they will contribute such commissary and quartermaster stores as they can possibly spare to support an army which has already done and borne so much in their behalf, or, retaining their stores, maintain the army of the enemy engaged in their subjugation. I am aware that a general obligation of this nature rests lightly upon most men—each being disposed to leave its discharge to his neighbor—but I am confident that our citizens will appreciate their responsibility in the case, and will not permit an army which, by God's blessing and their patriotic support, has hitherto resisted the efforts of our enemy, to suffer through their neglect." In the same strain Governor Vance appealed to the people of North Carolina. County and neighborhood meetings were convened, subscriptions of provisions were taken, either as sales, loans, or donations. Very considerable quantities were thus obtained.

The Government attached less importance to Richmond, as a point never to be evacuated or surrendered, than the State authorities. Mr. Davis expressed his views on the evacuation, not only in public assemblies, but in messages to Congress. His views were that, if the campaign of the previous year against Richmond had resulted in success instead of failure; if he had been compelled to evacuate Richmond as well as Atlanta, the Confederacy would have remained erect and defiant as ever. Nothing could have been changed in the purpose of its

government, in the indomitable valor of its troops, or in the unquenchable spirit of its people. The baffled and disappointed foe would in vain have scanned the reports of their proceedings at some new legislative seat for any indication that progress had been made in the gigantic task of conquering a free people. There were no vital points, on the preservation of which the continued existence of the Confederacy depended. There was no military success of the enemy which could accomplish its destruction. Not the fall of Richmond, nor Wilmington, nor Charleston, nor Savannah, nor Mobile, nor of all combined, could affect the issue of the contest. Members of his cabinet and many of the public papers expressed similar opinions. There were others, on the contrary, who believed and openly declared this opinion would be a fatal error; that the evacuation of Richmond would be the loss of all respect and authority toward the Confederate Government, the disintegration of the army and the abandonment of the scheme of an independent Southern Confederation; that the hope of recognition among nations would be gone forever; that its loss would be the material ruin of the cause, and in a moral point of view absolutely destructive, crushing the heart and extinguishing the last hope of the people. It would be the abandonment of Virginia, and with her North Carolina and Tennessee, forever. These views with others to be hereafter noticed subsequently exerted a decisive influence on the continuance of the war.

It had now become apparent to all, that as a result of Gen. Grant's plans, the dangers of Richmond were rapidly increasing. Gen. Sheridan had made his march up the Shenandoah valley; an unknown force, supposed to be Gen. Thomas's, was known to be moving east from Knoxville, in Tennessee, while Grant held Gen. Lee at Richmond, and Gen. Johnston was left to confront, as best he might, the steady progress of Gen. Sherman, awaiting whom there was a large coöperating force which had captured Wilmington and advanced toward Raleigh, the capital of North Carolina. The Congress at Richmond was on the eve of adjourning *sine die*, when their departure was delayed by a message from Mr. Davis. Once more and for the last time, as it proved, he addressed them. He deemed it to be his duty to request a postponement of the adjournment, in order that he might submit to their consideration certain matters of public interest. The country is now environed with perils, which it is their duty calmly to contemplate. Recent military operations of the enemy have been successful in the capture of some of their seaports and in devastating large districts of their country. He then says: "The capital of the Confederate States is now threatened, and it is in greater danger than it has heretofore been during the war. The fact is stated without reserve or concealment, as due to the people, whose servants we are, and in whose courage and constancy entire trust is

reposed; as due to you, in whose wisdom and resolute spirit the people have confided for the adoption of the measures required to guard them from threatened perils."

The message proceeded to say that men and money were both wanted for carrying on the war. The measures adopted by Congress were insufficient either to supply the Treasury or to fill up the ranks of the army. The bill for arming the negroes had been passed so late as to lose much of its value. All class exemptions should be repealed; a general militia law was required; and the writ of *habeas corpus* should be suspended. At the same time it was further stated that a prospect of opening negotiations between Gens. Grant and Lee had disappeared, and it was evident that "neither with the Confederate authorities of any State, nor through the commanding Generals, will the Government of the United States treat or make any terms for the cessation of hostilities. There remains, then, for us no choice but to continue this contest to a final issue; for the people of the Confederacy can be but little known to him who supposes it possible they would ever consent to purchase at the cost of degradation and slavery, permission to live in a country garrisoned by their own negroes, and governed by officers sent by the conqueror to rule over them."

This message (*see* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS) was regarded by Congress as asserting that the public interests were likely to suffer from their defective legislation. In the Senate a select committee made a report, confined to the specific allegations of the President, and intended to show that whatever culpability there might be, it did not lie at the door of the legislative department. It admitted the inference that the culpability must have arisen from faulty administration, but with admirable forbearance repressed any disposition to retort by setting forth details. In the House the message was referred to the Committee on Military Affairs, who made a report stating why measures repealing all class exemptions, and enacting a general militia law, were not adopted, and saying: "Congress had placed at the disposal of the President all male persons between the ages of fifteen and fifty, and the committee could not see that advantage could accrue from the passage of a general militia law, but were of the opinion that the power would be more efficient in the hands of the Governors of the States."

"So far as the question of putting negroes in the service as soldiers was concerned, the committee remarked that the President himself, and the Minister of War had both declared against the immediate expediency at the beginning of the session. Hence it was not earlier considered."

The Congress adjourned on March 18th, without further action on the message. A bill was, however, passed to enable the Secretary of the Treasury to procure specie from any State in exchange for Treasury notes at market rates, *etc.* Mr. Miles, also, from a joint select com-

mittee, reported an address to the people, inserted on a preceding page.

Here closes the history of the important civil measures by the Confederate Government at Richmond. All that remains is the dire conflict of arms, and the surrender or flight of the vanquished. The boldness of the confidence expressed by the leaders up to this moment, which doubtless excites the wonder of the reader, was honest and sincere. Richmond had withstood an assault of three years, and her position, under the defence of Lee, had come to be looked upon as impregnable. Three-fourths of a year Grant had been held before Petersburg, and all his efforts to reach the western communications of the capital had in every instance been thwarted. Even at this very period, Sheridan, leaving Winchester and sweeping all opposition before him up the valley of the Shenandoah with his body of military horsemen, aimed to reach Lynchburg, but on approaching the James west of Richmond, found himself confronted by a swollen and impassable stream. Falling back, and moving round the left wing of Lee's army, he joined Gen. Grant before Petersburg. So long as Gen. Lee could hold Grant back from the west of Richmond, the Confederacy was safe; and no one supposed the hour was near when the former could be defeated.

On March 26th, Gen. Sheridan with his command reached City Point. Three days afterward he began to move, with his command supported by the 5th corps of infantry under Gen. Warren, and the 2d corps under Gen. Humphrey, against the Southside Railroad. To resist him Gen. Lee detached from the lines at Petersburg, Gens. Pickett's and B. Johnson's divisions of infantry, Gen. Huger's battalion of artillery, and F. Lee's division of cavalry; at the same time he called upon Gen. Longstreet, who commanded the forces north of the James, for men to strengthen the positions thus weakened. On the morning of Sunday, April 2d, before Gen. Longstreet could obey the orders of Lee, Gen. Grant had detected the weakness of the line, and prepared an attack. His forces carried with slight opposition the outer Confederate line, which was thinly held by Gen. Heth's division, then pressed inward, striking two of the detached forts, of which there was a series behind the whole length of the outer works. The two detached forts were named Gregg and Alexander. The former was carried, after terrific opposition, and the latter evacuated at the outset. The Federal forces then swept onward toward Petersburg, but were checked in their progress by Gen. Longstreet, until a fresh line was formed before the city. At this time, Mr. Davis, while at church, received information from Gen. Lee that he could no longer resist the progress of Grant. No further onslaught was made by the Federal forces during the ensuing night, but at dusk Gen. Ewell with all the troops under his command north of the James (about 4,000) fell back from their lines and passed

through the excited streets of Richmond, and before daybreak had crossed the bridges over the James, which were soon after given up to the flames. At about the same hour the Confederate troops began to leave Petersburg, having set on fire the cotton stored there. They crossed over to the north side of the Appomattox River on a pontoon bridge, and advanced sixteen miles during the night. Their retreat was covered by Gen. Field's division, under Gen. Longstreet. No pursuit was made by Gen. Grant, who was aiming to intercept the retreat further westward.

The plan of Gen. Lee, who was highly gratified to find his army safe out of the breastworks, was to recruit his forces with the supplies he hoped to find at Amelia Court House, and to fall in detail upon Grant's forces, which having in view a vigorous pursuit, were breaking up into bodies of one or two army corps, and scattered over the country. But at Amelia Court House no supplies whatever of provision were to be found, although urgent and precise orders had been issued for this purpose two weeks previous. In this dilemma, the first object before the commander was to procure supplies for his troops. For this purpose, nearly half his army was required for foraging parties. The country on the line of his march consisted of straggling woods and pine barrens, with occasional patches of clearings. In search of food, the foraging parties were obliged to go considerable distances, and, thus divided and scattered, large numbers were captured by Gen. Grant's forces. The retreat is thus described by a writer familiar with its scenes:

"Those foragers who returned to Lee brought little or nothing with them. The suffering of the men from the pangs of hunger has not been approached in the military annals of the past fifty years. But the suffering of the mules and horses must have been even keener; for the men assuaged their cravings by plucking the buds and twigs of trees just shooting in the early spring, whereas the grass had not yet started from its wintry sleep, and food for the unhappy quadrupeds there was none. As early as the morning of the 6th, Lee sent off half his artillery toward the railroad, to relieve the famished horses. The artillery, making slow progress, thanks to the exhaustion of the horses, was captured by the Federals on the 8th.

"It is easy to see that the locomotion of an army in such a plight must have been slow and slower. The retreat was conducted in the following fashion: About midnight the Confederates slipped out of their hasty works, which they had thrown up and held during the previous day, and fell back until 10 or 12 o'clock the next morning. Then they halted, and immediately threw up earthworks for their protection during the day. It was not long before the wolves were again on their heels, and from their earthworks the Confederates exchanged a heavy fire with their pursuers throughout the day. Delayed with the necessity of guarding

an ammunition train from thirty-five to forty miles in length, enfeebled by hunger and sleeplessness, the retreating army was only able to make ten miles each night. The delay enabled the active Sheridan to get ahead with his cavalry, and to destroy the depots of provisions along the railroad between Burkville and Danville. Upon the 5th many of the mules and horses had ceased to struggle. It became necessary to burn hundreds of wagons. At intervals the enemy's cavalry dashed in, and struck the interminable ammunition train here and there, capturing and burning dozens upon dozens of wagons. Toward evening of the 5th, and all day on the 6th, hundreds of men dropped from exhaustion, and thousands let fall their muskets from inability to carry them any further.

"The scenes of the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th, were of a nature which can be apprehended in its vivid reality only by men who are thoroughly familiar with the harrowing details of war. Behind, and on either flank, an ubiquitous and increasingly adventurous enemy—every mud-hole and every rise in the road choked with blazing wagons—the air filled with the deafening reports of ammunition exploding, and shells bursting when touched by the flames—dense columns of smoke ascending to heaven from the burning and exploding vehicles—exhausted men, worn-out mules and horses, lying down side by side—gaunt famine glaring hopelessly from sunken, lack-lustre eyes—dead mules, dead horses, dead men everywhere—death, many times welcomed as God's blessing in disguise—who can wonder if many hearts, tried in the fiery furnace of four years' unparalleled suffering, and never hitherto found wanting, should have quailed in presence of starvation, fatigue, sleeplessness, misery—unintermitted for five or six days, and culminating in hopelessness?

"Yet there were not wanting occasional episodes which recalled something of the old pride of former memories, and reminded men that this hunted, famished crowd was still the same army that had won two Bull Runs, which had twice (in pursuit of a fatal policy) trodden its enemy's soil, and had written Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and a dozen other names upon its banners.

"The reader will have gathered that when Gen. Lee found his depots along the Danville road destroyed by Sheridan, he had no alternative but to make for Lynchburg. He still hoped to get rations and to turn suddenly upon Grant, whose army was dispersed into many columns. The fatigue of the pursuit, though unaggravated by famine, was beginning to tell upon the pursuers. But in pressing for Lynchburg, Lee found himself in a dangerous predicament. He was on a strip of land, not more than seven or eight miles broad, between the James and Appomattox Rivers. On the afternoon of the 7th, Lee's situation seemed so unpromising, that Grant, for the first time, sent to propose surrender. Lee at once replied that

his circumstances did not seem to him such as to justify his entertaining such a proposal. On the morning of the 8th, Grant renewed his solicitations. Lee did not decline, but debated the matter, calling a council of war in the evening. No determination was arrived at on the 8th, and at midnight the usual dreary retreat was resumed. The springs of energy and will, unstrung by long want of food, had run down in the men like the machinery of a broken clock. Hitherto the retreat had been covered by Longstreet and Gordon alternately, but now the Federal force, which had got ahead of Lee and was obstructing his retreat, had become so considerable that Gordon was thrown out with 2,000 men in front, while Longstreet, whose pluck neither hunger, nor fatigue, nor depression could abate or subdue, still covered the rear.

"At daybreak on the 9th, a courier from Gordon announced to Lee that a large body of Federal cavalry (in other words, Sheridan's army) was across the road at Appomattox Court House. At the same moment a heavy force of infantry under Grant was pushing Longstreet vigorously in the rear. Between Longstreet and Gordon were the remaining wagons, and clinging to them thousands of unarmed and famished stragglers too weak to carry their muskets. Lee sent orders to Gordon to cut his way through, *coute qu'il coute*. Presently came another courier from Gordon, announcing that the enemy was driving him back. Lee had at this moment less than 30,000 men with muskets at their hands. The fatal moment had indisputably come. Hastily donning his best uniform, and buckling on his sword, which it was never his fashion to wear, Gen. Lee turned sadly to the rear, to seek the final interview with Gen. Grant.

"There is no passage of history in this war which will, for years to come, be more honorably mentioned and gratefully remembered than the demeanor on the 9th of April, 1865, of Gen. Grant toward Gen. Lee. I do not so much allude to the facility with which honorable terms were accorded to the Confederates, as to the bearing of Gen. Grant and the officers about him toward Gen. Lee. The interview was brief. Three commissioners upon either side were immediately appointed. The agreement to which these six commissioners acceded is known.

"In the mean time, immediately that Gen. Lee was seen riding to the rear, dressed more gayly than usual and begirt with his sword, the rumor of immediate surrender flew like wild-fire through the Confederates. It might be imagined that an army, which had drawn its last regular rations on the 1st of April, and harassed incessantly by night and day, had been marching and fighting until the morning of the 9th, would have welcomed any thing like a termination of its sufferings, let it come in what form it might. Let those who idly imagine that the finer feelings are the prerogative of what are called the 'upper classes,'

learn from this and similar scenes to appreciate 'common men.' As the great Confederate captain rode back from his interview with Gen. Grant, the news of the surrender acquired shape and consistency, and could no longer be denied. The effect on the worn and battered troops—some of whom had fought since April, 1861, and (sparse survivors of hecatombs of fallen comrades) had passed unscathed through such hurricanes of shot as within four years no other men had ever experienced—passes mortal description.

"Whole lines of battle rushed up to their beloved old chief, and, choking with emotion, broke ranks and struggled with each other to wring him once more by the hand. Men who had fought throughout the war, and knew what the agony and humiliation of that moment must be to him, strove with a refinement of unselfishness and tenderness which he alone could fully appreciate, to lighten his burden and mitigate his pain. With tears pouring down his cheeks, Gen. Lee at length commanded voice enough to say, 'Men, we have fought through the war together. I have done the best that I could for you.' Not an eye that looked on that scene was dry. Nor was this the emotion of sickly sentimentalists, but of rough and rugged men, familiar with hardships, danger, and death in a thousand shapes, mastered by sympathy and feeling for another what they never experienced on their own account."

Thus Richmond had fallen, and General Lee and his army were prisoners of war. Mr. Davis, who had left Richmond with the members of his cabinet at the time of its evacuation by the army, selected Danville as the temporary seat of Government, and here a proclamation was issued. (See ARMY OPERATIONS.)

Admiral Semmes, formerly of the Alabama, was made a brigadier-general and placed in command of the defences of that place, which were manned by a naval brigade transformed into batteries of light artillery, supported by one or two battalions of troops belonging to the Virginia army, who had been absent on furlough, and were then returning to their respective commands at Petersburg. At Danville the fugitive Government remained secure until authentic information was received of the surrender of General Lee and his army, when it hurried away by railroad to Greensboro, North Carolina; here a mounted escort of Mississippians, belonging to the army of Virginia, was provided for Mr. Davis, attempts to take whose life had been made three times before leaving Richmond. On April 18th, he and his Cabinet, consisting of Secretaries Benjamin, Breckinridge, Mallory, Postmaster-General Reagan, and the following named officers belonging to the President's staff, viz.: Col. J. P. Wood, Colonel Thomas L. Lubbeck (formerly Governor of Texas), Colonel William Preston Johnston (son of General Albert Sidney Johnston), and Colonel Burton N. Harrison (Private Secre-

tary), set out from Greensboro', on horseback, to seek a place of greater safety further South. Two divisions of cavalry, commanded by Generals Debrill and Ferguson, were detached from General Wheeler's corps, to protect and guard the front and rear of the cavalcade. A long wagon train, containing the personal baggage of the cabinet, and the most valuable archives of the waning Government, also composed a part of the column. It wound leisurely along from twenty to twenty-five miles a day, until it arrived at Charlotte, N. C., where a halt was made for four or five days during the negotiations between Generals Sherman and Johnston, which Mr. Davis approved, as the only thing that could be done under the circumstances. Upon the refusal of President Johnson to approve the negotiations, Mr. Davis and his Cabinet set out on their journey southward with all possible speed. Abbeville, South Carolina, was reached on May 1st, and on the same night a further advance of forty-two miles was made, and on the next morning crossed the Savannah on a pontoon bridge, and reached Washington, Georgia.

On the 4th of May Mr. Davis determined to dispense with his cavalry force, and on taking leave of the commander of the escort, said: "I expected to cut my way through to a place of safety with the two divisions of cavalry along with me, but they have become so much demoralized by the reports of stragglers and deserters from Johnston's army that I can no longer rely upon them in case we should encounter the enemy. I have, therefore, determined to disband them, and try to make my escape, as a small body of men can elude the vigilance of the enemy easier than a larger number. They will make every endeavor in their power to capture me, and it behooves us to face these dangers as men. We will go to Mississippi, and there rally on Forrest, if he is in a state of organization, and it is to be hoped that he is; if not, we will cross the Mississippi River and join Kirby Smith, and there we can carry on the war forever. Meet me south of the Chattahoochee, as this department has been surrendered without my knowledge or consent." Six days after, he was captured. (*See ARMY OPERATIONS.*)

It became apparent at once to the Southern people, that with the loss of Richmond and the army of Gen. Lee, the war might degenerate into an irregular contest, in which passion would be the controlling motive; the area of conscription would become so narrowed as greatly to reduce the military strength; the civil organization was gone; the treasury and commissariat were exhausted, and all those means which were necessary to sustain a cause depending upon popular faith and enthusiasm. But another and more alarming danger now began to threaten them. The demoralization among the slaves, produced by the war and its incidents, had reached such an extent as to convince the people that in a longer continuance of hostilities they would be compelled to fight

not only the armies of the North, but also their own slaves. The horrors of such a contest were too terrible to contemplate. The only alternative, of submission to the United States, was accepted at once. Arms, and munitions, and men, surrendered, from the James River to the Rio Grande. Hostilities ceased entirely, and the work of civil reconstruction commenced.

CONFISCATION. Soon after the cessation of hostilities, steps were taken in various parts of the South to enforce the Confiscation laws. Preparations were made in Richmond, Va., in July to condemn the property of various persons who came within the provision of the President's amnesty proclamation, known as the twenty thousand dollar clause. Notices were served upon the tenantry of several landholders of supposed wealth to pay no more rent to the parties from whom they rented the property. These proceedings, however, were not carried to the extent of condemnation. In September it was said by the District Attorney, Mr. Chandler, of Norfolk, that he had received orders to suspend all actions for confiscations.

Grave charges were made in reference to the returns made to Government as the proceeds of sales of property confiscated, and it was asserted that the net amount realized by the Government from the confiscation sales of property in New Orleans did not exceed \$100,000, although the sales included valuable properties in that city.

The case of the *United States vs. Leroy M. Wiley* (see *CYCLOPEDIA* for 1863, p. 220), came up before the Supreme Court of the United States on a motion in behalf of Mr. Wiley to dismiss the writ of error and appeal of the United States, on the ground that the President's pardon and the acceptance and compliance of the terms thereof by the defendant, discharged and remitted the forfeiture for which sentence of condemnation was pronounced in the District Court, by pardoning the acts by which alone, if at all, that forfeiture was incurred. The decision was not given before the close of the year.

The case originated in an information filed in a District Court of the United States, and one Charles Gould named as the informer, under the acts of Congress of 1861 and 1862, commonly known as the "Confiscation acts," for the confiscation and forfeiture of 1,756 shares of the capital stock of the Great Western Railroad Company of 1859, and of upwards of \$50,000 due on coupons of bonds of the same corporation as property of the defendant on the twofold ground alleged in the information:

1. Of alleged use of property by Mr. Wiley in aid of the Rebellion, under the act of 1861; and,
2. Alleged treasonable acts of Mr. Wiley, under act of 1862.

The motion to dismiss this case was announced by Mr. Laroque, in its support.

It involved the question: "Does the Presi

dent's pardon remit the forfeiture of rebel property, and reinstate the rebel in all his rights thereto?"

On the reorganization of the Southern States proceedings in cases of confiscation were suspended, and in Florida the decree was reconsidered in cases not closed, and the defendant allowed a rehearing, with the liberty of pleading the President's pardon.

CONGREGATIONALISTS. The most important event in the recent history of American Congregationalism is the National Council, which met, according to appointment, at Boston, on June 14th. The Council organized by electing Governor Buckingham, of Connecticut, Moderator. Among the prominent men attending the Convention were Dr. Edward Beecher and his brothers, Henry Ward and Charles; Rev. Dr. Patten, of Chicago; Rev. Dr. B. P. Stone, of Concord, N. H.; Dr. Labaree, President of Middlebury College, Vt.; Judge Parish, of Ohio; Senator Pomeroy, of Kansas; Gov. Smith, of Vermont; President Hopkins, of Williams College; Prof. Park, of Andover Seminary; and from abroad, Rev. Dr. Vaughan, editor of the "*British Quarterly*;" Rev. Dr. Raleigh, an eloquent Scotchman; Rev. Dr. George Smith, Secretary of the British Congregational Union; and Rev. Mr. Monod, son of a distinguished French divine.

The different states of the Union were represented among the delegates to the Convention as follows:

California.....	4	Missouri.....	3
Colorado.....	2	New Hampshire.....	33
Connecticut.....	55	New York.....	41
Delaware.....	1	New Jersey.....	2
Illinois.....	38	Nebraska.....	2
Indiana.....	3	Oregon.....	1
Iowa.....	32	Ohio.....	30
Kansas.....	6	Pennsylvania.....	6
Maryland.....	2	Rhode Island.....	4
Massachusetts.....	97	Tennessee.....	1
Minnesota.....	10	Vermont.....	14
Maine.....	38	Wisconsin.....	22
Michigan.....	25	Whole number.....	492

One of the first acts of the Council was to adopt (on June 15th) the following address to President Johnson:

The National Congregational Council, now in session in Boston, representing nearly 3,000 churches in all sections of the country, desire to present you their Christian salutations, to assure you of their profound sympathy in your great and trying labors, to promise you their loyal support and their prayers, and express their solemn conviction that the hundreds of thousands embraced as worshippers in our churches will most heartily coöperate with you in extending the institution of civil and religious liberty throughout the land.

WILLIAM A. BUCKINGHAM, Moderator.

The reply of the President to this address was as follows:

WASHINGTON, June 19.

To Gov. Wm. A. Buckingham, Moderator of the National Council of Congregational Churches, Boston: I received with profound thanks the despatch of your Council. In the arduous and embarrassing duties devolved upon me I feel the need of the coöperation and sympathy of the people, and of the assistance of the Great Ruler of the universe. These duties I shall endeavor to discharge honestly and to

the best of my judgment, with the conviction that the best interests of civil and religious liberty throughout the world will be preserved and promoted by the success and permanency of our country. Let us all labor to that end, and the mission upon which this people have been sent among the nations of the world will be accomplished.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

On June 19th the Rev. Dr. Post, Chairman of the Committee on the State of the Country, reported a series of resolutions, ascribing thanksgiving to Almighty God for the victory over rebellion and the results of that triumph, giving praise to the army and navy, and expressing sympathy for the friends of the fallen; expressing deep indignation at the assassination of the late President Lincoln, and extending to his successor assurances of sympathy and coöperation; denouncing the rebellion as transcending the enormities of treason recorded in the history of any other country; urging the Government, while blending mercy with justice, to deal with the traitors in such a manner that the greatness of their crime will be forever recognized; regarding the late war as a judgment on slavery, and on the complicity of the nation with it; enjoining just dealing with the freedmen, and favoring, protecting, and fortifying them in their new status *by bestowing upon them the elective franchise and all the rights of citizenship*; speaking of the wide field for religious work opened by the termination of the war; regarding the present time as a crisis demanding the most effectual means of education and evangelization, and the religious faith of the forefathers as the most effective for the work; stating it to be the duty of the churches represented in the Council to diffuse their faith in this new field; offering renewed thanksgiving for the past, and expressing faith in the future support of the Almighty. After some discussion, the resolutions were unanimously adopted.

On June 22d the members and delegates of the Council, with about an equal number of invited guests, made an excursion to Plymouth to visit "Forefathers' Rock." A business session was held on Burial Hill, at which a new Declaration of Faith, embodying the substance of one previously presented to the Council, with some modifications of portions of the same, was adopted. The following is the new Declaration of Faith:

"We, in common with all Christian believers, confess our faith in God, the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost, the only living and true God; in Jesus Christ, the incarnate Word, who is exalted to be our Redeemer and King; and in the Holy Comforter, who is present in the Church to regenerate and sanctify the soul.

"With the whole Church, we confess the common sinfulness and ruin of our race, and acknowledge that it is only through the work accomplished by the life and expiatory death of Christ that we are justified before God, and receive the remission of sins; and that it is through the presence and grace of the Holy Comforter alone that we hope to be delivered from the power of sin and to be perfected in holiness.

"We believe, also, in the organized and visible Church, in the ministry of the Word, in the sacraments of Baptism and the Lord's Supper, in the resurrection of the body, and in the final judgment—the issues of which are eternal life and everlasting punishment.

"We receive these truths on the testimony of God, given originally through prophets and apostles, and in the life, the miracles, the death, the resurrection of his Son, our divine Redeemer. This testimony is preserved for the Church, in the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament, which were composed by holy men as they were moved by the Holy Ghost.

"Affirming now our belief that those who thus hold 'one Lord, one faith, one baptism,' together constitute the one catholic Church, the several households of which, though called by different names, are the one body of Christ; and that these members of His body are sacredly bound to keep 'the unity of the spirit in the bond of peace;' we declare that we will coöperate with all who hold these truths, with them we will carry the Gospel into every part of this land, and with them we will go into all the world, to preach the Gospel to every creature.

"May He, to whom 'all power is given in heaven and earth,' fulfil the promise which is all our hope: 'Lo, I am with you alway, even to the end of the world.' Amen."

On the subject of Congregational policy, the Council adopted, almost unanimously, the following resolutions offered by Prof. Park:

Resolved, That this Council recognizes, as distinctive of the Congregational polity:

1. The principle that the local or Congregational Church derives its power and authority directly from Christ, and is not subjected to any ecclesiastical government, exterior or superior to itself.

2. That every local or Congregational Church is bound to observe the duties of mutual respect and charity, which are included in the communion of churches one with another; and that every church which refuses to give an account of its proceedings, when kindly and orderly desired to do so by neighboring churches, violates the law of Christ.

3. That the ministry of the gospel, by members of the churches who have been duly called and set apart to that work, implies in itself no power of government; and that ministers of the gospel, not elected to office in any church, are not a hierarchy, nor are they invested with any official power in or over the churches.

The report of the committee on raising \$750,000 for the purpose of evangelization (\$300,000 for the American Home Missionary Society, \$250,000 for the American Missionary Association, and \$200,000 for the Congregational Union), was unanimously adopted. The report recommended that the officers of the first two societies use all efforts in their power to increase their receipts to the amount named, and also proposed a simultaneous collection in all the Congregational churches in the land, on the Sabbath (December 17th) preceding next "Forefathers' Day," to secure, if possible, the church-building fund of \$200,000 for the American Congregational Union. The report of the Committee on a Congregational House in Boston, arguing the desirableness of such an edifice as a repository of the library of the Congregational Association, was likewise adopted. The report stated that the Congregational Association had property to the amount of \$10,000,

and also had secured subscriptions of \$20,000 toward the object; \$100,000 was needed in all, and should be raised mainly in New England.

The committee on the "American Protestant Assembly" presented a report regarding "the fearful spread of Papacy, as a civil and ecclesiastical authority, and urging a vigorous defence against the encroachments of Roman Catholicism and infidelity." The report recommended the appointment of a committee of five clergymen and an equal number of laymen, in forming a proposed union of different denominations; and it was adopted.

In accordance with the recommendation of the National Congregational Convention, the Congregational churches took up a collection, December 17th, for the purpose of raising \$200,000 for church extension. The contributions from most of the churches were liberal, though some, even among the largest and wealthiest congregations, postponed the taking of the collection. The contributions reported up to January 11, 1866, amounted to \$89,880.

The first Congregational State Conference in any of the former slave States was organized at Hannibal, Mo., October 27th, under the name of "The General Conference of Missouri." Congregationalism has fifteen churches in Missouri, all of recent origin. The first Congregational Church of Maryland was organized at Baltimore in May, and the first church of Louisiana at New Orleans in December.

According to the English "Congregational Year Book for 1866," the statistics of Congregationalism in Europe and in the British Colonies were in the years 1864 and 1865 as follows:

CHURCHES.	1864	1865
In Great Britain, Ireland, and the islands of the British Seas.....	2,768	2,735
In the American Colonies.....	117	117
In the Australian Colonies.....	124	143
In foreign lands.....	217	287
	3,226	3,282
Free Churches (Independent) in the French Empire.....	106	147
In Belgium.....	20	22
In Switzerland.....	—	60
	126	229
<i>Congregational Ministers.</i>		
In England.....	1,730	1,730
In Wales.....	409	853
In Scotland.....	97	106
In Ireland.....	26	26
In the colonies.....	215	226
In foreign lands.....	176	179
	2,663	2,712

In the London postal district there were, in 1865, 220 churches, 178 pastors, 94 ministers without pastoral charges. The number of students in Cheshunt, Hackney, and New Colleges, was given at 100.

The Congregational Memorial Hall Fund amounted, at the close of the year 1865, to about £50,000.

CONGRESS, CONFEDERATE. (See CONFEDERATE STATES.)

CONGRESS, UNITED STATES. The second session of the thirty-eighth Congress,* commenced on the 5th of December, 1864. The Senate was called to order by the President *pro tem.*, Senator Daniel Clark. The House was at the same time called to order by the Speaker, Mr. Schuyler Colfax.

For the Message of the President to Congress, *see* ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1864, PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

In the House, on Dec. 13th, the joint resolution authorizing the President of the United States to give the requisite notice of one year, for terminating the treaty made by Great Britain in behalf of the British Provinces of North America, was taken up. The consideration of the resolution had been postponed from the previous session.

The motion to lay on the table having failed to pass, the question came up on the passage of the resolution, and it was adopted by the following vote:

YEA—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Ashley, Baily, Au-

* The following is a list of the members of Congress:

SENATE.

California—John Conness, James A. McDougall.
Connecticut—James Dixon, Lafayette B. Foster.
Delaware—Geo. B. Riddle, Willard Saulsbury.
Illinois—William A. Richardson, Lyman Trumbull.
Indiana—Thomas A. Hendricks, Henry S. Lane.
Iowa—James Harlan, James W. Grimes.
Kansas—Samuel C. Pomeroy, James H. Lane.
Kentucky—Garrett Davis, Lazarus W. Powell.
Maine—Lot M. Morrill, Nathan A. Farwell.
Massachusetts—Charles Sumner, Henry Wilson.
Maryland—Reverdy Johnson, Thomas H. Hicks.
Michigan—Zachariah Chandler, Jacob M. Howard.
Minnesota—Alexander Ramsey, Morton S. Wilkinson.
Missouri—John B. Henderson, B. Gratz Brown.
New Hampshire—Daniel Clark, John P. Hale.
New Jersey—William Wright, John O. Ten Eyck.
New York—Edwin D. Morgan, Ira Harra.
Nebraska—James W. Nye, William M. Stewart.
Ohio—Benjamin F. Wade, John Sherman.
Oregon—Benjamin F. Harding, James W. Nesmith.
Pennsylvania—Charles R. Buckalew, Edgar Cowan.
Rhode Island—William Sprague, Henry R. Anthony.
Vermont—Solomon Foot, Jacob Colamer.
Virginia—Lemuel J. Bowden, John S. Carlile.
West Virginia—Peter G. Van Winkle, Waitman T. Willey.
Wisconsin—James R. Doolittle, Timothy O. Howe.

HOUSE.

California—Thomas B. Shannon, William Higby, Cornelius Cole.
Connecticut—Henry C. Deming, James E. English, Augustus Brandegee, John H. Hubbard.
Delaware—Nathaniel B. Smithers.
Illinois—Isaac N. Arnold, John F. Farnsworth, Elihu B. Washburne, Charles M. Harris, Eben C. Ingersoll, Jesse O. Norton, John R. Eden, John T. Stuart, Lewis W. Ross, Anthony L. Knapp, James C. Robinson, William E. Morrison, William J. Allen, James G. Allen.
Indiana—John Law, James A. Cravens, Henry W. Harrington, William S. Holman, George W. Julian, Ebenezer Dumont, Daniel W. Voorhees, Godlove S. Orth, Schuyler Colfax, Joseph K. Edgerton, James F. McDowell.
Iowa—James F. Wilson, Hiram Price, William B. Allison, J. B. Grinnell, John A. Kasson, A. W. Hubbard.
Kansas—A. Carter Wilder.
Kentucky—Lucien Anderson, George H. Yeaman, Henry Grider, Aaron Harding, Robert Mallory, Green Clay Smith, Brutus J. Clay, William H. Randall, William H. Wadsworth.
Maine—Lorenzo D. M. Sweet, Sidney Perham, James G. Blaine, John H. Rice, Frederick A. Pike.
Maryland—John A. J. Creswell, Edwin H. Webster.
Massachusetts—Thomas D. Elliot, Oakes Ames, Alexander H. Rice, Samuel Hooper, John B. Alley, Daniel W. Gooch,

gustus C. Baldwin, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Blaine, Blow, Boutwell, Boyd, Brandegee, Brooks, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Cole, Henry Winter Davis, Dawes, Dixon, Eckley, English, Farnsworth, Ganson, Gooch, Grinnell, Higby, Holman, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Asahel W. Hubbard, John H. Hubbard, Hulburt, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Julian, Kelley, Francis W. Kellogg, Orlando Kellogg, Kernar, Knox, Loan, Marvin, McClurg, Samuel F. Miller, Moorehead, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Amos Myers, Leonard Myers, Norton, Odell, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Patterson, Perham, Pike, Pomeroy, Price, Alexander H. Rice, John H. Rice, Robinson, Edward H. Rollins, Schenck, Scofield, Scott, Shannon, Sloan, Smith, Smithers, Spaulding, Starr, Stevens, Thayer, Thomas, Tracy, Upson, Van Valkenburgh, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, Whaley, Williams, Wilder, Wilson, and Yeaman—85.

Nays—Messrs. Alley, Ancona, Arnold, James S. Brown, Chanler, Cobb, Cox, Thomas T. Davis, Denison, Donnelly, Eden, Edgerton, Eldridge, Eliot, Finck, Frank, Garfield, Harding, Harrington, Herrick, Knapp, Law, Lazear, Littlejohn, Long, Mallory, Marcy, McDowell, McIndoe, McKinney, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Morrison, Noble, John O'Neill, Pendleton, Radford, Samuel J. Randall, James S. Rollins, Ross, John B. Steele, William G. Steele, Stiles, Stuart, Sweet, Townsend, Wads-

George S. Boutwell, John D. Baldwin, William B. Washburn, Henry L. Dawes.

Michigan—Fernando C. Beaman, Charles Upson, John W. Longyear, Francis W. Kellogg, Augustus C. Baldwin, John F. Driggs.

Minnesota—William Windom, Ignatius Donnelly.

Missouri—Henry T. Blow, John G. Scott, Joseph W. McClurg, Samuel H. Boyd, Austin A. King, Benjamin F. Loan, William A. Hall, James S. Rollins.

Nebraska—Henry G. Worthington.

New Hampshire—Daniel Marcy, Edward H. Rollins, James W. Patterson.

New Jersey—John F. Starr, George Middleton, William G. Steele, Andrew J. Rogers, Nehemiah Perry.

New York—Dwight Townsend, Martin Kalbfleisch, Moses F. Odell, Benjamin Wood, Fernando Wood, Elijah Ward, John W. Chanler, James Brooks, Anson Herrick, William Radford, Charles H. Winfield, Homer A. Nelson, John B. Steele, John V. L. Pruyn, John A. Griswold, Orlando Kellogg, Calvin T. Halburd, James M. Marvin, Samuel F. Miller, Ambrose W. Clark, Francis Kernan, De Witt C. Littlejohn, Thomas T. Davis, Theodore M. Pomeroy, Daniel Morris, Giles W. Hotchkiss, Robert B. Van Valkenburgh, Freeman Clarke, Augustus Frank, John B. Ganson, Reuben E. Fenton.
Ohio—George H. Pendleton, Alexander Long, Robert C. Schenck, J. F. McKinney, Frank C. LeBlond, Clinton A. White, Samuel S. Cox, William Johnson, Warren P. Noble, James M. Ashley, Wells A. Hutchins, William E. Finck, John O'Neill, George Bliss, James R. Morris, Joseph W. White, Ephraim R. Eckley, Rufus P. Spaulding, James A. Garfield.

Oregon—John R. McBride.

Pennsylvania—Samuel J. Randall, Charles O'Neill, Leonard Myers, William D. Kelley, M. Russell Thayer, John D. Stiles, John M. Broomall, Sydenham E. Ancona, Thaddeus Stevens, Myer Srouss, Philip Johnson, Charles Denison, Henry M. Tracy, William H. Miller, Joseph Baily, Alexander H. Comroth, Archibald McAllister, James T. Hale, Glenn W. Scofield, Amos Myers, John L. Dawson, James K. Moorehead, Thomas Williams, Jesse Lazear.

Rhode Island—Thomas A. Jenckes, Nathan F. Dixon.

Vermont—Frederick E. Woodbridge, Justin S. Morrill, Portus Baxter.

Virginia—Joseph E. Segar, Lucius H. Chandler, Benjamin M. Kitchen.

West Virginia—Jacob B. Blair, William G. Brown, Killian V. Whaley.

Wisconsin—James S. Brown, Ithamar C. Sloan, Amasa Cobb, Charles A. Eldridge, Ezra Wheeler, Walter D. McIndoe.

Delegates from Territories.

Arizona—Charles D. Poston.
Colorado—Hiram P. Bennett.
Dakota—William Jayne.
Idaho—John M. Cannaday.
New Mexico—Francisco Perea.
Utah—John F. Kinney.
Washington—George E. Cola.

worth, Ward, Wheeler, Windom, and Benjamin Wood—57.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. James C. Allen, William J. Allen, Anderson, Blair, Bliss, William G. Brown, Freeman Clarke, Clay, Coffroth, Cravens, Creswell, Dawson, Deming, Driggs, Dumont, Fenton, Grider, Griswold, Hale, Hall, Benjamin G. Harris, Charles M. Harris, Hutchins, Philip Johnson, William Johnson, Kalbfleisch, Kasson, King, LeBlond, Longyear, McAllister, McBride, Middleton, Nelson, Perry, Pruyn, William H. Randall, Rogers, Strouse, Voorhees, Webster, Chilton A. White, Joseph W. White, Winfield, Fernando Wood, and Woodbridge—40.

In the Senate, on December 14th, Mr. Chandler, of Michigan, offered the following resolution, which was referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs:

Whereas, at the commencement of the present rebellion the United States were at peace with the Governments of the world, and upon terms of comity and good will with Great Britain; and whereas that nation, before the arrival on her soil of our minister accredited by the administration of President Lincoln, precipitately acknowledged the rebels as belligerents, thus recognizing their flag upon the ocean, without which recognition it would have been regarded and treated as piratical by all other powers; and whereas she then proclaimed perfect neutrality between a republic with which she had entertained friendly relations for upward of half a century, and its treasonable subjects; and whereas numbers of her subjects, with the knowledge of her Government, commenced fitting out British fast-sailing ships, loaded with munitions of war, for the purpose of running into our blockaded ports to the rebels, thus furnishing them the means of organizing and continuing the rebellion, and without which it could not have sustained itself six months; and whereas, in addition to the above, and with the knowledge of the Government, British subjects and members of Parliament engaged in the manufacture of piratical English ships, owned by British subjects, manned by British seamen, and sailing under British colors, for the purpose of burning, destroying, and utterly driving from the ocean all peaceful merchant vessels sailing under the United States flag; and whereas many private and unarmed American ships have been burned and destroyed by these pirates from British ports, thus causing great loss and damage to the citizens of the United States:

Therefore,
Resolved, That the Secretary of State be instructed immediately to make out a list of each ship and cargo thus destroyed, with a fair and separate valuation thereof, and the interest thereon at the rate of six per cent. per annum from the date of capture or destruction to the date of presentation, and that he be directed to demand from the British Government payment in full for all ships and cargoes destroyed as aforesaid.

In the House, on December 15th, Mr. Davis, of Maryland, from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, reported the following resolution, and demanded the previous question on its adoption:

Resolved, That Congress has a constitutional right to an authoritative voice in declaring and prescribing the foreign policy of the United States, as well in the recognition of new powers as in other matters; and it is the constitutional duty of the President to respect that policy not less in diplomatic negotiations than in the use of the national force when authorized by law; and the propriety of any declaration of foreign policy by Congress is sufficiently proved by the vote which pronounces it; and such proposition while pending and undetermined is not a fit topic of diplomatic explanation with any foreign power.

It was laid on the table, by a vote of yeas 69; nays 63.

On the 19th the resolution was again considered. It was divided at the words "authorized by law," and the first division agreed to—yeas 118; nays 8: the latter part was agreed to—yeas 68; nays 58.

In the House, on January 6th, Mr. Ashley, of Ohio, moved to reconsider the vote by which the joint resolution proposing an amendment to the Federal Constitution, in reference to slavery, was rejected. He said:

"Mr. Speaker, if slavery is wrong and criminal, as the great body of enlightened and Christian men admit, it is certainly our duty to abolish it, if we have the power. Have we the power? The fifth article of the Constitution of the United States reads as follows:

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year 1808 shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

"The question which first presents itself in examining this provision of the Constitution is, what constitutes two-thirds of both Houses? or, what, in the eye of the Constitution, is two-thirds of the House of Representatives? Is it two-thirds of the entire number of members to which all the States, including the States in rebellion, would be entitled, if they were all now represented, or is it two-thirds of the members who have been elected and qualified?

"This question would have entered largely into the discussion of the subject now under consideration had not your predecessor, Mr. Speaker, decided, and this House sustained him in declaring, that a majority of the members elected and recognized by the House made a constitutional quorum.

"It has, so far as the action of this body can dispose of the question, been authoritatively settled, and settled as I think it should have been, by declaring that a majority of the members elected and qualified constitutes a quorum, and that two-thirds of a quorum can constitutionally pass this amendment. The question having been thus disposed of, I do not care to make an argument in support of a proposition thus authoritatively settled.

"My colleague from the first district (Mr. PENDLETON), in a speech which he made at the last session against the passage of this amendment, raised the question as to the constitutional power of Congress to propose, and three-fourths of the Legislatures of the States to adopt, an

amendment of the character of the one now under consideration. He claimed that, though Congress passed the proposed amendment by the requisite two-thirds, and three-fourths of the Legislatures of the several States adopted it, or, indeed, all the States save one, it would not legally become a part of the national Constitution. These are his words:

But neither three-fourths of the States, nor all the States save one, can abolish slavery in that dissenting State, because it lies within the domain reserved entirely to each State for itself, and upon it the other States cannot enter.

"Is this position defensible? If I read the Constitution aright and understand the force of language, the section which I have just quoted is to-day free from all limitations and conditions save two, one of which provides that the suffrage of the several States in the Senate shall be equal, and that no State shall lose this equality by any amendment of the Constitution without its consent; the other relates to taxation. These are the only conditions and limitations.

"In my judgment, Congress may propose, and three-fourths of the States may adopt, any amendment, republican in its character and consistent with the continued existence of the nation, save in the two particulars just named.

"If they cannot, then is the clause of the Constitution just quoted a dead letter; the States sovereign, the Government a confederation, and the United States not a nation."

"Mr. Speaker, there is not a single section or clause in the national Constitution which clothes the political organizations which we call States with any of the attributes of a sovereign power, but, on the other hand, prohibits in positive and unmistakable language any State from doing any act which a sovereign might do without the consent of Congress.

"The supreme power of the national Government is rigorously maintained throughout the Constitution, and it is most emphatically ordained in article six, clause two, of the Constitution, as follows:

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

"Section eight, article one, enumerates seventeen distinct sovereign powers of a national character conferred on Congress by the Constitution, and, as if to leave no doubt on the minds of any, this extraordinary enumeration of powers is followed by this sweeping and significant provision:

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

"If I understand this provision correctly, it

means that the framers of the Constitution intended that the national Government should be intrusted with the interpretation of the Constitution, not only as to the construction of the powers delegated by it to Congress, but to all departments of the national Government. They never intended that any State, or any number of States, nor the officials of State governments, should be competent in any capacity to judge of the infractions of the national Constitution by any department of the national Government, nor of the propriety of any law passed by Congress. Any citizen has the undoubted right to express his opinions, and criticise the action of the general Government or of any department thereof; but neither is a State nor are the officials of a State clothed with any authority to decide as to the constitutionality of any law passed by Congress, nor as to the propriety of any act done by any department of the national Government.

"It is past comprehension how any man, with the Constitution before him, and the history of the convention which formed that Constitution within his reach, together with the repeated decisions of the Supreme Court against the assumption of the State rights pretensions, can be found at this late day defending the State sovereignty dogmas, and claiming that the national constitution cannot be so amended as to prohibit slavery, even though all the States of the Union save one give it their approval.

"That provision of the national Constitution which imposes upon Congress the duty of guaranteeing to the several States of the Union a republican form of government, is one which impresses me as forcibly as any other with the idea of the utter indefensibility of the State sovereignty dogmas, and of the supreme power intended by the framers of the Constitution to be lodged in the national Government."

Mr. Orth, of Indiana, followed, saying:

"The bill now under consideration proposes to submit the following amendment of the Constitution to the several States for adoption or rejection, according to the terms prescribed by that instrument, and if ratified by the votes of three-fourths of the States will then become a part of our fundamental law:

ART. XIII., Sec. 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Sec. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

"The effect of such amendment will be to prohibit slavery in these United States, and be a practical application of that self-evident truth, 'that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.'

"This bill originated in the Senate during the last session of Congress, in obedience to what was believed to be the general sentiment of the

American people, and passed by the necessary vote of two-thirds of the members of that body. It was then sent to this House for concurrence, and after considerable discussion, was defeated by a vote of 95 in the affirmative and 66 in the negative (twenty-one members not voting), being twelve votes less than necessary to make the two-thirds vote required by the Constitution. The question now before us arises upon a motion to reconsider such vote, action upon which was continued from the last to the present session of Congress.

"Congress cannot amend the Constitution, and hence, if this bill should pass, the question will then simply be referred to the people of the several States for their action. In other words, we, by our action here, simply authorize the people to determine for themselves whether they will ratify or reject the proposed amendment. To me it seems that on such a proposition there should not be a dissenting voice. Whatever questions may otherwise divide us, we all assent to the proposition that our people are capable of self-government, and have the right to alter their laws, fundamental as well as statutory."

Mr. Scofield, of Pennsylvania, in support of the measure, said:

"If the war should end now without a division of the Union, what would be the status of slavery? It has been abolished in Maryland by the new constitution; but it is said that the soldiers had no right to vote, and without their votes the constitution was not adopted. West Virginia has provided for gradual emancipation, but that State, it is alleged, has no legal existence, and therefore its action is null and void. In the State of Virginia a new constitution prohibiting slavery has been adopted by the loyal people within the Union lines; but the constitutionality of this action has been much questioned, even by anti-slavery men. Missouri has partially abolished slavery, and the convention, soon to assemble there, it is supposed, will dispose of what is left. In Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana, slavery has been prohibited by conventions representing the Union people of those States; but it is said that these conventions were irregularly called, and their action is therefore void. In Kentucky, such slaves as enter the United States Army are freed by act of Congress; but it is alleged that the act is unconstitutional. Congress has abolished slavery in the District of Columbia, and prohibited it in all the Territories; but it is said the first act is void, without the assent of Maryland and Virginia, and the latter is in conflict with the dictum of the Supreme Court in the case of *Dred Scott*. In all the remainder of the States the slaves were liberated by the President's proclamation; but that instrument, it is said, is too just to be legal. Under these several enactments, however, the slaves, without waiting to test their validity, are leaving their old masters, forming new associations, seeking education, earning new homes, learning self-reliance, and

thus erecting barriers to the revival of slavery stronger than legislation itself.

"It is apparent from this statement that if the confederacy should suddenly collapse, liberating our Union fellow-citizens that are believed to exist in large numbers within its picket lines, we would still leave the slavery question, out of which the whole trouble grew, to be settled and disposed of. It ought to be equally apparent to all observing persons that there is but one way to end the strife. Slavery in the end must die. It has cost the country too much suffering and too much patriotic blood, and is in theory an institution too monstrous, to be permitted to live. The only question is, shall it die now, by a constitutional amendment—a single stroke of the axe—or shall it linger in party warfare through a quarter or half a century of acrimonious debate, patchwork legislation, and conflicting adjudication? The people were consulted upon this question last fall, and they have responded in favor of emancipation. I respect their opinion, not because I am a politician, but because experience has taught me to rely upon the judgment of the unambitious classes. I am reminded that there was a large minority. True, but the suffering consequent upon this terrible war, and not love of slavery, made the minority so large. The people suffered from the draft, from taxation, and from a depreciated currency, and untruthful men told them that their own Government imposed these hardships, not from the necessities created by the rebellion, but from mere love of despotic cruelty. Consult your Democratic constituency and you will find they are not so much infatuated with slavery as many suppose. I think I would not misrepresent the largest portion of the Democrats in my own district if I say that however much they may have condemned anti-slavery agitation prior to the rebellion, they would now be glad to have the institution buried out of their sight forever. Two classes alone would object: those who are so poorly endowed as to be jealous of negro competition; and those who, being more happily born, apprehend that their pride and importance might in some way be compromised if the distance between themselves and any portion of the laboring classes were lessened.

"The President, in obedience to the advice of the people and the dictates of his own kind heart, and unimpassioned judgment, has recommended that we should submit this amendment to the action of the States. Why should it not be done?"

Mr. Bliss, of Ohio, followed in opposition to the measure, saying: "Upon what reasoning and recognition of facts does any member of this Congress claim the possible power, under the fifth article of the Constitution, to take the initiatory steps to the change proposed? Are the States whose people, in part, are in rebellion against the General Government, out of the Union in theory and in fact? Are they foreign powers, and their inhabitants foreign people, not subject to the Constitution and laws of the United States?"

If so, why do we raise and send mighty hosts to enforce, by the sword, the bayonet, and the cannon, obedience and subjugation to that Constitution and to those laws? If the people of the so-called seceded States are not citizens in the Union, why are our courts engaged, under an act of Congress, in confiscating their estates for acts of treason against their Government? Treason implies citizenship; it cannot be committed by an alien or an enemy. If those States are not out of the Union in theory of law, and if their people owe the allegiance to the Government of the United States which is claimed of them, then clearly those States are among the number of States three-fourths of whom must unite their voices upon any proposition to amend their Constitution.

"That they are not so legally in the Union, and so to be regarded as States with a controlling portion of their people in rebellion, is a new and recently assumed proposition, and at war with every executive manifesto, proclamation, and declaration from the first act of secession till now. From the commencement of what every one has called rebellion the people of the Federal States, of all parties, and without distinction, have agreed upon the common idea and doctrine that ordinances of secession are null and void; that the sovereignty of the Constitution was unalterably fixed upon all the people of the realm, and on that faith, and that only, the Union-loving patriotism of the country has responded to all calls made by the military administration, and allowed the blood of the nation to be freely poured out and expended, and a grievous national debt to be incurred. Are we now to see the predominating party, holding these great issues in its hands, change front upon this vital question? If so, then manifestly, with the policy of the nation in their hands, there is no hope of a restoration of the Union. A change in our public councils must occur, or we shall be stripped of the birth-right which we most valued.

"But were the proposed action practicable in a legal point of view, I should shrink from the policy as putting us upon untenable ground, and making us to assume the character of aggressors while we profess to be fighting against and punishing aggression—we, who ought in this terrible business to have no stain upon our hands. Undoubtedly the rebellion is a great wrong; but it would certainly be meeting wrong with wrong to deny them their original constitutional rights in the Union when they shall have returned to it. Whoever wishes for their return should openly condemn all such policy. Whatever moral question may be involved in the subject of negro slavery in any State of the original Confederacy, is a question for determination and settlement only by the people of such State. To abandon or maintain the institution according to the sense, will, and policy of the people of such local sovereignty, was an undisputed right before and at the time of their entering into the Federal Union; and the great

compact of confederation, the Constitution of the United States, gave them no new right in that respect, but only guaranteed to them the undisturbed enjoyment of a preëxisting right, with such full recognition of the same throughout the country as should enable them safely to assert their right of property in the labor of slaves, even in the recapture of fugitives from their service in any State. By the amendment it is proposed to crush out a sovereign right and power which never was placed within the jurisdiction of any authority except the local sovereignty by whose laws it exists. Such is the main principle of the Government framed by Washington and his compeers. It cannot now be changed except by revolution.

"The success of this proposition would dash the cup of hope from the lips of a majority of the people of all the adhering States. It is the desire of a great majority of our people to reconstruct the Union upon its old basis. Upon that basis compromise can be made and the war honorably closed; but upon no other or more restricted plan can it be done. Subjugation of the South, and away over it, can be accomplished only by standing armies. We cannot dictate in any other way the abandonment of their constitutional and reserved rights. Can we afford the blood, the expense, the general suffering, the lack of all substantial success, which must attend upon such policy?"

Mr. Rogers, of New Jersey, on the same side, said: "If the position in reference to the amendment of the Constitution taken by gentlemen on the other side of the House be true, then the other relations of the States, the marital rights, the rights of husband and wife, of parent and child, of master and servants, the right of licensing hotels, the right of making private contracts, the rights of courts, the manner in which they shall obtain evidence, the allowance of parties to be witnesses, the jurisdiction and powers of State courts, the rights of suffrage for State officers, constitutions of States, and all the rights which now belong to the States, upon the same principle may be interfered with, abolished, and annulled. Those rights, like those connected with the institution of slavery, belong solely and exclusively to the jurisdiction of the States, and were never delegated to the General Government. Does any man here believe that Congress, by a constitutional amendment, can so far alter the organic law of the land as to interfere with marital relations in the States; interfere with the manner in which evidence shall be given; take away the constitutional provision that a man shall enjoy property by descent in certain ways defined by the organic law of a State, and blot all State laws out of existence? I ask, do gentlemen here believe that by constitutional amendment the General Government would have a right to do away with all those express and reserved rights of the States, and which were never delegated to that General Government, and never constituted a part of the jurisdiction

of the Congress of the United States or of the people, except that the people of each State could act and legislate upon those individual concerns according to their own judgment exclusively and the dictates of their own consciences?

"You must remember that it is proposed by this amendment that the States in which slavery exists shall have no vote, because they are not in a position to exercise the right to vote upon this question. But it is proposed that three-fourths of the States—States wherein slavery does not exist; States which have no interest in that species of property—shall get together, and by the action of three-fourths of them deprive of their property the citizens of the loyal border States; the men who have braved this current of war, and shown the proudest and purest patriotism of any class of men on the face of the earth; the men who have invested their money in slave property; the men whose fathers fought side by side with the men of New York and New Jersey on the battle-fields of the country, to drive back the invaders of England. Shall it be said that under a republican Government, in a country supposed to be one of liberty, that we can trample on the rights of those men by taking their property without any compensation whatever, and robbing them of that which by the Constitution of the country is guaranteed to them, and which by the blood of their fathers who fought against the wickedness and tyranny of England was handed down to them to be perpetuated to them and their children and children's children unimpaired forever?"

Mr. Pruyn, of New York, said: "When this subject came up at the last session, I stated my views somewhat at length in regard to it. My position then was substantially that under the power to amend the Constitution we could not interfere with or take away the reserved rights of the States. I do not now propose to discuss the subject of slavery in any way; I did not then. I look upon the question before us simply as one of power, and it is immaterial in this view whether it relates to slavery, to the marital relation, to the laws of descent, or to any other of the subjects over which the State governments have entire control. I then remarked that if gentlemen would look at the debates of the State conventions which passed upon the adoption of the Constitution of the United States, they would clearly see that that instrument would never have been ratified had it been supposed by the States that under the power to amend, their reserved rights might one by one be swept away. This is the first time in our history in which an attempt of this kind has been made; and should it be successful it will, in my judgment, be an alarming invasion of the principles of the Constitution.

"I have only to say in addition, that further investigation has confirmed the views I before expressed, and I cannot therefore vote in favor of this proposition, believing the subject to be one not legitimately within our jurisdiction.

If it be asked what then can be done, I answer: leave the matter with the States, where it belongs, or obtain a supplementary article to the Constitution, not as an amendment, but as the grant of a new power based on the consent of all the States, as the Constitution itself is."

Mr. Davis, of New York, replied: "What powers, sir, were in the purview of those who framed the Constitution and of those by whose votes it was adopted? If gentlemen will rise from the narrow and restricted interpretation of the text to the magnificence of the exordium by which our fathers in that Constitution announced the formation of a republican Government founded on the principles of equality and justice, they will find that the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to themselves and their posterity, ordained and established our Constitution and the Government of the Union. These were the great and cardinal purposes for which the Government was framed. Liberty, that civil and religious liberty which was so clearly and beautifully defined in the Declaration of Independence, and which, in the language of that declaration, had been proclaimed to the world as the inalienable inheritance of every man, gave vitality to the Constitution and the Government which by it was called into life. The unfortunate restriction which then existed in our land upon universal freedom, in the form of African slavery, was regarded as temporary in its character, and as tolerable only by reason of the exigencies of the hour. Our fathers predicted that the time would soon come when the interests of the country would demand that slavery should pass away. Jefferson predicted it, Washington prayed for it, and all the great men of that great age believed that the stain of African slavery would soon cease from the land."

Mr. Odell, of New York, supported the same views, saying: "That slavery is dead is an admitted truth. So said my friend and colleague at the last session of Congress. Others upon both sides of this Chamber have admitted the same fact; and the press of the land has been reiterating the same statement since the rebellion began.

"It is an accepted truth, both North and South, that the peculiar institution is gone, with or without restoration.

"Now I am in favor of giving it a constitutional burial; not by the irregularity of a proclamation by the President, of doubtful constitutionality even in his own mind, as he has frequently admitted, and which was conceded by the late Baltimore convention that renominated Mr. Lincoln, when they proposed this amendment to the Constitution as one of the planks of their platform, which was accepted by him in his letter of acceptance of their nomination. He and they both have thus expressed doubts as to the proclamation. And hence we have

this more legal way of disposing of the evil before us.

"Again, it cannot be put out of the way by the uncertain and irregular Army orders of our generals in the field in command of our armies. They all deal with slavery in harmony with their own peculiar views.

"The Constitution gives to the two Houses of Congress the only legal and certain authority, the only constitutional method of ending and putting away forever an institution that has only brought us trouble and discord at home, and reproach and dishonor abroad.

"Let the evil now be removed in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution. Then it will be done effectually, legally, and in a manner to command the respect of the nation, of the men that are directly interested, and also of the civilization of the world.

"I am aware that able men upon this floor have objected to this action, they claiming that the provisions of the fifth article of the Constitution do not admit of this construction. In my mind I find no difficulty. The power referred to I am satisfied is ample.

"Story on the Constitution, volume three, page 688, says :

A Government which, in its own organization, provides no means of change, but assumes to be fixed and unalterable, must, after awhile, become wholly unsuited to the circumstances of the nation; and it will degenerate into a despotism, or, by the pressure of its inequalities, bring on a revolution. It is wise, therefore, in every Government, and especially in a republic, to provide means for altering and improving the fabric of government as time and experience, or the new phases of human affairs, may render proper, to promote the happiness and safety of the people. The great principle to be sought is to make the changes practicable, but not too easy; to secure due deliberation and caution; and to follow experience rather than to open a way for experiments suggested by mere speculation or theory.

"If I were in doubt upon the subject, I have only to refer back a short period in our national history, and there see the record of my own party upon this question of amendment, and upon the subject of slavery, and in the light of this record and history my way is plain."

Mr. Mallory, of Kentucky, in opposition, replied: "I hold that this is an improper time to amend the fundamental law of the country. Such an act should not be consummated amid the fiery passions and vehement hates engendered by civil war. It should be the work of calmness and of peace. It is to last for all time. There is an idea of perpetuity attached to constitutions and constitutional amendments which does not belong to ordinary acts of legislation. They should therefore be the work of unclouded wisdom, and not spring from the wrath and smoke of the battle-field. If we have spent a large portion of our time here since the war commenced in repealing or revising or amending our hasty and crude legislation, it should admonish us to refrain from laying a rude and innovating hand on the Con-

stitution itself. When the sky shall again be clear over our heads, a peaceful sun illuminating the land, and our great household of States all at home in harmony once more, then will be the time to consider what changes, if any, this generation desires to make on the work of Washington, Madison, and the revered sages of our antiquity.

"I hold also that it is an act of bad faith on the part of those in power to seize this time of patriotic sacrifice on the part of all to carry out and culminate a favorite partisan scheme against which nearly two million voters protested at the late election. But this conduct has grown familiar to us all, and I barely make the suggestion, as worthy of consideration in connection with the whole political career which this war has been made to pursue under the dictation of an unhealthy fanaticism.

"But I hold, finally, that the Constitution does not authorize an amendment to be made by which any State or citizen shall be divested of acquired rights of property or of established political franchises. The construction which our fathers gave to the Constitution, and to which we have all hitherto adhered, guaranteed to the slaveholding States the right of property in slaves. This proposition is too well settled for discussion. It needs only to be stated. It is true that the provision of the Constitution which authorizes its amendment is very broad, and contains but one express limitation. But it is always implied as a limitation of power that a well-settled principle of public law shall not be violated. To majorities are intrusted great and diversified powers, but among them, however great and numerous, is never granted the power to rob a minority of its vested rights. This amendment, in my judgment, proposes to commit this wrong in regard to every slave State on which it can ever be brought to operate. I deny the power. If it can be exercised on the subject of slavery, it can on all others. If the rights of a State and of its citizens on this subject can be destroyed, all other rights may perish by similar usurpations of power. A minority would thus be left no resource save that of revolution. I cannot give my sanction to a measure fraught with the entire overthrow of the wholesome doctrine that States have certain reserved sovereign rights which no external power can take away."

Mr. Pendleton, of Ohio, thus explained his views: 'I have endeavored to maintain that the right of amendment granted by this Constitution is limited in two ways: First, by the letter of the Constitution itself; and next, by the spirit and intent and scope of that instrument, and by the idea which underlies it all as a foundation.

"My colleague, who sits behind me (Mr. Cox), and my colleague from the Toledo district (Mr. Ashley), admit that the power of amendment is limited by the letter of the Constitution itself; but they assert that it is limited

by that rule and no other. This is the answer made to my argument on this special amendment. It avoids the objections I took to it, and asserts in reply the unlimited power. I shall not repeat those objections. I beg gentlemen to remember that this is not a question of revolution or of physical force; it is not a question of abstract right or of natural justice, but of power delegated by the written text of the Constitution itself. From the times of the ancient prophets he was an honorable and upright man who stood by his word, though it led to his own injury.

"Now I desire to ask gentlemen whether it is true that the power of change in that Constitution is limited only by its written language? There are but three points in which that Constitution, by its letter, could not be changed. The first was the right of importation of slaves before 1808; the second was the rule of taxation, and the third was the equality of representation in the Senate. The prohibition of change in one article was necessarily limited by the article itself to the year 1808. My colleague from the Toledo district, in the speech which he made the other day, told us with reference to this point:

If I read the Constitution aright, and understand the force of language, the section which I have just quoted is to-day free from all limitations and conditions save two, one of which provides that the suffrage of the several States in the Senate shall be equal, and that no State shall lose this equality by any amendment of the Constitution without its consent; the other relates to taxation. These are the only conditions and limitations.

"I deny it. I assert that there is another limitation stronger even than the letter of the Constitution; and that is to be found in its intent and its spirit and its foundation idea. I put the question which has been put before in this debate, Can three-fourths of the States constitutionally change this Government, and make it an autocracy? It is not prohibited by the letter of the Constitution. It is not forbidden. It does not come within the two classes of limitations and conditions asserted by my colleague. Why is it that this change cannot be made? I will tell you why. It is because republicanism lies at the very foundation of our system of government, and to overthrow that idea is not to amend but to subvert the Constitution of the United States; and I say that if three-fourths of the States should undertake to pass an amendment of that kind, and Rhode Island alone dissented, she would have the right to resist by force. It would be her duty to resist by force; and her cause would be sacred in the eyes of just men, and sanctified in the eyes of a just God. Let me go a little further. Can three-fourths of the States make an amendment to the Constitution of the United States which shall prohibit the State of Ohio from having two houses in its Legislative Assembly? My colleague would not agree to that. Why not? It is not prohibited in the Constitution. The letter of the Constitution is

not against it. It is an amendment which may be republican in form; it contravenes no tenet of republicanism that a Legislature shall be of one house only. Why could it not be done? Because the equality of the States lies at the very foundation of our system, and also because the control of the States over their internal affairs is equally at its foundation. And I know my colleague too well to suppose that he would not join with me in saying that such a usurpation of power on the part of three-fourths of the States would justify our own State in drawing the sword.

"Sir, can three-fourths of the States provide an amendment to the Constitution by which one-fourth should bear all the taxes of this Government? It is not prohibited. To be sure there is a rule in the Constitution that taxation shall be uniform, but that provision, according to the theory of my friend from Ohio, is revocable and changeable as the rest. The gentleman knows that that amendment would not be within the scope of the power granted to three-fourths of the States, and that it would justify resistance.

"Can three-fourths of the States, by an amendment to this Constitution, subvert the State governments of one-fourth and divide their territory amongst the rest? It is not forbidden; I read no prohibition in the language of the Constitution, and yet my colleague would not contend that could be done. He would justify resistance.

"Can three-fourths of the States so amend the Constitution of the States as to make the Northern States of this Union slaveholding States? I know that the majority of this House would repudiate that doctrine. I would repudiate it myself. Believing, as I do, that the Federal Government can no more make a slave than it can make a king, I, for one, would be ready to resist it to the last extremity.

"I have been endeavoring to show that the limitations in the letter of the Constitution were not the only limitations upon the power of amendment. And I have done it for the purpose of leading gentlemen of this House to a conclusion I am prepared to take. I have shown that you cannot, under the power of amendment, contravene the letter and spirit of the Constitution; that you cannot subvert republicanism; that you cannot destroy the liberties of the States; that you cannot decide the status of the citizens of the States. I would lead them to the conclusion that there is no power on the part of the Federal Government—on the part of three-quarters of the States, I intended to say—to adopt the amendment that is now proposed; and that if you do it, if you attempt to impose that amendment upon the dissenting States by force, it will be their right to resist you by force, and to call to their aid all the powers which God and Nature have given them to make that force effective."

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, said: "If the amendment should be adopted by three-fourths

of the States, while the other fourth refuse to ratify it, do the non-agreeing States go out of the Union or remain in it?"

Mr. Pendleton replied: "If the amendment be without the scope of the power granted, legally, they remain in the Union, and the other States go out."

"Nobody pretends that the States are clothed with the powers of sovereignty by the Federal Constitution. Nor does that instrument necessarily strip them of the sovereign rights which they had before the Constitution was made. The States have sovereign powers to-day except so far as that Constitution, by their voluntary act of adoption, has taken those powers from them. They do not derive power from the Federal Government. It inheres in them, and I would like to inquire of my colleague from the Toledo district (Mr. Ashley), if he denies the sovereignty in the States because they have agreed to suspend, or, if you please, to delegate certain powers of sovereignty which would otherwise belong to them, upon what basis can he pretend there is sovereignty in the Federal Government, which has not now and never had any authority except that which is expressly delegated to it by these States themselves?"

"But, Mr. Speaker, the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Ashley) is led by his anxiety to pass this amendment into the declaration of another doctrine, which, although not entirely novel, is somewhat new upon this floor. He holds to the doctrine that ordinances of secession destroy State governments, but do not affect the relations of the States, that is, of the territory and the people to the Federal Government. He holds that an act of secession is an abdication by the people of their rights, but not a release from their duties; that it destroys, not the tie which binds them to the Union, but their form of Government, leaving them subject to the jurisdiction of the Federal Government and its absolute sovereignty with all the rights of local government, and he deduces from this the conclusion that the seceding States have no voice on this amendment, but are absolutely bound by it. That doctrine was promulgated by a senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Sumner), nearly three years ago, in a series of resolutions presented to the Senate, and my colleague will remember that they met with no more indignant response than from the honorable, able, learned, and patriotic gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Thomas), who then had a seat upon the floor of this House."

Mr. Cox, of Ohio, followed, expressing his belief in the power to adopt the amendment. He said: "While in a state of war, and with nearly half the States in default and absent, I may deny the wisdom of acting either by the one mode or the other, pointed out for the amendment of the Constitution in this particular—I will not deny a power so essential to peace, safety, and sovereignty. No ingenious refinement or dazzling eloquence shall lead me to deny a power which may yet prove our sal-

vation, when wisely used. Who upon this side asks me to shut the door in the face of such a saving power? Let him remember that while the power may now threaten to destroy, the power to save is forever bound up with it. The power that can create, the same can destroy. Under the ribs of death at the last moment this power may be invoked to create the heart and soul of union, and that, too, by the array of States in their sovereign capacity, as modified by their granted powers."

"Do you tell me that such sovereignty can only guarantee, but cannot destroy property, either in man or beast, in land or house? If a convention of States can take jurisdiction to protect property, they can to destroy. It is admitted that the States individually can do this. If by the Constitution they as States, all consenting to it, have provided a mode of doing it, what matters it whether it is done by them in their individual capacity or in their conventional capacity? Whenever two-thirds agree to propose amendments, and three-fourths shall ratify, either by convention or legislature, the proposition is 'a part of this Constitution.' It is the States that do this in the first instance, all according in making the amending clause; again by their convention in proposing; and again by ratifying. Therefore I join my colleague in singing hosanna to that principle of our Government just denounced by the gentleman from Kentucky (Mr. Smith), as so nefarious—the sovereignty of the States. I see here not one monster iron crown, like that of Lombardy, compelling, as from an omnipotent sceptre, the subject States, but each of the States making for themselves a fundamental law or organic compact."

"This power of unlimited amendment is an element of democracy. It has been the characteristic of our democratic institutions that our ancestry, however prudent and wise, did not tie the hands of the children nor shackle their liberties by laws so irrevocable that no mode of change was allowed. In our State constitutions this power of amendment has been and is being exercised almost every decade. Why? On the principle of Jeremy Bentham (Benthamiana, page 220), that at each point of time the sovereign for the time possesses such means as the nature of the case affords for making himself acquainted with the exigencies of his own time. With reference to the future he has no such means. He thus argues against the transfer of the Government from those who possess the best means to those who possess the least means of information. Shall the past century rule the present? No, not unless they are better informed or feel more interest in the future generation than in their own. Why should we of the nineteenth century tie up the hands of the twentieth? Why should the dead forever rule the living? Is a tyranny inexorable because it is established in the past? Is a law immutable because made by the fathers? If the law be despotic, who then

shall reverse it? From these general principles he deduces the reason why I choose to argue this amendment rather upon its unwisdom than upon the lack of power to make it. 'It is only,' he says, 'when the law is mischievous, that an argument of this stamp will be employed to support it. Suppose a law a good one, it will be supported, not by absurdity and deception, but from its own excellency. A declaration that this or that law is immutable, so far from being a proper argument to enforce its permanency, is rather a presumption that such a law has some mischievous tendency.'

"Another reason for discussing the question of power is, that it is the most valuable gift from the States to the Federal Government, if it be not an express reservation of power in the States. Perhaps, as both Federal and State Governments take part in the amendment of the Constitution, the power to amend is both a reserved and a delegated power. Whatever it is, it is so valuable that I cannot surrender it. Not now. If ever peace comes, it will be through its exercise upon this very question of slavery. I regard that Government with a constitution which has not the liberty of amendment as lacking the means of its own conservation. Such an amendment is a safety-valve, or governor, upon the engine of State. A State without it is in perpetual danger of violent revolution. Such an amendment is a peaceful, legal, and salutary revolution. It is the beauty of our system of written constitutions that, like machines, with a principle of compensation belonging to them, any irregularity may be corrected without breaking the machine or impairing the movement. Such powers of change save the State from such terrible red-handed revolution as that now upon us. Rufus Choate once described, as if he foresaw it, the present revolution 'as a great sea lifting itself, with darkened sky, and not very imitable thunder; a tempest which overturns and successfully resists the existing public authority, arrests the exercise of supreme power, introduces by force, or by resort to a primary right of nature, a new, paramount authority into the rule of the State.' Had this bloodless and legal revolution by amendment of our Constitution been wisely exercised upon this very subject of slavery, as Crittenden, Douglas, ay, even Toombs and Davis, insisted in 1860, we would not be fulfilling so sadly the magnificent picture which Choate painted of tempestuous and fratricidal strife!

"While, then, I concede the power, do I fear that the amendment may pass and become a law in spite of all the guards thrown around it? I do not fear any open march toward monarchy or despotism. I fear in time of war and the passionate strife it begets that this amendment may radically change the Government; that it may be by force, fraud, by indirection, and by an unfair count of States, be made to change our policy. Because such amendments, interfering in home affairs by the Federal power, tend tow-

ard consolidation, I am against them. My colleague (Mr. Pendleton) himself will admit that an amendment may be made even to the very system of government, legitimate in its operation, which may do this. You can amend the Constitution as to the distribution of its powers so as to place the judiciary and the legislature in the hands of the Executive. Thus you compoene power. When these departments are made one—whether that one be legislative, executive, or judicial—as they may be by amendment, it is Jefferson's definition of tyranny. Who will doubt the power of amendment to do this? And yet who so base as to propose it here, or, if proposed, to ratify it? It is by these delusive moral radical reforms, reaching into home affairs by the Federal power, that I fear most the destruction of our Government. Hence I am jealous of the exercise of the power to amend, and especially in this instance. But if the people of the States even choose to abuse their power to amend and destroy their Government, who can say them nay? If they are foolish enough to call in a king, or connect religion with State, or declare polygamy the corner-stone of public liberty, who shall deny them, provided they follow the mode they themselves have ordained to make the organic law?

Mr. Thayer, of Pennsylvania, in reply, said: "Mr. Speaker, the discussion of the measure now before the House has been of a very extended and exhaustive character, and the arguments which have been made against it are very numerous and very varied. If I were to attempt to sum them up, I should occupy a much longer time than at this stage of the debate I intend to consume. But they may, perhaps, in some general way, be grouped as follows:

"There is, in the first place, the argument of the want of constitutional power, which is a proposition of a very important character.

"There is then the argument *de injuria*, made by the honorable gentleman from Kentucky (Mr. Clay)—the argument which bases itself upon the alleged injustice to private rights of the measure now before the House.

"There is, in the third place, the argument founded upon the alleged inexpediency of the measure.

"There is, in the fourth place, what I might perhaps characterize as the chronological argument—the argument that, although the power is possessed, and although it may not be inexpedient in itself, this is not the proper time for the passage of such an amendment, or the discussion of the question which it involves—an argument which seeks to delay to some indefinite and unappointed time the great issue with which Providence now confronts the country.

"There is again, sir, the want-of-brains argument made by the gentleman from Kentucky (Mr. Mallory). The honorable gentleman will of course not understand me as applying those

words to the argument which he made, and to which I listened with much pleasure. I mean the argument that the men who made this Constitution were so great that none who came after them are fit to lay hands upon it or touch it; that no alterations in the circumstances of man, that no revolutions of Government, that no change in human circumstances, can justify the men of the present generation in attempting to improve in any the slightest particular the work of the great statesmen who framed the Constitution of the United States.

"There is, in the last place, what I may style, without intending any personal disrespect to the gentleman from New York (Mr. Fernando Wood), who made it, the infernal argument. I suppose that he would call it the ethnological argument, but with the sentiments which I hold I cannot dignify it with that high-sounding description. I call it the infernal argument. It was the argument which was boldly advanced by that gentleman, and which he attempted to sustain here, that slavery was the best, the natural condition of the black race, the condition to which it was decreed by Heaven, and that therefore we should not struggle against the natural and just condition to which Heaven in its wise purposes had consigned them:

"Sir, I shall not undertake, in the brief time in which I intend to occupy the attention of the House, to comment upon these various arguments. Time would fail me to do so. I desire to call the attention of the House more particularly to a branch of the first argument to which I have referred in this brief review of the debate on the other side of the House. I desire to say a few words in regard to the argument made yesterday by the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Pendleton), concerning the lack of power to pass the resolution which is now before the House. The words of the fifth article of the Constitution on this subject are very express and clear. It confers upon Congress the right to propose amendments to be adopted by the States or the people of the several States. It confers that power in language too plain to be misunderstood. It is a direct grant of power. But the article that contains that grant excepts from that power three particular subjects; and in relation to those subjects it denies the power. The grant of power contains three exceptions: first, no amendment shall be adopted prohibiting the emigration or importation of slaves prior to the year 1808; second, no direct tax shall be laid except in proportion to the enumeration of the census; and third, no State shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate. Here, sir, you have the whole article of the Constitution. You have in the first place an explicit grant of power, and you have in the second place the specified subjects which are excepted from that grant of power.

"Now, sir, I have no doubt the gentleman from Ohio is a very good lawyer, and is perfectly familiar with the maxim, *expressio unius est exclusio alterius*. I am sure that no lawyer

understands better the operation of that familiar maxim than the gentleman from Ohio. Will the gentleman therefore tell me, with this maxim before his eyes, what the framers of the Constitution meant by putting in it this grant of power, and coupling with it three exceptions from that grant? I ask him if they did not mean by that general grant to give it without limitation except in so far as it is limited by the specified exceptions? Will the gentleman tell me why they enumerated the three subjects which were excepted from the operations of this power? Sir, the position upon the part of those of us who contend for the undoubted existence of the power to adopt this resolution rests upon this immovable base, that the powers which are granted by the Constitution of the United States are plenary, and that they have no limits except in the rescriptions which the Constitution itself contains. I deny the premise upon which the whole argument of the gentleman from Ohio is founded, to wit, that the grant of this power of amendment is a limited power. I contend, on the contrary, that it is an unlimited power in common with all other powers which are expressly granted in the Constitution, except in so far as you find a limitation of them in the Constitution itself.

"The point that I make is that every power granted by the Constitution is complete in itself; may be exerted to its utmost extent, and acknowledges no limitation except that which is written in the Constitution. Now, sir, that announcement of a principle contains nothing new. That is a principle with which the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Pendleton) cannot possibly be unfamiliar, because it has been for years the doctrine, the solemnly adjudged doctrine, of the highest judicial tribunal of this country in expounding the Constitution. It is the doctrine laid down by Chief-Justice Marshall in *Gibbons and Ogden*. It is a doctrine which has never been departed from by that august tribunal from the day on which Marshall and his illustrious associates gave it utterance and authority in the Supreme Court of the United States. If it be said, as was said by the gentleman from Ohio and others, that that embraces an absurdity, that if the power is unlimited, any thing, no matter how much opposed to the moral law, no matter how subversive of civil government, may be tolerated under such a construction of the Constitution, I answer, not, sir, in my own language, but in the language of that illustrious judge to whom I have already referred:

The wisdom and the discretion of Congress, their identity with the people, and the influence which their constituents possess at elections, are in this as in many other instances, as that, for example, of declaring war, the sole restraints on which they [the people] have relied to secure them from its abuse. They are the restraints on which the people must often rely solely in all representative Governments.

"When you ask me, therefore, whether, if the people of the United States were so to amend

the Constitution as to enable them to enslave the white freemen of the North, that would be binding, I answer you by asking you what, in your opinion, would be the effect of a law legalizing the crime of murder, whether, in your opinion, you would be bound to obey such a law, whether you would be bound to obey any law that contravenes the moral law established by the Creator? Sir, there is no sound argument to be founded on the putting of such extreme cases. The people of the United States hold their liberties under their own protection and in their own keeping. If the men they send to the halls of legislation abuse the trust reposed in them, if they enact immoral laws, unjust laws, laws that subvert the very foundations of human society, the remedy is with the people. The people would, in that event, clear these halls of the men who made them, and would send here men who would enact laws in accordance with their welfare, with justice, with morality, and with free and equal government.

"Sir, when the gentleman from Ohio puts an extreme case in order to overthrow the settled principles which I have stated, namely, that wherever you find a grant of power in the Constitution that grant is unlimited, except it be limited by the Constitution itself, he relies (he will allow me to say, with the utmost respect for him) on what can be shown to be a very shallow fallacy. In the first place, there is no danger of the Representatives of the people enacting such laws; and in the second place, if they were to enact such laws they would be whipped from these halls by the people whose liberties and whose rights they had outraged; and the people would send here men who would repeal such laws, and punish those who made them."

Mr. Kalbfleisch, in opposition to the measure, said: "Mr. Speaker, I desire to save the party in power from itself, and I tell its leaders here that they had better never have been born, than live to see the day when their experiments in legislation, of which this amendment is one, may be the chief obstacle in the way of the realization of that most dear to the truly loyal American heart—the restoration of the Union."

"While I have argued, sir, against this measure as if it were in truth an 'amendment' to the Constitution, I regard it as subversive of the entire spirit of that instrument. We have been warned by the 'Father of his country' to discountenance irregular opposition to the Constitution, 'and at the same time to resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles, however specious the pretexts.' One method of assault, he tells us, sir, 'may be to effect in the forms of the Constitution alterations which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be directly overthrown.' These, sir, are words of prophetic warning. Under 'SPECIOUS PRETEXTS' of amending the Constitution, you desire to make it the instrument of depriving men of vested rights, and to leave behind you a precedent which, if followed,

will leave every right, civil or religious, which the minority possesses at the will of the majority. When the Constitution went into operation, there were twelve slave States and but one free State. It was within the power of the twelve slave States to force slavery on Massachusetts, in the same way that you propose to force abolition on the South. Would Massachusetts, think you, have submitted to so gross a perversion of the compact she had just entered into? Did she fight against England for seven years for the right to manage her own affairs only to transfer that right to another authority against which she had no legal safeguard? Sir, Massachusetts might have been left a wilderness, but this right could not have been wrested from her people. Do you propose to force from South Carolina, men of Massachusetts, what you would have yielded yourselves only with your lives?"

The question was then taken on the motion to reconsider the vote by which the House on June 15, 1864, rejected a joint resolution submitting to the Legislatures of the several States a proposition to amend the Constitution, and agreed to. The question then came up on the adoption of the joint resolution, when the two-thirds required by the Constitution voted in favor of it, and it passed as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Alley, Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnold, Ashley, Bailey, Augustus C. Baldwin, John D. Baldwin, Barter, Beaman, Blaine, Blair, Blow, Boutwell, Boyd, Brandegee, Broomall, William G. Brown, Ambrose W. Clark, Freeman Clark, Cobb, Coffroth, Cole, Colfax, Creswell, Henry Winter Davis, Thomas T. Davis, Dawes, Deming, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Dumont, Eckley, Eliot, English, Farnsworth, Frank, Ganson, Garfield, Gooch, Grinnell, Griswold, Hale, Herrick, Higby, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Asahel W. Hubbard, John H. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hutchins, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Julian, Kasson, Kelley, Francis W. Kellogg, Orlando Kellogg, King, Knox, Littlejohn, Loan, Longyear, Marvin, McAllister, McBride, McClurg, McIndoe, Samuel F. Miller, Moorhead, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Amos Myers, Leonard Myers, Nelson, Norton, Odell, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Patterson, Perham, Pike, Pomeroy, Price, Radford, William H. Randall, Alexander H. Rice, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, James S. Rollins, Schenck, Scofield, Shannon, Sloan, Smith, Smithers, Spalding, Starr, John B. Steele, Stevens, Thayer, Thomas, Tracy, Upson, Van Valkenburgh, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburne, Webster, Whaley, Wheeler, Williams, Wilder, Wilson, Windom, Woodbridge, Worthington, and Yeaman—119.

NAYS—Messrs. James C. Allen, William J. Allen, Ancona, Bliss, Brooks, James S. Brown, Chanler, Clay, Cox, Cravens, Dawson, Denison, Eden, Edger-ton, Eldridge, Finck, Grider, Hall, Harding, Harrington, Benjamin G. Harris, Charles M. Harris, Holman, Philip Johnson, William Johnson, Kalbfleisch, Kernan, Knapp, Law, Long, Mallory, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Morrison, Noble, John O'Neill, Pendleton, Perry, Prayn, Samuel J. Randall, Robinson, Ross, Scott, William G. Steele, Stiles, Strouse, Stuart, Sweat, Townsend, Wadsworth, Ward, Chilton A. White, Joseph W. White, Winfield, Benjamin Wood, and Fernando Wood—56.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Lazear, LeBlond, Marcy, McDowell, McKinney, Middleton, Rogers, and Voorhees—8.

The official report states as follows:

"The SPEAKER: The constitutional majority of

two-thirds having voted in the affirmative, the joint resolution is passed."

[The announcement was received by the House and by the spectators with an outburst of enthusiasm. The members on the Republican side of the House instantly sprang to their feet, and, regardless of parliamentary rules, applauded with cheers and clapping of hands. The example was followed by the male spectators in the galleries, which were crowded to excess, who waved their hats and cheered loud and long, while the ladies, hundreds of whom were present, rose in their seats and waved their handkerchiefs, participating in and adding to the general excitement and intense interest of the scene. This lasted for several minutes.]

Mr. Ingersoll: "Mr. Speaker, in honor of this immortal and sublime event, I move that the House do now adjourn."

The Speaker declared the motion carried, and again the cheering and demonstrations of applause were renewed.

Mr. Harris, of Maryland: "I demand the yeas and nays on the motion to adjourn."

The yeas and nays were ordered.

The question was taken; and it was decided in the affirmative—yeas 121, nays 24; not voting 37.

In the Senate, on Dec. 19th, the following bill was reported as from the Committee of the Whole, without amendment.

Be it enacted, &c., That from and after the passage of this act, no person, by reason of color, shall be disqualified from employment in carrying the mails; and all acts and parts of acts establishing such disqualification, including especially the seventh section of the act of March 3, 1825, are hereby repealed.

It was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Brown, Clark, Conness, Dixon, Doolittle, Farwell, Foot, Foster, Grimes, Harlan, Harris, Henderson, Howe, Lane of Indiana, Lane of Kansas, Morgan, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Sherman, Sprague, Sumner, Van Winkle, Wilkinson, Willey, and Wilson—28.

NAYS—Messrs. Davis, Powell, Richardson, Riddle, and Wright—5.

ABSENT—Messrs. Buckalew, Carlile, Chandler, Collier, Cowan, Hale, Harding, Hendricks, Hicks, Howard, Johnson, McDougall, Morrill, Nesmith, Sanlbury, Ten Eyck, Trumbull, and Wade—18.

It passed in the House without a division.

On the same day, Mr. Wilson, of Mass., moved to take up a joint resolution, from the Committee on Military Affairs, granting freedom to the families of colored soldiers.

"Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, moved to refer the resolution to the Committee on the Judiciary.

Mr. Wilson opposed the motion, saying: "The Committee on Military Affairs have three times reported the substance of this resolution in other bills. It simply provides that the wives and children of soldiers of the Republic shall be made free. The needs of the country, more than justice or humanity, have weaponed the hand of the slave. We have enlisted many thousands of them. They are to-day in the trenches before Richmond and Petersburg, and on the shores of the Carolinas; and they keep watch and ward over the Mississippi from Cairo to the gulf. They are everywhere doing their duty, and their whole duty, bravely and well. Butler and Banks, Meade and Burnside, Warren and Hancock, and Lieutenant-General Grant,

have all borne testimony to their fidelity, their courage, and their services. Officers who have served with the best regiments of the armies of the East and of the West, officers who have fought in many battles, say that these colored troops, for industry, obedience, courage, and conduct, are surpassed by no troops in the service of the country. The Government could not dispense with their services without perilling the cause of the country.

"It is estimated that from seventy-five to one hundred thousand wives and children of these soldiers are now held in slavery. It is a burning shame to this country; it is an indecency for the American people to hold the wives and the children in slavery of men who are perilling their lives before the rebel legions. This measure of patriotism, justice, and humanity ought to have been passed many months ago; it surely ought to have been passed early in the last session. We have made the slave free when he becomes a soldier. Whenever the slave enlists, he is a freeman forever more; and thousands of them have enlisted since we passed that beneficent act. At least twenty thousand slaves have enlisted since that act was passed giving personal freedom to the slave who enrolls his name on the muster-rolls of the country's defenders.

"The nation now needs defenders. For the purpose of encouraging enlistments it is proposed that the wife and the child of the slave who will fight the battles of the country, shall, like himself, be free. Heart, reason, and conscience demand it. Self-respect and decency require it. The right to do it is unquestionable. There is no doubt, there can be no doubt, of the right of the Government of the country to give freedom to the man who will fight its battles, or to give freedom to his wife and child to encourage him to fight. There is no doubt, there can be no doubt, that the nation has the right to encourage the slave to enlist, or to inspire him to deeds of heroic daring for his country, by making the wife he loves, and the children who bear his name and inherit his blood, free evermore. That the freedom of wife and child will encourage the husband and father to enlist none can doubt; that it will inspire the soldier to the performance of duty, to deeds of heroism, none can question. Wasting diseases, weary marches, and bloody battles are decimating our armies. The country needs soldiers, must have soldiers. Let the Senate then act now. Let us hasten the enactment of this beneficent measure, inspired by patriotism and hallowed by justice and humanity, so that ere merry Christmas shall come the intelligence shall be flashed over the land, to cheer the hearts of the nation's defenders, and arouse the manhood of the bondman, that on the forehead of the soldier's wife and the soldier's child no man can write slave."

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, replied: "I do not understand that upon this motion of reference the merits of the measure come up, nor am I able to see the force of the argument of

the Senator from Massachusetts which he draws from the fact, as he alleges it to be, that the negroes have proved themselves to be good soldiers in the field; nor do I think the question of humanity toward the family arises upon this particular motion.

"The question is, ought this resolution to be referred to the Committee on the Judiciary? I think it should go there. I am not able to see how, under the Constitution of the United States, Congress can free the servant who is held to servitude by the laws of a State. I do not understand that Congress has ever done that, and in former days it was not claimed by any of the statesmen who peculiarly held the confidence of the country. This particular question, whether we have the constitutional power to pass the resolution ought not to be considered by the Military Committee. The Senator says this measure has been considered by that committee some three times. That committee is not the organ of this body to bring before the body information upon a question of constitutional power. That information we expect to derive through the labors of the Judiciary Committee."

Mr. Powell, of Kentucky, followed in favor of the reference. He said: "The Senator, by this resolution, proposes to free the wives and children of those who have enlisted in the army heretofore, as well as those who may hereafter enlist in the army, and he has entitled the resolution 'A resolution to encourage enlistments.' You certainly would not encourage enlistments so far as those persons are in the army of the United States, and the larger portion of the negroes in the border States able to bear arms are already in the army. The passage of this resolution could not encourage those persons to go into the army. But it proceeds to emancipate and set free the wives and the children of those who are already in the army. Where is the power, under the Constitution, to do that? You admit that in those States where they are they are property. Has this Congress any power by a legislative enactment to divest a citizen of any State of this Union of his property? Certainly not, except upon one contingency, and that is when it is required for the public use, and making compensation for it. If you take private property for public use, you must make compensation for it first. That is the Constitution of your country. When Congress passed the bill to enlist those persons in the army, the bill was accompanied with a provision pretending to make some compensation, indicating a commission that should give to their masters, in certain cases, not over \$300, and \$100 in other cases. Meagre and insignificant as was the compensation held out to the country in that bill, no compensation has ever yet been made.

"But, sir, this proposition does not provide for any compensation at all. The other, I admit, was a mere bagatelle, providing for the payment of an insignificant amount (which the Government has never paid, within my knowl-

edge), for the purpose of quieting the consciences of Senators who might vote for it. But I ask Senators if there is any power in this Congress to take private property without making just compensation therefor? There certainly is not, unless your Constitution is a dead letter; and, Senators, if you pass this measure, you will have to do it by walking over the plain provisions of the Constitution of your country.

"The Senator from Massachusetts cannot say that so far as these persons are in the service this is a measure encouraging enlistments, because they are already in the service; and in my State the husbands and fathers of four-fifths of those whom it is proposed to emancipate by this resolution are already in the army. You do not propose to give one shilling of compensation. Senators, if you pass this resolution, in my humble judgment those who vote for it will be faithless to the Constitution of their country. I verily believe that all the woes that are now upon us have arisen because the people and the politicians have been faithless to the fundamental law of the land."

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, followed on the same side, saying: "The great and principal effect of this resolution would be in Kentucky, and upon her people I presume it is so intended. In 1860 we had two hundred and twenty-five thousand four hundred and eighty-three slaves in that State. In my own county we had six thousand seven hundred and sixty-seven. I have no doubt from the number of enlistments that have been made from the slaves of Kentucky that three-fourths of that population fit for military service are now in the army or some employment of the United States. That such is the proportion in my own county I do not entertain a doubt. The military portion of that population in the county of Bourbon was something the rise of six hundred before any of them were recruited. By actual enumeration about six hundred of her slaves have already attached themselves to the army. They were recruited without any regard to order, form, or principle. The whole object seemed to be to demoralize the institution, and to get every slave man who could be seduced to join the service by any mode of operation whatever, to do so. They sent their recruiting agents, foreigners principally, mostly Dutchmen, all over the county, and pretty well over the State. They received and enrolled every slave negro who could be inveigled to give his consent. Some that were over age and some that were not proper military material because of disease, and females disguised in male clothes, were admitted. At least three-fourths of the slaves suited for military service in that county have already attached themselves to the army. They have enlisted, and they now belong to the armies of the United States, as much so as if their wives and children were declared to be free. Pass this measure, and its application would not be to one-fourth of the male slave population of Bourbon, or, I believe, of the State of Kentucky

to be enlisted, but would be mainly upon those that are now in the military service by freeing their wives and children.

"What, then, is the object of the measure? It is not much to encourage enlistments. We have already sent more than our proportion of negroes to the field. We have but a small remnant yet remaining. The measure does not propose to be limited to those who have not enlisted and who may yet be enlisted, but it proposes to comprehend those who have enlisted as well as those who may hereafter enlist. The object is to deprive slave owners of their property; it is still further to demoralize the institution; it is to break it up *per fas aut nefas*; it is utterly to disregard the Constitution and the laws which secure equally with every other this description of property to their owners, and trample them under foot, lawlessly, unjustly, without answering any wise policy of the Government, and utterly to destroy slave property.

"Is the Senate going to lend itself to the passage of such a measure? Before doing so, ought it not to ask seriously and gravely whence is its power to pass so extraordinary a measure?"

The subject was again considered in the Senate on Jan. 5th, when Mr. Doolittle, of Wisconsin, said: "The Senate has already passed a proposition to amend the Constitution of the United States, so as to put an end to the slavery question, in all its forms, by an amendment of the fundamental law of the land, which is above Congress, above the Supreme Court, and above the President; and which, when once established, no change of Presidents, no change of the decisions of the Supreme Court, and no change of the legislation of Congress, can affect at all. That measure, sir, which passed the Senate at the last session, is now pending in the House of Representatives. It will at once, if adopted by the House, be submitted to the Legislatures of the several States, and passed upon undoubtedly during the present winter, before the adjournment of the Legislatures in the spring; and thus the vexed question, and the whole of it, will be disposed of and put outside of Congress, and outside of its power or control, and there will be an end to the agitation of the question.

"Mr. President, there is one other suggestion I wish to make. There are those who seriously doubt whether we have the constitutional power to do what is now proposed by this measure. Among our friends—just as earnest friends of our cause, and opposed to slavery as much as my friend from Massachusetts—there are those who seriously doubt whether you have the constitutional power to pass this resolution in the form in which it is placed; but no one can have any doubt that it is constitutional to amend the Constitution. All can agree in that, when perhaps this, pressed to a vote, might produce a division among the real friends of freedom in the country."

Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, said: "Of

the power to do this I do not entertain a doubt, and the most eminent lawyers of this country concur in this opinion. We may and probably shall have to pay for them. The masters may have a claim against the Government. They will no doubt come here with the claim, and it may be that the claim will be fully allowed, though of course I cannot say how that will be; the claim is an open one; but I have no doubt of our power to pass this resolution, and I think we should not hesitate a moment in doing so at a time when we want soldiers, when we are calling for men to join the army, when we are pressing the want of men upon the country."

Mr. Saulsbury, of Del., in opposition, said: "I should like the advocates of this measure to present arguments to the Senate to convince them, if possible, that it is within their power, as the legislators of the country, to pass a measure of this kind. I do not wish to hear, if I may be pardoned the remark, speeches upon the evils of slavery, upon the wickedness of slavery; but I wish the question to be met in this light: have we the power, have we the authority, under the Constitution of the United States, to enact a law of this kind? Has the Congress of the United States the constitutional authority to enter within the limits of the respective States, and to declare that any person who is held in slavery under the constitution and laws of that particular State shall be free? Has the modern doctrine of 'military necessity' gone so far that when we are in a state of war, whatever the Congress of the United States shall decree is constitutionally decreed? When this question shall legitimately come before the Senate for full discussion, I shall maintain the doctrine that not only have you not the power to decree the freedom of the wife and the children of the negroes who volunteer in your army, if they are from States where slavery is recognized, but you cannot give permanent freedom to the negro volunteer himself if he be a slave. There is no principle more clearly recognized in international law than this, that if a slave be captured from his lawful owner by one belligerent, and he afterwards comes back into the possession of the other belligerent by recapture, he reverts, according to the doctrine of the *jus postliminii*, not to the belligerent power, but to his original owner. So, sir, I say to-day that if you go into a State of the Southern Confederacy and dress up a slave in your uniform and put him in your army, although you may by all the solemnity of an act of Congress say that he shall be forever free, yet if he be recaptured, when recaptured he is no longer a free man; he does not belong to the Southern Confederacy; but the Southern Confederacy is bound to deliver him to his original owner.

"That, sir, is the international law. It is the law which a great and distinguished statesman from the honorable Senator's own State maintained when he was a member of the Cabinet;

it is the doctrine which he maintained when he was minister abroad."

Mr. Sumner, of Mass., thus replied: "Mr. President, there was a call only a few days ago for three hundred thousand more troops. The country needs them, and it is the duty of Congress to help supply them. To this end there must be no difficulty, impediment, or embarrassment in the way. All these must be removed. But this is not all. There must be encouragement of every kind; and such is the character of the present proposition.

"There can be no delay. The country cannot wait the slow action of a constitutional amendment, as has been proposed by the Senator from Wisconsin (Mr. Doolittle). The Congress must act to the extent of its power, and any abdication of its power on this question will be injurious to the public interests.

"All must confess the humanity of the proposition to enfranchise the families of colored persons who have borne arms for their country. All must confess the hardship of continuing them in slavery.

"But the question is asked by many, what power has Congress to set the families free?

"My answer is that Congress has precisely the same power to enfranchise the families that it has to enfranchise the colored soldier. The two powers are coincident and from the same source. It has been already assumed that Congress may enfranchise the colored soldier. This has been done by solemn statute, without any reference to the conduct of his pretended owner. If we were asked the reason for such enfranchisement, it must be found, first, in its practical necessity, that we may secure the best services of the slaves; and secondly, in its intrinsic justice and humanity. In brief, Government cannot be so improvident and so foolish as to attempt to obtain the services of the slave at the hazard of life, without securing to him the boon of freedom. Now, if Government were so bereft of common sense as to forego this temptation to enlistment and efficient service, could it be guilty of the unutterable meanness of using the slave in the national defence and then returning him to bondage? Therefore the slave who fights is enfranchised.

"But every argument, every consideration, which pleads for the enfranchisement of the slave, pleads also for the enfranchisement of the family. There is the same practical necessity for doing it, and the same unutterable shabbiness in not doing it.

"There is no principle of law better established than the rule that any acknowledged right carries with it all incidents essential to its exercise. I do not employ technical language; but I give the idea, which is founded in reason, and the nature of things. It would be vain to confer a right, or a power, if the means for its enjoyment were denied. From this simple statement the conclusion is irresistible.

"In conferring upon Congress the power to create an army, the Constitution conferred

therewith all the powers essential to the exercise of the principal power. If Congress can authorize the enlistment of slaves, as it unquestionably can, it may at the same time authorize their enfranchisement, and by the same reason it may authorize the enfranchisement of their families; and all this from the necessity of the case, and to prevent an intolerable meanness."

The motion to refer to the Judiciary Committee was lost by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Buckalew, Cowan, Davis, Doolittle, Harris, Henderson, Hendricks, Hicks, Nesmith, Powell, Richardson, Saulsbury, Trumbull, Van Winkle, and Willey—15.

NAYS — Messrs. Brown, Clark, Conness, Dixon, Farwell, Foot, Foster, Grimes, Harlan, Johnson, Lane of Indiana, Morgan, Morrill, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Sherman, Sumner, Wade, and Wilson—19.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Carlile, Chandler, Colamer, Hale, Harding, Howard, Howe, Lane of Kansas, McDougall, Riddle, Sprague, Ten Eyck, Wilkinson, and Wright—15.

On January 9th the subject was again considered in the Senate, when Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, said: "What right has the Congress of the United States to declare a slave in my State or a slave in any other slaveholding State free? It has been said that it derived the power from the absolute necessity of the case in the first instance; and secondly, from intrinsic justice and humanity; and we, in the midst of a gigantic civil war, are to determine our power, not from the written Constitution of the land, but from intrinsic humanity and from absolute necessity, and every individual member of either House of Congress is to vote, not according to the Constitution which he has sworn to support, but according to his vague ideas of intrinsic humanity and absolute necessity. Where are you when you attempt legislation of this kind? Who defines the limit of legislative authority? Who can accurately tell me what is 'intrinsic humanity' and what is 'absolute necessity'? Why, sir, a measure of this kind, when viewed in the light of intrinsic humanity, is, and will be, one of the most inhumane measures that could be adopted by the Congress of the United States.

"Why do I say so? I prefer to look at a question of this kind in the light of ascertained facts. Fortunately I have handed to me by a distinguished gentleman of this city a letter addressed to a warm bosom and political friend of the President of the United States, showing the character of a proposition of this kind, and the results to which it has led where the humanity of persons who have never been in the midst of slavery is invoked in behalf of the slave. Sir, you unmake and destroy by hundreds and thousands those whom by your legislation you profess to serve. Listen to an extract from the letter of a distinguished gentleman in New Orleans to a personal and political friend of the President in reference to this matter:

A few days ago I was shown an official report to the military head of this department, General Banks, exhibiting the ghastly return of eighty thousand

slaves having perished since the Federal occupation of the smaller moiety of this Commonwealth. This is equal to fifty per cent. of the entire slave population of the section of country embraced in the return.

"Sir, that is the blessing which your legislation brings, or proposes to bring. That is the kind of blessings which a proclamation of universal freedom brings to the slave. You take him from a happy and contented home, enjoying all the necessities of life, and you invoke the 'pestilence that walketh in darkness, and the destruction that wasteth at noonday,' to deprive him of existence.

"But, sir, it has been said, in reference to the question of power, that the Congress of the United States have the same authority to declare the wives and children of negro soldiers free that they had to declare the enfranchisement of the negro soldier. The power to declare even the enfranchisement of the negro soldier has not, so far as this debate is concerned, been attempted to be shown; but the remark has been made that Congress has assumed to do it, and I presume, having assumed to set the negro soldier free, they may justly assume to set free the family of the negro soldier. That, Mr. President, is a mode of argument that never satisfies my mind; because a thing has been assumed to be done, therefore it has rightly been assumed. What I would like is for some friend of this measure, before it passes this body, to show me upon what principle the Congress of the United States have the authority to pass the measure, where they derive that authority. Do not tell me that it is absolutely necessary, because there are as many and perhaps more men in this country who believe that it is not necessary as there are who believe it is. Do not tell me that humanity demands it, because, perhaps, there are more men in this country who believe that your policy is injurious and ruinous to the negro race than believe it to be advantageous.

"I deny, Mr. President, that the Congress of the United States has the power to give freedom either to the negro soldier or to the family of the negro soldier. I say that we have not the power, and no nation has the power, as an act of war, to capture slaves. If they do capture them, and put their own uniform upon them, I deny that it is a rightful capture, or that the right is sustained by international law."

Mr. Davis of Kentucky, moved to amend the resolution so as to make it read:

The wife and children, if any he have, of any person who may be hereafter mustered into the military or naval service of the United States, shall, from and after the passage of this act, be forever free.

"I regard the resolution as unconstitutional, and that it will be utterly null and void if passed. In my opinion, it will not be worth the paper upon which it is printed. I do not hesitate to express my opinion that any court of any intelligence or independence of principle and action would declare it unconstitutional and imperoperative nevertheless I propose this

amendment, that the resolution may be in harmony with its professed object. That object is to promote enlistments. Of course, to make it operate on enlistments that have heretofore taken place cannot give it any effect to promote enlistments."

Mr. Clark, of New Hampshire, opposed the amendment, saying:

"I do not propose to detain the Senate for more than a moment; but it is well known that we now have in our army many of these soldiers, black men who were slaves, who have been brought into the armies of the United States, and who have proved themselves very efficient soldiers generally. These men are annoyed continually by the reports and by the knowledge that they have left their wives and children at home slaves subject to the control of masters. If we set free the wives and children of these soldiers, as is proposed by this resolution, we leave them more free to fight the battles of the country, and without much concern for their wives and children they have left behind them.

"The resolution is for the purpose of promoting the efficiency of the army, not entirely for bringing new soldiers into the army, but for the purpose of promoting the efficiency of the soldiers already in the army."

Mr. Wade, of Ohio, followed in favor of the resolution. He said:

"It is unnecessary, I think, at this stage of our proceedings, to argue in the Senate the constitutional question, because we have already passed upon our right to conscript and enlist the slave. We have already passed laws on that subject, and I suppose no one proposes now to back out of them. What gave us the right to do so, unless it was a military necessity? I believe we placed it on that ground, and I think it will stand upon that in a great revolution like this, and stand the test of the judgment of the world. Of course there was no Senator here, and there was no individual anywhere in the State that I ever knew any thing about, who claimed that in time of peace the General Government had a right to manumit slaves in the States. I know very well that the party with whom I have long acted were charged with such designs, but it was always denied; and any such notion was never attempted to be carried out, was never pretended to be acted upon. But, sir, all that is changed in time of war when the Government itself is put in jeopardy. When that is the case, and we are endeavoring to defend the Government from dissolution and destruction, the necessity of the case, in my judgment, must be the measure of our constitutional right to proceed.

"The expediency of this measure, conceding that we have the right to pass it, must be obvious to everybody. Do gentlemen suppose that you can enlist in the service of the United States negroes who are slaves, that have any regard for their wives and their children, when they leave those wives and children in the hands

of their infuriated masters to wreak on them their vengeance and cruelty? Sir, they will not do it."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, followed in opposition to the resolution, saying: "I rise now very briefly to state why it is that I am unable to vote for this resolution. It is not because—perhaps no member of the Senate feels more strongly in that regard than I do—it is not because I desire to see the wives and children, where there are wives and children, of the black men who have enlisted in the army remain in the condition of slavery, but because I am fully under the impression (and an impression so strongly felt that I am sure no argument will be sufficient to induce me to change it) that we have no authority to pass a resolution of this nature.

"The honorable member from Massachusetts, in his speech a day or two ago, placed it upon the ground of necessity. The rebellion, he said, was to be suppressed. In that, I believe, we are all agreed. It became necessary for that purpose to call into the armies of the United States the negroes. As to the power to call them into the military service of the United States I never had any doubt; and I endeavored to lay before the Senate on a former occasion the reason why I supposed there existed no doubt of the authority of Congress to use these men as a means of warfare. But I found it in the authority to raise armies, and in the double character in which, under the Constitution, the negro slave, or the negro man who is not a slave, stands toward the United States. According to my view, whether he was slave or free he held the relation of citizen, owing an allegiance to the United States; and owing an allegiance to the United States, was subject to the call of the United States when the United States should think proper to call him to their defence, either in time of foreign war or in time of civil war; that in relation to the negro slave, although he stood in the condition of property, and was, in the view of the Constitution of the United States, and of the States where the institution exists, property, to the extent that it was made property by the laws of the State in which he might be, yet he also stood in the relation of person, and was liable to be called upon to constitute a part of the army of the United States.

"The honorable member from Massachusetts, however, said that we are all agreed in thinking that when a negro slave was called into the service of the United States he became thereby free. If he is under the impression that I concur in that opinion he is mistaken. What I said was that, having called him into the service of the United States, as I supposed we had a right to do, it would become the duty of the United States to have him free, but to have him free in a constitutional and legal way; to pay for him whatever his services might be worth; to pay for him for those services to the master; or to pass an amendment to the Constitution declaring him free.

"But even if it was true, Mr. President, that the power under the Constitution exists to make a negro slave a free man by calling him into the armies of the United States, it would be a very illogical inference, in my view, to suppose that thereby his wife and his children became free, or that thereby his wife and his children could be declared free by a simple act of Congress; and I was about to say that I was a little amused, considering what we have heard in the past, at the grounds upon which the opposite view is placed by some of the Senators of the other side. One of them says, and the resolution upon its face goes to that extent in part, that it will encourage enlistments. Another, the honorable member from New Hampshire, has told us that it will wonderfully increase the efficiency of this description of force. Now in relation to the first, I think I cannot be mistaken in saying that those who advocated the bringing into the military service the negro slave said, that once authorize it, and not only would all the slaves be willing to come to the standard of the United States, but that thousands and thousands and hundreds of thousands of white men in the Eastern States would be seen flocking the highways, rushing to the capital of the United States for that purpose. In the language of an editor who possesses, and justly possesses, as I think, such a controlling influence over the party to which he belongs, three hundred thousand men would at once be seen coming to the standard of the United States, and the rebellion would at once be put down. But I have not heard from the War Department, the Senate certainly has not heard officially, that there has been any difficulty in getting black soldiers. Certainly there was none in my State. There was none in my State, because two modes were resorted to. I will not stop to inquire whether both were constitutional or legal. The one was voluntary enlistment, and as that was supposed to fail to a certain extent, it was virtually compulsory enlistment; and they got just as many as they wanted. There is hardly a black man now who was a slave at the breaking out of this war, who was living in Maryland at the time when you authorized the enlistment of black soldiers, capable of bearing arms, who has not been placed in the army of the United States either by voluntary enlistment or by compulsory enlistment.

"Then, as to their efficiency, I have heard some of my friends on this floor say—I hoped then that they were right, and I hope still that they are right, and the whole press that has been advocating the employment of this class of persons in the army of the United States have said the same thing—that among the most gallant in the army during the battles in which they were engaged were black soldiers; and yet their wives and their children were not free by any law then passed. Does my honorable friend from New Hampshire wish to make them more gallant than gallant, more efficient than

efficient? Does he want to make them more gallant and efficient than the white soldiers?

"Now, Mr. President, if there was any thing settled when the Constitution was adopted, if any thing has been settled since by judicial authority, if any thing has been settled by political parties in the enunciation of their principles in their conventions from time to time since the existence of this institution became a subject of party politics, I suppose it to be this: that the Congress of the United States in the exercise of its legislative authority has no power to abolish slavery in the States."

The amendment was lost. Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, in opposition to the resolution, said:

"Believing, however, that we have not the power to pass such a law; with the greatest desire on my part to pass it if we had the power; holding myself bound by the Constitution which I have sworn to support; believing that there can be no genuine liberty except liberty regulated by law; believing that we have no Government worth preserving unless we stand by the Constitution as it is till we change it in a constitutional mode, I must vote against the passage of this joint resolution."

The resolution was then adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Brown, Chandler, Clark, Conness, Dixon, Farwell, Foot, Foster, Grimes, Hale, Harlan, Harris, Hicks, Howe, Lane of Indiana, Morgan, Morrill, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Sherman, Sprague, Sumner, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, and Wilson—27.

NAYS—Messrs. Buckalew, Carlile, Cowan, Davis, Hendricks, Johnson, Nesmith, Powell, Salisbury, and Trumbull—10.

ABSENT—Messrs. Collamer, Doolittle, Harding, Henderson, Howard, Lane of Kansas, McDougall, Richardson, Riddle, Ten Eyck, Wilkinson, and Wright—12.

In the House, on February 22d, Mr. Wilson, of Iowa, reported back the Senate joint resolution to encourage enlistments, &c., &c.

Mr. Harris, of Maryland, said: "I do not believe that it is for the purpose of supplying soldiers to the United States that measures such as this are introduced. I am fully convinced that it is for the purpose, and that only, of interfering with and abolishing the institution called slavery in those States where it is legalized and maintained, and which you are determined to abolish by the most underhand and unconstitutional means, even though the other great reserved rights of the States may be involved in its ruin. Where was the necessity of submitting the question of slavery to the States for their decision under the provision for amending the Constitution, if Congress itself by a majority of its two branches can constitutionally pass a bill to effect the same object?"

"If you can abolish slavery so far as it relates to the wives and children of negroes who are or are to be your soldiers, why can you not abolish the entire institution by act of Congress? The very fact that you have submitted the question to another tribunal, to three-fourths of all the States, under the clause of amendment in

the Constitution, shows that you yourselves believe you are violating the provisions of that instrument and its true construction by adopting this measure. You are fearful that the amendment may not be adopted by the States, and you are determined to break through all legal and moral obligations in order to carry out your determination to destroy this institution. I deny your right to touch it in any way with a view to its injury. Your resolution submitting the question of abolishing slavery to the States, which was passed a short time since, and the pretended amendment, when it shall be adopted by three-fourths of the States, cannot be made a part of the Constitution which our forefathers have handed down to us for the protection of our rights and liberties, and it will be so decided by any honest judiciary that will ever occupy the bench of the Supreme Court or any other court. The idea that a set of men (and great men, such as the framers of our Constitution were) should allow the unrepealable privilege to the States to carry on the foreign slave trade itself for twenty years, and to import from Africa an unlimited number of slaves into this country, and at the same time intend that the United States in any way should during the same period or at any time have the constitutional right and power to destroy slavery when they are brought in, is too absurd for belief. It certainly would not have been sensible or honest for them to have given this inducement to their citizens to press all sail so as to obtain all advantages of the slave trade in the year 1807, and then in 1808 (at which time the privilege of importing slaves ceased) to turn about and abolish all the effect and advantages resulting from that trade. And if not in 1808, why should they intend that the General Government, or the States not interested in the institution, should have that power at any time thereafter? Sir, they never did intend to claim for Congress or for any number of States such a power; on the contrary, the institution was left by them under the exclusive control of the individual States in which it existed.

"Sir, that slaves are property in this country is a doctrine that has been recognized by every authority, political and judicial, for centuries. Your highest tribunals have so recognized it, and have declared that it was the duty of Congress to protect this property—not to destroy it. This was the uniform judgment of your courts up to and including the judgment and opinion of the Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case, a case so thoroughly braced by law and reason that I will defy all the ingenuity of the chairman of the Judiciary Committee, and all the legal aid he can bring from the ranks of his party, to refute, and especially in regard to the condition of the negro, whether slave or free.

Mr. Wilson: "We were formerly accustomed to hear such arguments in this hall, but I am happy to know that the time is rapidly passing away when any man will rise before the American people in the Congress of the United States,

or elsewhere, and submit such arguments as the gentleman has just drawn from the *late* Dred Scott decision.

"Now, sir, the gentleman wants to know the purpose of this act. I can tell him. To-day, in the forefront of your army, are hundreds and thousands of colored men risking every thing for the salvation of this Republic. Upon the fields once cursed by slavery, resounding with the clank of the slave's chains and the crack of the overseer's whip, now tread the colored soldiers of the Republic, under the ensign of the nation, striking sturdy blows for freedom and free government.

"And, sir, this Republic cannot afford to disgrace itself in the eyes of the civilized world by sending these men out to fight its battles, and chaining at home their wives and children in that bondage which is worse than death. It would be a disgrace never to be wiped from the face of this nation if we should permit this wrong to continue beyond the present time, when to us is afforded an opportunity to stop it at once and forever. It is a duty which we owe not only to these men who are fighting our battles, but it is a duty we owe, under the powers which we possess, to the great and eternal principles of God's justice, to see that a full meed of equity and right is meted out to these men who are risking all for our sakes and for the sake of this nation. It is no time to talk about this 'property tenure,' which, I insist, has not been recognized by the Congress of the United States and cannot be recognized by the people of the United States. States have acted on this property basis in regard to these people, but we, acting for the nation, must treat them as persons; they are a part of our population. We are in time of war, with supreme power to deal with the people of this nation in such manner as to render our population most effective in the service of the nation in passing through this great trial of the rebellion.

"If, sir, we can strengthen the hearts and arms of these soldiers of the Republic by causing to be conveyed to them the joyous intelligence that their wives and little ones at home are free, and no longer subject to the cruelty of unfeeling masters, we shall not only be doing our duty to them and to our God, but exercising the power resting with us as the Representatives of the people in determining measures to render our population most effective in carrying us successfully through the present trial by battle. We are not bound up by any 'property tenure.' We do not deal with these people upon any such basis. We deal with them as part of the people of the United States. We have a right to determine, in providing for the general welfare, whether these people, as a free people, shall aid us in maintaining the sovereignty of the Government or not; and it is upon this broad basis that I place the right and power of Congress to declare that the wives and children of these brave men who are fighting the battles of those who have so long oppressed them, shall

be free. On this very day many colored soldiers may be yielding up their lives amid the din and smoke of battle to restore the authority of this nation throughout all its borders. Let us not determine by a refusal to pass this bill that the wives and children shall survive them as slaves."

The previous question was seconded, and the main question ordered.

The question was taken; and it was decided in the affirmative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnold, Ashley, Baily, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Blaine, Blow, Boutwell, Boyd, Bromall, Ambrose W. Clark, Cobb, Cole, Daves, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Dumont, Eckley, Elicot, Garfield, Gooch, Grinnell, Higby, Hooper, Asahel W. Hubbard, John H. Hubbard, Hulburd, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Kasson, Kelley, Orlando Kellogg, Knox, Littlejohn, Loan, Longyear, Marvin, McClurg, Samuel F. Miller, Moorhead, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Amos Myers, Leonard Myers, Norton, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Perham, Pike, Pomeroy, Price, Alexander H. Rice, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, Schenck, Scofield, Shannon, Sloan, Stevens, Thayer, Tracy, Upson, Van Valkenburgh, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, Williams, Wilder, Wilson, and Worthington—74.

NAYS—Messrs. James C. Allen, Ancona, Augustus C. Baldwin, Bliss, Brooks, Chanler, Clay, Coffroth, Cox, Cravens, Henry Winter Davis, Dawson, Denison, Eden, Edgerton, Eldridge, Finck, Ganson, Grider, Griswold, Hale, Hall, Harding, Harrington, Charles M. Harris, Herrick, Kalbfleisch, Kernan, Knapp, Law, Le Blond, Long, Mallory, McBride, McKinney, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Morrison, Nelson, Noble, Odell, Pendleton, Perry, Pruyn, Radford, Samuel J. Randall, William H. Randall, Ross, Smith, Smithers, John B. Steele, William G. Steele, Stiles, Strouse, Stuart, Sweat, Townsend, Voorhees, Wadsworth, Whaley, Winfield, Benjamin Wood, Fernando Wood, and Yeaman—68.

NOR VOTING—Messrs. William J. Allen, Alley, Blair, Brandegee, James S. Brown, William G. Brown, Freeman Clark, Creswell, Thomas T. Davis, Deming, English, Farnsworth, Frank, Benjamin G. Harris, Holman, Hotchkiss, Hutchins, Philip Johnson, William Johnson, Julian, Francis W. Kellogg, King, Lazear, Marcy, McAllister, McDowall, McIndoe, Middleton, John O'Neill, Patterson, Robinson, Rogers, James S. Rollins, Scott, Spalding, Starr, Thomas, Ward, Webster, Wheeler, Chilton A. White, Joseph W. White, Windom, and Woodbridge—45.

So the resolution was passed.

In the House, on December 20th, the following resolution was offered by Mr. Rollins, of New Hampshire, and adopted:

Whereas, the Government of the United States has treated rebel prisoners of war with the utmost care, retaining them in suitable and healthy places of confinement, supplying them with ample rations of the best and most nutritious quality, attending them with skilful medical treatment and care in cases of sickness and wounds, and affording them every proper facility for improving their condition and alleviating their imprisonment; and whereas the rebel authorities have confined Union prisoners in unhealthy and loathsome prisons, and in pestilential camps without shelter; have furnished rations scanty and unwholesome; have neglected to furnish suitable medical attendance; have withheld from them clothing, provisions, and money sent to them from their friends at home, so that thousands have died from starvation, and contagious and other diseases caused by such barbarous neglect and maltreatment; and this notwithstanding the continuous and earnest efforts of th

Government of the United States to procure an alleviation of their sufferings while in imprisonment, or a just and equitable exchange: Therefore,

Resolved, That the Committee on Military Affairs be instructed to inquire into the expediency of providing by law, if such treatment of Union prisoners is persisted in, for confining rebel prisoners in our hands in such prisons, and allowing them such kind and quality of rations, as may be adopted by the rebel government, to the end that the rebel authorities may be thereby compelled to treat the Union prisoners in their hands according to the rules and usages of civilized warfare.

On the next day, the following resolution, previously offered by Mr. Ingersoll, of Illinois, was considered:

Resolved, That the Secretary of War is hereby directed to report to this House what obstacles, if any, now interpose to prevent an early and full exchange of prisoners of war now held by the rebels.

To which Mr. Cox, of Ohio, offered the following amendment as a substitute:

That, if not incompatible with the public interest, all communications in reference to the exchange of prisoners, not heretofore published, be communicated to this House by the Secretary of War.

He said: "My object in offering this amendment is, not that we may have the suppositions or inferences of the Secretary of War as to obstacles in reference to an exchange of prisoners, but that we may have all the facts and correspondence in his possession relating to this matter.

"As the House is aware, there is a long history connected with this subject. Soon after the beginning of the war we adopted, in the interest of decency and humanity, a joint resolution recognizing a full, fair exchange of prisoners; and a cartel was made for that purpose. I am not now here to inquire what obstructions have been supposed to impede this exchange. It has been stated that difficulties have occurred on account of the negro soldiers. Perhaps that is to some extent true. There may be other reasons why the rebels have not been prompt, or why our Government has not been prompt, to exchange prisoners. We ought to have all the correspondence on this subject, and not merely the ideas of the Secretary of War as to what may be an impediment or obstruction to the making of exchanges."

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, said: "This resolution seems to imply, by its being offered, that the War Department has been remiss. Now, sir, unless I have some such suspicion, I do not know why I should interfere with them. If I believed they were derelict in their duty, if I thought they were not doing all that under the laws of war, and the laws of humanity, they ought to do, I would pass some censure upon them. But I have not yet seen any thing to induce me to believe that. I therefore move to refer the resolution to the Committee on Military Affairs."

Mr. Pendleton, of Ohio, in reply, said: "I hope that course will not be adopted, and I hope this resolution will be passed. There is one fact I suppose well known to every gentle-

man upon this floor, and that is that great discontent prevails in relation to this exchange. A deep impression has been produced upon the people of the country, and these accounts of barbarities inflicted upon Union prisoners by the South have filled the country with horror. They are discontented with the condition of affairs. They think it ought not so to continue, and they believe it is not necessary that it should continue. I am not prepared to say that anybody is at fault; but I am prepared to say that the people believe somebody is at fault; and if nobody is at fault the War Department should be prepared to show to the country that every thing has been done that can be done to relieve the people from their suspicions that our citizens who are captured are needlessly suffering."

Mr. Thayer, of Pennsylvania, followed in favor of the resolution, saying: "With reference to the resolution which is now before the House, I desire to say that it is a resolution which, in my opinion, is demanded by the public sentiment of the country. There is hardly a fireside, sir, in the land, which is not painfully interested, immediately or remotely, in the question raised by this resolution—the question of a speedy and general exchange of prisoners. I do not regard the resolution or the amendment of the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Cox) as containing any imputation either on the Administration or on the War Department of the Administration. It conveys no such imputation. It simply calls for information with reference to that in which the people of the country feel a very deep and earnest interest. I have never yet seen the man who has been able to give me an intelligible account of what has occurred with reference to the negotiations that have taken place in regard to the exchange of prisoners, or what have been precisely the obstacles in the way of a general exchange of prisoners. The people of the country desire information upon this subject—nay, I may use a stronger term—they demand information on this subject; and the resolution being properly guarded so as not to require the Secretary of War to impart any information that may be detrimental to the public interests, I am in favor of the resolution of the gentleman from Ohio."

The amendment was adopted, and the resolution agreed to.

In the Senate, on January 16th, Mr. Wade, of Ohio, offered the following resolution relative to an exchange of prisoners:

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress assembled, That from and after the passage of these resolutions, all prisoners, both officers and soldiers, of the Confederacy, so called, who are now or shall be in the power, control, and keeping of the Federal Government, shall receive the same rations, the same amount of clothing, and be subject to the same treatment in every respect, as Federal prisoners of war, both officers and soldiers, who are now or have been in the power, control, and keeping

of the Confederate government, so called, have received.

SEC. 2. *And be it further resolved*, That when it shall be proved to the satisfaction of the President of the United States that the Confederacy have changed their treatment of Federal prisoners for better or for worse, it shall be his duty to change the treatment of Confederate prisoners in like manner.

SEC. 3. *And be it further resolved*, That if any officer or officers having such prisoner or prisoners in charge shall fail to comply with and rigidly carry out the provisions of the foregoing resolutions, such officer or officers so offending shall be immediately dismissed the service, and subject to such further punishment as a court-martial shall in their discretion see fit to inflict.

Mr. Lane, of Indiana, said: "There are now about forty-five thousand Union prisoners in rebel prisons. We have about double that number of rebel prisoners in our hands. Those forty-five thousand men, a great army of themselves, are reduced by starvation to a state of utter helplessness, and if they remain in those prisons can never render active service again in our armies. Those of them who escape the slow tortures of death by starvation, return emaciated and feeble, and unfit for service. Our system is, as Christian men should do, to feed, and clothe, and provide for their men when prisoners in our hands. Every one we send back to them is in a condition of efficiency far greater than he was when he entered our prisons. Then you see the effect. We returned last month some fifteen thousand rebel prisoners in excellent condition, having been fed and fattened upon Government rations; and we received wrecks, skeletons in their stead, shocking to our common humanity. Measures of mercy having failed, it is time we resorted to a different system—a system of strict retaliation marked by justice in every feature. I think the people demand it. They have with great patience borne all these things in the hope that by merciful treatment we still might bring these felons and traitors to their senses; but all these measures have failed. Now I propose, first, that all the camps of rebel prisoners shall be placed under the command of officers who have endured the hardships of Southern captivity, who know what the Southern rations have been; and, second, that we shall mete out to them the same treatment meted out to us."

Mr. Wade, of Ohio, followed, saying: "Nearly a year ago the committee on the conduct of the war were instructed to inquire into the condition of our prisoners as they returned from Southern prisons. The committee immediately entered upon that work. We took somewhere about a hundred depositions of the victims of this inhumanity from the rebel States. We also took the testimony of a great many surgeons and medical men who testified as to what their treatment had been; and showed beyond a possible doubt, that thousands of our men had suffered the most lingering and inhuman death by means of starvation and exposure. The specimens that were returned whom we saw, and whose testimony we took, were on the verge

of the grave, and some of them dying as we took their testimony. We embodied our observations in a report, a report that has not been pretended to be gainsaid or denied by anybody.

"I understood, when we went forth to take that testimony, that it was to enlighten the Executive as to the exact facts in regard to this matter; that the inhumanity was so great, it shocked the sense of mankind to such a degree, that the Executive, like everybody else, was unwilling to believe that such a thing could exist at this age of the world; and I understood also, that if the testimony proved the facts to be as alleged, the Executive had promised us that he would take the most energetic means of retaliation, and endeavor in that way to prevent it. It has run on from that day to this. I have constantly hoped and wished and believed that as this reiterated evidence came to our knowledge day after day, and month after month, it would stir those in authority to do something. But, sir, all is silent; I see no movement anywhere. I felt it, therefore, incumbent upon me even to endeavor to wake up the country to a sense of our responsibility, to endeavor to do something in behalf of these brave suffering men who have gone forth with a spirit of patriotism and self-denial unparalleled, and have been too long overlooked.

"I was still further impelled to do this when I saw how easily the sympathies of our people were aroused in behalf of these accursed rebels, unrepentant, so far as I know, living in cities we have lately conquered. The hearts of our population seem moved in their behalf. I do not object to it. They are sending provisions by the ship-load to relieve these rebels who have caused all this misery to our men, and who, if they are suffering, are suffering justly, in consequence of their own crimes. Near by these very cities are now lingering in these infernal dens our brave men starving to death, tortured to death by exposure and ill treatment; and yet I do not hear of ship-loads of provisions and comforts going to them. Yes, sir, perhaps within ten miles of the very place where these things are to be distributed lie our poor, brave men, suffering all that malignity, barbarity, and brutality can inflict upon men; and yet we find our people moving in behalf of those who have brought this misery on the country, and compelled us to sacrifice the best of our men in such a cause."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "During the last session, when it was before us in some form—I do not now recollect what—I expressed a disposition myself to bring in a measure the object of which was to resort to the rule of retaliation for the purpose of restraining the insurgents henceforth from the practise of such barbarities upon our prisoners in their hands; but on further consideration of the subject, and on consulting with my friends about it, I thought it best to let it pass by for the present, but always in the hope that the Executive of

the United States, as the head of the military authority of the United States, would take it into his hands promptly, and apply such remedy as the rules of war suggest. I have always entertained that hope, and I have not dismissed it yet, although I confess that I do feel a little disappointed that no step whatever has been taken to punish the atrocious violations of the laws of war practised upon our prisoners in the hands of the insurgents."

The resolutions were referred to the Committee on Military Affairs.

On January 23d a joint resolution advising retaliation for the cruel treatment of prisoners, was considered. The resolution was thus explained in the official report: "As it has come to the knowledge of Congress that great numbers of our soldiers who have fallen as prisoners of war into the hands of the insurgents have been subjected to treatment unexampled for cruelty in the history of civilized war, and finding its parallels only in the conduct of savage tribes—a treatment resulting in the death of multitudes by the slow but designed process of starvation, and by mortal diseases occasioned by insufficient and unhealthy food, by wanton exposure of their persons to the inclemency of the weather, and by deliberate assassination of innocent and unoffending men, and the murder in cold blood of prisoners after surrender; and as a continuance of these barbarities, in contempt of the laws of war and in disregard of the remonstrances of the national authorities, has presented the alternative of suffering our brave soldiers thus to be destroyed, or to apply the principle of retaliation for their protection; the resolution declares that, in the judgment of Congress, it has become justifiable and necessary that the President should, in order to prevent the continuance and recurrence of such barbarities, and to insure the observance by the insurgents of the laws of civilized war, resort at once to measures of retaliation; that, in the opinion of Congress, such retaliation ought to be inflicted upon the insurgent officers now in our hands, or hereafter to fall into our hands as prisoners; that such officers ought to be subjected to like treatment practised toward our officers or soldiers in the hands of the insurgents, in respect to quantity and quality of food, clothing, fuel, medicine, medical attendance, personal exposure, or other mode of dealing with them; that, with a view to the same ends, the insurgent prisoners in our hands ought to be placed under the control and in the keeping of officers and men who have themselves been prisoners in the hands of the insurgents, and have thus acquired a knowledge of their mode of treating Union prisoners; that explicit instructions ought to be given to the forces having the charge of such insurgent prisoners, requiring them to carry out strictly and promptly the principles of this resolution in every case, until the President, having received satisfactory information of the abandon-

ment by the insurgents of such barbarous practices, shall revoke or modify those instructions. Congress do not, however, intend by this resolution to limit or restrict the power of the President to the modes or principles of retaliation herein mentioned, but only to advise a resort to them as demanded by the occasion."

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, said: "I am very free to say, without fully examining this subject, that the remedy for the unfortunate condition of the prisoners, suggested by the Senator from Ohio in this joint resolution, is not such a one as I had hoped to see come from him, and especially from the Administration. I think there is another remedy, and that is the exchange of our prisoners. We have nearly two to their one. I believe it is in the power of the Administration to bring our imprisoned soldiers home again, and in a very short time restore them to their friends and families.

"I am free to say I do not feel that the condition of my friends in the Southern prisons will be made any better, and they made any happier, by seeing some men in our prisons here in the North starved to death. If we could inflict the punishment that is suggested by the Senator upon the officers in the Southern army who have contributed to the misfortunes of which he complains, I would agree with him; but here in our Northern prisons are many men who entered into this war in the Southern army against their wish, conscripted, compelled to obey the demands of a government *de facto*, having no part nor lot, no connection whatever with the wrongs that are inflicted upon our soldiers in the Southern prisons; and now we propose to retaliate upon them, individually, and starve them to death, because the Senator says some of our friends in Southern prisons have been starved! Reach the men that are in fault; strike them if we can; but where is the propriety, where is the Christianity of starving a man to death against whom we can lay no fault, except that perhaps he has been compelled to obey the demands of the rebel government—a government, as was illustrated with great power by the Senator from Vermont, not now in his seat, (Mr. Collamer), *de facto*, which the people down there for the time being had to obey?"

Mr. Wade, of Ohio, followed, urging the resolution, and said: "If this resolution will not tend to effect the purpose designed by us, it should not pass. No one is more sensible than I am that for mere vindictive purposes we ought not to pass a measure like this. My impression, however, is that it will have a very useful effect; it will have the effect to relieve thousands upon thousands who are now in Southern prisons, and treated with such hardship that they are dying all over the Southern country.

"Retaliation has, in all ages of the world, been a means of bringing inhuman and savage foes to a sense of their duty, and has frequently had the effect to promote the objects of justice.

It has been so in this war; we have tried it already successfully. There was a time when the enemy took our officers and placed them as a kind of protection against our assault on their fortifications. They placed our officers within the range of our guns, hoping thereby to protect themselves against our assaults. In order to prevent that we were compelled to retaliate in kind, and we selected a like number of their officers and placed them in like jeopardy; and the moment they saw that we sternly intended to do that, they did not persist in their barbarous course any longer; when they found that we were inexorable upon that subject, and that we would place their officers in like jeopardy, the effect was very soon manifest; our officers were immediately released from their position, and the rebels sought to make peace upon that subject. So they would upon this.

"Sir, I have no doubt, on investigation of this subject, that it is a deliberate purpose of theirs to destroy every prisoner that comes into their hands. They do not intend that he shall be returned to us in such a condition that he can ever again take the field. Their inhuman treatment is probably owing more to this consideration than to mere feelings of malice. It is a system of savage policy, and it has had a most powerful effect on our army. Of the thousands of prisoners we have had in their hands, scarcely one of them is ever returned to us in such a condition that he can take the field again; while on the other side the prisoners that come into our possession are treated precisely the same as our own soldiers are, and they go back refreshed, recuperated, and ready to take the field against us, every man of them. I have no doubt that a prompt and stern resort to this measure of retaliation will have as beneficial an effect as the measure to which I have referred had in the case to which it was applied.

"I have always understood that there was something in the way of the fair exchange of prisoners; and I have never been able exactly to understand what it was. It may be that the Government here is greatly to blame. The Senator says there are no reasons against it. I do not know that there are, but I have always supposed that there was reason——"

Mr. Hendricks said: "I did not express any opinion myself upon that question, but I read the statement of the fact, delivered under very responsible circumstances, that exchanges could have been made for months past upon terms consistent with the usages of nations."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, explained: "There was referred to the Committee on Military Affairs a resolution which was presented by the honorable Senator from Ohio (Mr. Wade), also a memorial which was presented by the honorable Senator from Indiana (Mr. Lane); the Committee on Military Affairs took these measures into consideration, and instructed me to report a joint resolution to the Senate, which I did. It is this joint resolution."

Mr. Harlan, of Iowa, urged the resolution, saying: "The rebels are no longer able to meet us in the open field. Their armed soldiers fight us now almost exclusively behind their works and in strong fortifications. Military men tell us that it requires at least four men outside to take one inside of a fort. We have been expressing our thanks as a Congress to the commanders of the army and navy who have taken a fort containing a garrison of about twenty-three hundred men. The navy, I think, floated between six and seven hundred heavy guns; there was an army landed, we are told, of something like eight thousand men; it required the united strength of this immense naval power and eight thousand troops to take a fort defended by but twenty-three hundred men. Now the Senator from Indiana demands that we shall exchange a rebel prisoner held by us for each one of the prisoners of ours held by them. Suppose they hold thirty thousand Union prisoners of war, and we exchange for them at once thirty thousand rebel soldiers. These thirty thousand rebel soldiers will be thrown into strong works like Fort Fisher, and then you will be compelled to marshal an army of one hundred and twenty thousand strong to be able to meet that thirty thousand sent there by you. The thirty thousand Union soldiers you receive, and ninety thousand additional troops will be required to recapture them.

"This is the present condition of the contest. The rebellion has been so far suppressed that they are no longer able to meet us in the open field; they are now ensconced behind the strongest works that human skill and energy can produce; we are the assailing party; we are compelled to fight them in those works, and to capture those garrisons by assault, or the tedious process of a siege in order to secure complete success. I think, therefore, it is very doubtful whether we are damaged by the refusal of the rebels to make a fair exchange; an exchange man for man will make the rebels relatively stronger. It is therefore doubtful, to say the least, whether a far-seeing, sagacious humanity would not induce this Government to refuse to exchange prisoners from this time forward. If this course should be adopted, then of course if the rebels treat Union troops held by them as prisoners of war with premeditated cruelty and inhumanity, it will furnish a just occasion for retaliation."

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, moved to strike out all after the resolving clause, and insert the following:

"That retaliation is harsh always, even in the simplest cases, and is permissible only where, in the first place, it may reasonably be expected to effect its object, and where, in the second place, it is consistent with the usages of civilized society; and that, in the absence of these essential conditions, it is a useless barbarism, having no other end than vengeance, which is forbidden alike to nations and to men.

And be it further resolved, That the treatment of our officers and soldiers in rebel prisons is cruel, savage, and heart-rending, beyond all precedent; that it is

shocking to morals; that it is an offence against human nature itself; that it adds new guilt to the great crime of the rebellion, and constitutes an example from which history will turn with sorrow and disgust.

And be it further resolved, That any attempted imitation of rebel barbarism in the treatment of prisoners would be plainly impracticable, on account of its inconsistency with the prevailing sentiments of humanity among us; that it would be injurious at home, for it would barbarize the whole community; that it would be utterly useless, for it could not affect the cruel authors of the revolting conduct which we seek to overcome; that it would be immoral, inasmuch as it proceeded from vengeance alone; that it could have no other result than to degrade the national character and the national name, and to bring down upon our country the reprobation of history; and that being thus impracticable, useless, immoral, and degrading, it must be rejected as a measure of retaliation, precisely as the barbarism of roasting or eating prisoners is always rejected by civilized powers.

And be it further resolved, That the United States, filled with grief and sympathy for cherished citizens who, as officers and soldiers, have become the victims of Heaven-defying outrage, hereby declare their solemn determination to put an end to this great iniquity by putting an end to the rebellion of which it is the natural fruit; that to secure this humane and righteous consummation, they pledge anew their best energies and all the resources of the whole people, and they call upon all to bear witness that in this necessary warfare with barbarism they renounce all vengeance and every evil example, and plant themselves firmly on the sacred landmarks of civilization, under the protection of that God who is present with every prisoner and enables heroic souls to suffer for their country.

He said: "Now, sir, I believe that the Senate will not undertake in this age of Christian light, under any inducement, under any provocation, to counsel the Executive Government to enter into any such competition with barbarism. Sir, the thing is impossible; it cannot be entertained; we cannot be cruel, or barbarous, or savage, because the rebels whom we are now meeting in warfare are cruel, barbarous, and savage. We cannot imitate that detested example. Sir, we find no precedent for it in our own history nor in the history of other nations."

Mr. Wade, of Ohio, replied: "The Senator from Massachusetts has proved, in the course of his argument, what I supposed was well-settled international law, that the principle of retaliation is part and parcel of the law of war. It has been practised by all civilized nations, as often as there have been occasions for it. The first example that the Senator read was that of the Father of his country in the revolutionary war. Very early in the struggle, at the very outset of the war, as soon as it came to his ears that the British were maltreating our men who were prisoners in their hands, he gave them to understand that their treatment of our prisoners in their hands would be the measure that he would award to their prisoners in our hands. That he lays down clearly as a principle, and he deduced it from the well-settled laws of nations. He did not lay down any limitation of it. He simply went on to sum up what he understood to be their treatment, and said that he should observe the same toward them. Does the Senator believe that if their treatment had been infinitely more inhuman than it was, that

fact would have induced Washington to drop the principle altogether? Would it not rather have been a seven-fold reason why he should enforce it with greater vigor? He did not lay it down as a limitation, but as a settled principle of law which he would adhere to, that his treatment of prisoners in his hands should be precisely the same with the treatment by the enemy of the prisoners in their hands."

Mr. Cowan, of Pennsylvania, followed, saying: "Mr. President, I am one of those, unfortunately, perhaps, who differ with a great many Senators on this side of the chamber, in believing that in the distribution of powers and authorities under this Government this is a question which does not belong to this Senate to consider. I have understood it to be admitted in the course of this debate by the honorable Senator from Ohio, as it must be admitted by all men who know of our Constitution and the peculiar organization of our Government, that if we retaliate at all we retaliate according to a law already in existence, not one which is to be made. What is meant when it is said to us that we are to retaliate according to the law of nations? Is that a law in existence, or is it a law to be enacted? If it is a law in existence, this not being an executive body, but legislative, there must be some other power, and some other authority in this Government to exercise it. As I understand this question, it is a question for the Commander-in-chief of our armies and his subordinates. It is an authority to be exercised by them according to the exigencies which arise, and to be abandoned by them as the exigencies fail to happen."

Mr. Wade said: "Do I understand the Senator to lay it down that Congress has no power to prescribe the principles upon which the war should be conducted?"

Mr. Cowan answered: "I have repeatedly upon this floor given my opinion distinctly upon that subject. So far as all foreign Powers are concerned, and so far as all belligerent Powers are concerned, at war with this Government, our only point of contact with them is in the Executive. We are a part of the legislature of the country; we are a part of the law-making power. Our powers and authorities are municipal. Our enactments reach those against whom we can enforce them, and those against whom we can enforce them are, of course, those who owe us allegiance and are citizens; but as against belligerents and as against foreign Powers they can have no possible operation whatever. But I answer the question sufficiently when I say that the honorable Senator from Ohio himself has repeatedly said that we do this thing because we have a right to do it, by a law preëxisting, heretofore made, and that is the law of nations. Then, if we have a right to do it by the law of nations, we need no additional law to do it. We make laws; we do not execute laws.

"I say that as the matter now stands I cannot believe that the President has in his posses-

sion the evidence of this barbarous treatment, or of its persistent continuance, which is asserted on the part of the honorable Senator from Ohio, or I think he would have corrected it already by retaliation. I would be glad to know if this evidence is in the possession of this body; if they have it, whether they have communicated it to the President, whether he is cognizant of it, whether the commander-in-chief of our armies under him is cognizant of it, whether the several commanders are cognizant of it, whether they stand by with folded arms and see our men tortured by a slow death in this way without doing something in order to prevent it. As I have said, I have no disposition to quarrel with the Executive in any thing which he does do, provided it is consistent with the humanity of the age. I am willing that he shall resort to any mode of retaliation which he deems proper, provided it be such a mode as will not disgrace our own officers and soldiers in the execution of his plan."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, in reply, said: "It is unnecessary to argue this question of the right of retaliation. It has ever existed since the commencement of civilized society. It is as old a practice as war itself, and so long ago as you read of hostages in ancient history, so long is it since the principle and practice of retaliation have been observed between nations at war.

"But, sir, the question arises more particularly whether the Senate have before them evidence sufficient to justify us in resorting to the principle of retaliation. Judging from some remarks that fell from the Senator from Pennsylvania, I was led to suppose that he was still in doubt upon the question whether the provocations given us by the rebels have been of such a character as to justify the measure. On this subject I beg to lay before the Senate and before the country a few extracts from a document I now hold in my hand. It is a report made by a committee appointed by the United States Sanitary Commission at New York, on the 19th of May, 1864.

"Sir, the barbarities committed upon our men at Andersonville are absolutely indescribable. Human language is impotent to bring home to the heart and the soul of a man the horrors of those scenes. Artists have been compelled to resort to something more expressive than human language, and painting and engraving have been called in to aid in conveying to the mind the full idea of the brutalities practised by the rebel authorities upon our soldiers. Out of those thirty-five thousand, I presume not more than one-half, if as many, still survive to tell the tale of their sufferings; and the testimony is as clear as the noonday sun that these barbarities were deliberately practised upon our men for the double purpose of crippling and reducing our armed force and of striking terror into the Northern population in order to prevent enlistments. There does not remain ground for a doubt that the rebel government designedly resorted to the slow process of torture and death

by starvation, and to freezing and starving united, operating minute by minute, hour by hour, day by day, week by week, and month by month, until the man became a living skeleton and an idiot, no longer able to recognize his wife, his children, or his friends; no longer of any value either to himself or his country; and this for the purpose of weakening our military arm and deterring our people from prosecuting the war.

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, said: "But the Senator from Iowa (Mr. Harlan)—and even with the high respect I entertain for that Senator, I am glad that no other Senator has adopted his sentiments on this subject—has said to the Senate, in the course of this debate, that it was right for the Administration thus for months to have refused to exchange prisoners when it might have been done. Why so? For the reason that we can better afford to leave men in prison than they; that we have more men; that we may bring additional hundreds of thousands into the field and not fee the burden very much, because our population is so large, while the South is exhausted in its fighting force. That is the argument of the Senator."

Mr. Harlan: "Is the Senator professing to quote from my remarks?"

Mr. Hendricks: "No, sir; I am not. I am attempting to give the argument of the Senator. If he prefers that I should read his words, of course I can do so. His argument went further. He said that we were now fighting the enemy within works; and that one man to the enemy was worth three or four to us. I think I give the argument of the Senator correctly. The whole of it amounts to just this: that we can afford, in a military point of view, to leave our soldiers suffering in Southern prisons, dying under the influence of a Southern climate, and under Southern diseases, as well as (if I may admit the fact) by starvation: that we can afford to do this, and make in a military point of view, and therefore we will do it.

"Again, the Senator said that the term of service of the greater portion of these prisoners of ours in Southern prisons has now expired, and that if we bring them home again, we simply lose that number of men, and send to the South men who are yet bound to do military service to the Southern government, and therefore they would make in the swap. These considerations I could understand in the exchange of property between man and man, but when the appeal comes to us in the name of humanity on behalf of our suffering friends in the South, I cannot appreciate the sentiment of the Senator from Iowa. We are not bound to exchange prisoners. We are not bound by the laws and usages of war to parole prisoners. It is not a question between us and the belligerents opposed to us whether we shall exchange prisoners. The South as a belligerent cannot demand it of us as a right.

"The question is between us and the men

who have fought for the Government and who have fallen into this misfortune because they were engaged in the public service; and the Senator from Iowa says we shall not consider this obligation which we owe to the soldier who has fallen into this misfortune, because we can make a military profit by leaving him to die in a Southern prison. I am glad that sentiment has found no response from any other Senator in this body."

Mr. Henderson, of Missouri, in relation to the exchange of prisoners, said: "While upon this subject, Mr. President, I may refer to the matter of the exchange of prisoners, which is also embraced in the amendment which I propose to offer. I do not desire to reflect on the War Department, because perhaps the War Department has done all within its power to release our prisoners and ameliorate their condition; but it seems to me that it is high time the Congress of the United States should look into the matter. According to reports, there are some fifty or fifty-five thousand soldiers of ours who are prisoners in Southern prisons. What has been of late years the course of civilized nations in relation to prisoners taken in battle? Has it not been immediately to exchange or parole them? It unquestionably has been. I know that the English Government, in the war of the Revolution, said that prisoners could not be exchanged with rebels; but the British authorities soon got over that. They found that it was necessary to make exchanges. Why not let us come boldly to the proposition, and make these exchanges at once? During that war our privateersmen were seized, and the English authorities declared that they were guilty of piracy, and should not be exchanged. Have we not done the same thing during this war? In the early part of the war we convicted rebel privateersmen in Philadelphia of piracy; but we were compelled afterward to abandon that policy and to exchange them. Then, if we ourselves have yielded the proposition that the rebels are belligerents—and we ought certainly to yield it at once, magnanimously, as becomes a great nation—why shall we not proceed to exchange? In 1862, I find that a cartel was agreed upon, which used this language:

The stipulations and provisions to be of binding obligation during the continuance of the war, it matters not which party may have the surplus of prisoners, the great principles involved being, first, an equitable exchange of prisoners man for man, officer for officer, or officers of higher grade exchanged for officers of lower grade, or for privates, according to the scale of equivalents; second, that privateersmen and officers and men of the different services may be exchanged according to the same scale of equivalents; third, that all prisoners, of whatever arm of the service, are to be exchanged or paroled in ten days from the time of their capture, if it be practicable to transfer them to their own lines in that time; if not, as soon thereafter as practicable;

"Remember, this is the agreement we ourselves entered into with the rebel authorities in 1862.

fourth, that no officer, soldier, or employé in the

service of either party is to be considered as exchanged and absolved from his parole until his equivalent has actually reached the lines of his friends; fifth, that the parole forbids the performance of field, garrison, police, guard, or constabulary duty.

"I am told that some misunderstanding on this subject has arisen between our Government and the Confederate authorities; but even in that agreement there was a provision of this character:

And in case any misunderstanding shall arise in regard to any clause or stipulation in the foregoing articles, it is mutually agreed that such misunderstanding shall not interrupt the release of prisoners on parole as herein provided, but shall be made the subject of friendly explanations, in order that the object of this agreement may neither be defeated nor postponed.

"Why has not this cartel been carried out? Why is it that our prisoners have not been exchanged within the ten days, or as soon thereafter as practicable, as required by the cartel? Can exchanges not be effected now? I do not know. I confess that I am not familiar with the conduct of the War Department on the subject, and therefore I am not qualified to speak; but it seems to me that it is worthy of investigation on the part of the Senate to ascertain why these exchanges have not been made. There are thousands of our men dying in prisons, I care not how well the rebel authorities may treat them. And I care not how well we may treat prisoners in our hands, we know that thousands of them must die. We cannot give them the comforts that we ought to do; it is utterly impossible. How many rebel prisoners have we now? Perhaps sixty or seventy thousand. Why not, then, proceed to exchange?

"It was stated some time ago that an objection was presented on the part of the rebels to exchanging, in consequence of the fact that they declined to exchange negro troops. Why not proceed with the exchanges until we come to that difficult question? And now I submit to the Senate that whenever we arrive at that point in exchange, how is it possible that the rebels can refuse to exchange? They will not do it."

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "I ask you, sir, and I ask the Senate, if the refusal of the rebel authorities to exchange for a few hundred negroes was any justification, any excuse, any palliation even, for our military authorities in not exhausting every means of exchange or parole and any other mode whatever by which these brave and perishing men might be delivered from their horrible captivity and its inevitable death. I say to-day that if the subject of exchanges had been taken up honestly, earnestly, and in good faith by our Government and our military authorities eighteen months ago, more than twenty thousand gallant and true men who have died in these dreary prisons would have been restored to their country, their friends, their families; and with all the comforts of home, and all the attentions of mother, wife, and daughter, which they would have received.

they might ere this have been restored to health, so that now, instead of filling an unknown grave in a distant land, they would be cheering and sustaining and blessing their own homesteads and their own families.

Sir, I view with horror the conduct of the rebel authorities to these prisoners, and second, even if second to that, I view with repugnance, condemnation, and execration, the heartless, cruel, and unjust indifference of our own authorities toward the fate of these perishing brave men.

I never heard it controverted before this occasion that the great difficulty in the way of exchanging white prisoners with the rebel authorities was their refusal to exchange for negro prisoners. On this point I will read again a single clause from General Butler's letter:

The wrongs, indignities, and privations suffered by our soldiers would move me to consent to any thing to procure their exchange, except to barter away the honor and faith of the Government of the United States which has been so solemnly pledged to the colored soldiers in its ranks.

"What was that faith? What was that pledge? What was it but simply this, that exchanges would not be entered upon by our Government unless they were treated as prisoners of war with our white soldiers, and unless the exchanges should extend to and include negro soldiers as well as white men? I dissent entirely from the position that the refusal of the rebel authorities to exchange a few thousand, yea, all the negroes in America, if they had been in captivity, should make one moment's delay or obstacle in the exchange of our white prisoners. The refusal to exchange negro prisoners did not mitigate the sufferings of those negroes. It made their condition no better. It gave them no additional comforts. It offered them no speedier or earlier deliverance from captivity. Then, when it produced no good fruits to the negro, and resulted in the wasting, torturing, starving to death of our white citizens in captivity, why should the latter dread consequence be looked upon calmly, with cold indifference and apathy, in its terrible consummation, by our military authorities, and they not waive the condition of negro prisoners being also exchanged?"

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, in reply, said: "Mr. President, it seems to have been the effort of the Opposition, in the comments which they have made upon the resolution now before the Senate, to make the Administration odious for not having perfected and carried out a system of exchange of prisoners with the rebels, and in that manner to have liberated our countrymen in their hands as prisoners of war. Instead of meeting the question fairly, upon its own merits, and upon the facts clearly in proof in the case, it seems to me they rather attempt to use the occasion as one for the promotion of party purposes, and for the purpose of assailing the Administration.

"I do not wish, upon such an occasion as

this, to imitate their example. I shall take it for granted that the Administration have done all in their power, all that could be required of them by the laws of war and by their duty to their country, to establish and carry out a system of exchange for the purpose of such liberation. I will not stand here to accuse them of the atrocious crime (for it would be a crime if they had committed it, or if it had been committed) of permitting our soldiers to remain in the cruel custody of the rebels for some purpose other than the public good, for some purpose not authorized by their duty to their country. I shall presume in this discussion that the executive branch of the Government have at least tried faithfully to do their duty to the country, and that if they have failed in bringing about this exchange and the liberation of our prisoners in rebel hands, they have innocently failed, and failed upon such principles as justify their conduct before their country and before the world."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, followed, saying: "Mr. President, at the adjournment of the Senate yesterday, I was referring to the fact, as far as I was then advised, or, indeed, as I am now advised, there is not before us any official evidence that the cruelties practised upon our prisoners which are mentioned in the report of the 5th of May, 1864, have been continued since. I was told by the honorable member from Connecticut (Mr. Foster), that he had it from one who had belonged to the army, and who was unfortunate enough to be captured and imprisoned in one of the prisons in South Carolina, that there was, to a certain extent, at least, cruelty as far as cruelty consists in failing to give the prisoners a sufficient ration. What I meant, however, was that we have no official evidence other than what is contained in the report of May 5, 1864, that the outrages which are hypothetically stated, though stated as facts in the resolution reported by the committee, have been perpetrated since that report.

"The honorable member from Ohio (Mr. Wade), who was one of the committee by whom the report of May 5, 1864, was made, interrupted me yesterday by saying that there had been an antecedent report in which evidence was presented to the Senate of other outrages of the same description. The purpose for which I referred to the report of May 5, 1864, is rather strengthened than weakened by that fact, because it appears that even prior to the 5th of May, 1864, the Senate, and of course the committee, whose business it had been to examine into the facts, were advised that these cruelties had been practised; and yet from that time until a few days since, I am not aware that any measures have been recommended by the committee or any member of the Senate, looking to a resort to such a system as is proposed either by the resolution introduced by the honorable member himself, or by the report made by the committee to whom that resolution was referred. I suppose, Mr. President--and they had

a right to rely upon it—that the members of the committee, including my friend from Ohio, were under the impression that the President of the United States would take all proper steps to arrest these barbarous acts as against our own men.

“Now, assuming as I do, notwithstanding what has fallen from the Senator from Connecticut, that the barbarities spoken of in the resolution now before the Senate were practised some time ago, that we have no evidence that they are now being repeated, I submit as a clear proposition of national law that whatever may be the extent of the right to retaliate in order to prevent continuing outrages, it does not apply to a case of antecedent outrages, because so to apply it is to punish what is past and not for the purpose of preventing the recurrence of the same things in the future. It is (if the honorable member will permit me so to say) revenge, and not retaliation. Conceding for argument's sake, and I make the concession only for that purpose, that there exists a right under the laws of nations to starve the prisoners who are in our hands, to torture them short of starvation, to subject them to the inclemency of the weather and to kill them by force of the elements, or to use as against them every possible mode of human torture to which the ingenuity of man may resort; assuming that such power exists under the laws of nations, I think I am safe in saying that that power has never been exerted for the purpose merely of punishing prior outrages of the same description.

“I come to the proposition as reported from the committee, which is almost precisely the same in words, and is substantially identical with the original resolution offered by the member from Ohio, except that it omits the provision that the officer is to be dismissed if he does not perform his duty, and announces to the President that it is not the purpose of Congress in passing the resolution to make it obligatory upon him; but we are asked to say to him that it is his duty to resort to this measure. We are to tell him that a resort to this measure is absolutely necessary in order to put an end to the barbarities being practised upon our own prisoners; and under some doubt—I do not stop to inquire whether it was well founded or not—of the authority of Congress by legislation to interfere with the President at all in relation to such duties as are stated in this resolution, it concludes with saying that it is to be understood merely as advising the President, and not as controlling him. Advising him to do what? The honorable member from Missouri (Mr. Brown), whom I do not now see in his seat, the other day said that it was not the purpose of the committee to suggest to the President the propriety of proceeding at once to the execution of this duty of retaliation; and he found, as he supposed, a reason for that construction in the latter clause of the resolution, which declares that the resolution itself is designed to be merely advisory to the President. That is true; but

what is the advice? What are we asked to do? What is every individual Senator asked to do? To advise the President that in our opinion he should proceed at once to starve, to torture, to assassinate, to freeze to death the prisoners who are in our hands; and every other mode of dealing such as our prisoners have been treated with in the hands of the insurgents. The President is advised to do that at once.

“Now, is it expedient to exert it even if we have the legal power to exert it? The honorable member assumes that the starvation of the four or five thousand, or the twenty or thirty thousand, or whatever may be the number of prisoners now in our hands, will prevent the starvation of the thousands who are in the hands of the enemy or may hereafter come into the hands of the rebel enemy. Does he know it? Who can? If the rebel government was privy to the enormities practised upon our prisoners, they are to be restrained by no moral restraint. Everybody will concede that. They are brutes in the form of man; they are savages worse than the wildest Indian that ever ran loose on the prairies; and nothing like moral restraint will prevent their continuing these barbarities. Suppose they do; are we to continue them? Then what will the world say? What would any man say if he had the power in his own hands? What will the voice of Christian civilization say? That such barbarities must be arrested. Other nations have an interest in it. They cannot stand by and see the people of the United States become a band of savages, not fighting in honorable warfare, meeting the foe face to face, but after he has succumbed and yielded to the power exerted against him by either side and gets into the hands of either party, the work of extermination is to begin in the most odious and disgusting form ever known to civilized man. Would not one man, if a Christian, having the power, arrest it? Who can doubt that? Will not the nations of Christendom be called upon to arrest it? Will the God of justice fail to proclaim that it is their duty to arrest it?

“But then what is to become of the Union? Where is the struggle to end? From the first I never doubted how it would end if conducted upon high, elevated principle. I never for a moment questioned that the time would come, and as I think it should have come before, and would have come before if the armies of the United States had been properly used, but that the time was sure to come when the rebellion would be frustrated and the authority of the Government reinstated; and no matter what may happen, no matter what course from time to time the United States or the rebels may adopt, I shall continue to entertain the same expectation, and shall continue till the last ray of hope is extinguished in the darkness of perpetual night. But let us turn as against each other the arts of the savage; let us proclaim war to the knife, and, what is but little worse, a resort to such measures as are contemplated by this

resolution, and the other side continue to meet us in the same way—I speak it with due respect to those who entertain a different opinion about this resolution—we shall no longer have the support of the God of justice; the war ought to cease; the destruction of the Union, the end of the freest constitutional Government that ever existed will have come, and ought to come if it is to be supported only by a resort to savage methods.”

Mr. Sumner followed, in opposition to the measure, saying: “The committee, not content with what has been done—distrustful, perhaps, of the commanding general—have proposed that Congress shall instruct the President to enter upon a system of retaliation, where we shall imitate as precisely as possible rebel barbarism, and make our prisons the same scenes of torment which we denounce. Why, sir, to state the case is to answer it. The Senator from Michigan who advocates so eloquently this unprecedented retaliation attempted a description of the torments of the rebel prisons; but language failed him. After speaking of their ‘immeasurable criminality’ and ‘the horrors of these scenes,’ which he said were ‘absolutely indescribable,’ he proceeded to ask that we should do these same things; that we should take the lives of prisoners, even by freezing and starvation, or turn them into living skeletons—by act of Congress.

“Sir, the law of retaliation, which he invokes, has its limits, and these are found in the laws of civilized society. Admit the law of retaliation; but you cannot escape from its circumscription. As well undertake to escape from the planet on which we live. What civilization forbids cannot be done. Your enemy may be barbarous and cruel, but you cannot be barbarous and cruel. The rule is clear and unquestionable. Perhaps the true principle of law on this precise question was never better expressed than by one of our masters, Shakspeare, jurist as well as poet, when he makes Macbeth exclaim:

‘I dare do all that may become a man;
Who dares do more is none.’

So with us now. We are permitted to do all that may become a man; but nothing more.

Mr. Hale, of New Hampshire, followed, saying, relative to the exchange of colored troops: “The Senator from Kentucky, if I understood him, I will not undertake to give his words, but the idea, said, in substance, that if the only obstruction to the exchange of prisoners grows out of a refusal on the part of the rebels to exchange colored prisoners, the exchange ought to go on nevertheless, and the colored prisoners left in prison or in confinement; and I understood the Senator from Maryland to make substantially the same averment: that if the treatment of our colored prisoners was the only obstacle in the way of these exchanges, they ought to be left in prison.”

Mr. Davis: “The honorable Senator did not

state me exactly right. My position was this, that if any class of Union prisoners, without regard to color, could be exchanged by our Government, it was the duty of our Government to make the exchange, and not to permit the fact that another class of prisoners cannot be exchanged to be an obstacle to the exchange of those who can be exchanged, and that without regard to color.”

Mr. Hale: “That is a modified statement of the position, but the sentiment is the same. That statement, that opinion, and that position I deny utterly. If this Government, having called to its defence this most defenceless class, a class who are without rights, without the right to protect themselves or the right to seek protection under a Government of law—if this Government, in this gigantic struggle for its existence, has called upon that defenceless portion of its people to come into the ranks and fight its battles, if there is one duty on earth binding above all other duties upon this Government, it is to see that every protection consistent with the state of war and the laws of war and the rights of war are extended to that defenceless portion of our soldiery. Sir, look at them. What are they? The highest judicial tribunal of the land has said they were a class with no rights that white men were bound to respect; they were the outcasts and the down-trodden of earth; the common rights of humanity denied to them; holden, instead of being considered as men, like beasts of burden, and sold like them on the auction block. This country, in its hour of necessity and emergency, has called upon these men, and they have come forward; and the testimony of all your officers is that they have fought with a courage, a heroism, a bravery, and a devotion unsurpassed by any of your soldiers. The proposition that if they be captured and held by the rebels as prisoners they may be neglected and overlooked in any contingency, is to my mind monstrous, and would stamp this Government before all posterity and all time as guilty of the most infamous position they could take. When you called a black man into your army, when you gave him your uniform and made him a soldier, he became a soldier to all intents and purposes; and if there is one class more than another that has a right in the hour of its distress to appeal to the Government for protection, it is that most helpless and most defenceless class that you have put into your army. I say that if the Government, in its negotiations for exchanges, consents to the shadow of a shade of difference that shall operate to the disadvantage of the colored soldier, they are treacherous to the highest trusts that have been confided to them, and false and recreant to the first principles of duty which the position of these men imposes upon the Government.

“I desire to make these remarks in order that this sentiment might not go out unchallenged before the country. I repeat again that in proportion to their defenceless position they

have the higher claim upon the Government. What is the history of it? We began this war without their help. We were disposed to ignore them. We treated them in the manner in which the public policy of the General Government had treated them. But, sir, the God of nations and the God of justice taught us a terrible lesson. We were slow to learn it, but we learned it at last. We learned that in this gigantic strife it was necessary to our final success, to secure the blessing of the God of nations, that we should use for our defence in this struggle this very class of our population. We have called on them; we have called them into our service by hundreds and thousands, and by our legislation we are inviting them there again, and our armies in a great measure are filled up with them. What will be the effect, what will be the consequence, if it be proclaimed to-day that the Government of the United States have adopted a policy which looks to the exchange of their white prisoners, leaving the black prisoners to their fate?"

Mr. Johnson replied: "I put it to the Senator from New Hampshire whether, if this state of things shall exist, he would be willing that there should be no exchanges. We have of their prisoners, say thirty thousand; they have of ours thirty thousand; and of that thirty thousand ten thousand are colored soldiers. They are willing to exchange the twenty thousand that they have of white soldiers for the twenty thousand that we have of their white soldiers; but the United States say, No; we will do no such thing; we will leave in rebel imprisonment, subject to all the cruelties to which they are subjected, the entire white soldiery of the United States, because we are unable to get back more than a portion of our soldiers, the rebels having decided, or being supposed to have determined, that they would not release any of their black prisoners. Does the honorable member say that would be right? He feels for the black soldier not more strongly than I do. I have said before, upon this floor, at the last session, and, I believe, at the present session, that I would go as far as any Senator in protecting any black man who might be enlisted into the service of the United States, and shouldered his musket to protect the rights of the United States; but while I feel all the sympathy and all the obligation consequent upon the extent of that proper sympathy to the black prisoner, I cannot forget that there is sympathy due to the white soldier, and an obligation growing out of that sentiment."

Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, said: "Now, what was the simple proposition that I submitted? It was a proposition to send two commissioners, or commissaries, if you choose to call them so, to consult with the rebel authorities with a view to the better treatment of our prisoners, and to devise a practicable system for that purpose. That such a commission could do it, costing us, I admit, some money to carry it out, I do not entertain a doubt. In

fact, a few weeks ago a partial arrangement was made with the rebel authorities by which they sent cotton to New York, sold that cotton, and took the proceeds and invested it for the relief and benefit of their own prisoners in our hands. General Beale, of Arkansas, a prisoner in Boston harbor, is engaged to-day in carrying out that arrangement on their part. General Hays, of Boston, a prisoner captured on the Weldon Railroad, and a prisoner now, is engaged, I understand, on our part in doing something for the relief of our prisoners. This partial relief already secured has done more to alleviate the sufferings of our prisoners than all the talk and all the speeches that have been made in the Senate and the country; and I believe that if we addressed ourselves to that matter of humanity as we should, we could do a great deal to relieve the sufferings of our brave soldiers in rebel hands.

"There is nothing inconsistent with that proposition in passing the Senator's resolution for retaliation. I do not oppose that resolution if the words 'in kind' were stricken out of it. The resolution originally reported from the Committee on Military Affairs by the Senator from Michigan I could not vote for. That resolution, in its preamble, arraigns the rebels for barbarism and cruelty that would disgrace the devils in the bottomless pit, and then asks us to treat their men 'in kind.' I could not do it; I could not vote for it. I have not the nerve, and I thank God I have not the nerve, to carry that out upon any being that breathes God's air or walks His earth."

Mr. Sprague, of Rhode Island, said: "Sir, the cause of this treatment of our men by the rebels has not been so thoroughly understood as it might have been. The Senator from Iowa (Mr. Harlan) has suggested to you the good effects that have been produced by our retaining the rebel prisoners in our hands. I agree heartily with the suggestion that he made early in this debate. I know something of the disposition of our people early in this war to let their blows strike lightly upon the head of this rebellion. I know that the disposition of our soldiers was not to form their lines as steadily as they should, and to do the real, hard service that was demanded of them. This treatment has been practised by the rebels upon Union soldiers to bring about the very result that has been brought about, and that is, an exchange of prisoners. It was known that the exchange proposed between this Government and the authorities of Rebeldom was unfair; it was known that they captured private citizens and endeavored to offset them with our soldiers. We refused to agree to it; and these retaliatory measures on their part have been the means of producing the results which have come to us in the newspapers and otherwise.

"I do not mean to apologize in any way for these barbarities, but this much I will say: that the refusal of this Government to exchange has wrought up the soldiers of our armies and the

people to the prosecution of this war with an energy unknown to any other people; and the victories of Nashville, the campaign of Atlanta, the splendid success of Savannah, consummated by the capture of Fort Fisher, may be as much owing to the sacrifices and sufferings of our brave men in rebel prisons as to any other cause. While I will not for a moment on this floor apologize in the least for the barbarities of this cruel foe, I yet see something in the course they have pursued to the advantage of this country, and a greater reason not to imitate their example. Sir, there will be no individuals or families who will receive from the people of this country more real respect and adoration than will go forth from the whole people to these suffering heroes. I believe it has been their fortune, suffering as they have, to do more real service to their country in this, its greatest emergency, than ten thousand times the efforts of any other of our citizens. I believe that if you had put upon our advancing armies the strength that we have withheld in our prison camps, if you had put the thirty or forty thousand rebel troops whom we have held as prisoners again in arms against this Government and against our soldiers, the result of their efforts would have put back the success of this contest for years, and would have produced more suffering and more disastrous effects than the suffering that has been brought on our heroes and martyrs in Southern prisons."

Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, closed the debate, saying: "The question with me, however, is whether this measure as proposed, advising the President of the United States to resort to it now, would lead to any practical good. I doubt it.

"The question has been discussed in every possible form in which it could be presented except one; every suggestion possible to be made but one for the relief of the suffering Federal prisoners has been made. That one I propose to make; and whether it be popular or unpopular, whether it shall be heralded by the papers as patriotic or unpatriotic, is a matter of indifference to me. That measure is peace. If these acts of cruelty which are alleged to have been perpetrated have been perpetrated, it is only additional proof that this war ought never to have been begun; but having been begun, that it ought instantly to stop. If these allegations be true, these enormities disgrace man and reduce him to the level of the brute; ay, sir, reduce him to the level of the fiends.

"I am not ashamed to raise my humble voice in the Senate of the United States in behalf of peace. Peace descends from Heaven—war springs from hell; and when hell's agency is at work, you cannot expect the blessings of Heaven. It is seldom, sir, that I can approve of any act of the President of the United States; but if the rumor be true which is current to-day that commissioners are on their way from the South to this capital to treat for

peace, and that that is the result of an informal message from the President of the United States, I will take occasion here, while approving but little that he has done before, to approve his action in that respect. Sooner than resort to the bloody scenes which may result from a system of retaliation, if it be true that commissioners are to meet to discuss the terms of peace, instead of invoking starvation and death upon any set of men, any set of prisoners, either Federal or Confederate, I would, if it were in my power, cause the thunderbolts of the Almighty to roll and the lightnings of heaven to flash one continued flame between the contending armies, until these commissioners meet to consult in reference to the great boon of peace.

"It is peace, sir, that this country wants. Give us peace, and no Federal soldiers will ever again rot in Confederate bastilles or prisons, or starve in Confederate pens. Give us peace, and the mother whose aching heart and streaming eyes you now witness, will bless you for your deed. Give us peace, and instead of these acts of barbarism of which we hear, your land shall again bloom and blossom as the rose. Sir, in the place of retaliatory measures, in the stead of resorting to acts of cruelty to meet acts of cruelty, and to prevent them in the future, I propose that your commissioners meet, and I invoke you, if this be the honest aim of the President of the United States, lend him your willing and cordial aid; and then, sir, you will have no need for retaliation; then, sir, your soldiers no longer will be starved or murdered or ill treated, but they shall return to their homes long left, to cheer their families, to rejoice again that peace blesses the land, and that their country does not require any further sacrifice of life or blood upon their part."

The motion to recommit the resolution was lost—ayes, 10; noes, 26.

The question was then taken, on agreeing to the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts to the Senator from Ohio. It was adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Carlile, Cowan, Davis, Doolittle, Foot, Foster, Harlan, Harris, Henderson, Hendricks, Johnson, Lane of Indiana, McDougall, Morgan, Nesmith, Pomeroy, Powell, Richardson, Riddle, Saulsbury, Sherman, Sumner, Ten Eyck, Van Winkle, Willey, Wilson, and Wright—27.

NAYS—Messrs. Chandler, Clark, Collamer, Conness, Dixon, Farwell, Hale, Howard, Howe, Ramsay, Trumbull, Wade, and Wilkinson—13.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Brown, Buckalew, Grimes, Harding, Hicks, Lane of Kansas, Morrill, and Sprague—9.

Several other amendments were made, and the resolution was agreed to in the Senate. It did not pass the House.

In the Senate, on December 21st, Mr. Harlan of Iowa, called up the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Committee on the District of Columbia be instructed to inquire into the expediency and propriety of requiring all residents of the

District of Columbia to take and file with the provost marshal of said District an oath of allegiance or fidelity to the Government of the United States similar to the oath required by law of Members and Senators in Congress and other officers of the Government; and also the expediency and propriety of prohibiting all persons from doing business in said District or with the several Departments of the Government who have not or may not take and file such oath; and that said committee have leave to report by bill or otherwise.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, said: "I wish to thank the Senator from Iowa for introducing this proposition, and at the same time to call the attention of the Senate to a bill which is on their calendar, which I had the honor of introducing at the last session, but which, for some unaccountable reason unknown to me, has been reported upon adversely by the Committee on the Judiciary, requiring that same oath to be taken by the practitioners in the courts of the United States. I am told that there are lawyers in the city of Washington who decline to practise in the courts here because they are unwilling to take the oath which you, sir, have taken, and which the Chief Justice of the United States only the other day took before he entered upon his functions; and yet these same lawyers flaunt in the Supreme Court of the United States. That ought to be stopped; and I give notice therefore that, carrying out the spirit of the resolution of the Senator from Iowa, I shall ask the attention of the Senate as soon as possible to that bill."

Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, followed in opposition, saying: "It is not my intention to discuss at any length this resolution, but simply to ask for the yeas and nays on its adoption. I would take that oath myself very willingly, although I believe, as far as relates to members of Congress, it is wholly unconstitutional. I do not object to it, as far as it could relate to myself, because of any thing other than its unconstitutionality contained in it; but I regard it, if it should pass, as one of those acts of unnecessary oppression on the part of the Government which in times like these ought to be avoided. Is there any evidence before this Senate that the old inhabitants of this city, those of them who are living here, have given any trouble to this Government, or even to this Administration?"

Mr. Harlan, of Iowa, in reply, said: "This is a resolution instructing the committee to make an inquiry on this subject. It is barely possible that the committee might report adversely to any legislation. I am frank to state, however, that I think some such legislation is necessary, and ought to be had. I did not suppose a resolution of this kind would implicate any member of this body. It is not intended to require opponents of the Administration *per se* to take an oath of fidelity to the Administration as a political organization, but an oath of fidelity to the Government itself during the existence of a gigantic rebellion. While, then, I maintain that in my opinion some such legislation may be necessary, and

I desire the inquiry to be made by one of the standing committees of this body, I do not think it can be properly denominated a measure of persecution against political opponents of the party in power; and I think the Senator does himself and his political friends gross injustice in throwing out such an intimation. He surely does not desire the mass of the people of this country to understand that he and his political associates are opponents of the Government of the United States and are in sympathy and alliance with the rebels."

Mr. Saulsbury, in reply, said: "Sir, those who choose to regard me and my political associates as in sympathy with the rebellion are welcome to the indulgence of their very charitable opinion. I shall do naught, as a member of this body or in private life, to remove any such suspicion from their minds. I know very well the distinction between the Government of the United States and the Administration at the present time. I know they are asunder as far as the poles; that they approach each other no nearer than heaven and earth approach each other; but I know the doctrine attempted to be inculcated at the present day by a large number of people in this country and by a very influential press, and that is, that the Government is the Administration, and the Administration is the Government. I see no objection on all proper occasions to any man and every man in the United States taking an oath to support the Government of the United States and the Constitution of the United States. But, sir, the honorable Senator does not live in the section that some of us do. He has not seen the progress that these measures have made. He has not heard it announced, perhaps, as we have, that it is traitorous to oppose the actions of the Administration in times like these. He has not heard voters at the polls questioned in reference to their fidelity to an Administration, not their fidelity to a Government or to a Constitution. Sir, had the honorable Senator lived in the section from which I come, had he lived in what was once the glorious and gallant State of Maryland—if the Senator from Maryland (Mr. Johnson) will pardon me—which is now the province of Maryland, under the acts of this Administration, he would have seen how the very inception of such measures as this worked injury, and how in their progress they work harder."

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, followed, saying: "I am opposed to a resolution that contemplates the increase of oaths in this country. Why does the Senator intimate by his resolution that it is necessary to pass a law to require the people to take an oath of this sort? Have these oaths been required of the people without authority of law all over the country? It has been done in Indiana, in Kentucky, and, I venture to say, in the Senator's own State, without authority of law. Then does the Senator by this inquiry intend to be understood as saying that the Administration has pursued a course not authorized by law in this respect? Very

many men, very many honest men, very many true citizens have been required to subscribe oaths to protect their persons and their property. The Senator by this resolution intimates that that is all wrong and illegal. I grant that it is. It is a shame that without authority of law any man has been required to take an oath which is not required of the rest of the people."

Mr. Harlan, of Iowa, further said: "The Senator desired me to state whether I knew of any facts that would justify the passage of any such law as the resolution contemplates. I am amazed that any one could ask such a question as that who has lived in this District for a single month. We all know that there are people living in this District who are not only in sympathy with the rebellion, but who embrace every available opportunity to aid the rebels in arms against their Government, who carry goods through the lines on every occasion that they can make available, and who send the proceeds of their trades and of their professions to their sons, and brothers, and husbands in the rebel army, so that we are, in harboring them in our midst, indirectly supporting the rebellion. In my opinion, we have a right to drive them from this community."

The resolution was adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Clark, Collamer, Conness, Dixon, Farwell, Foot, Foster, Grimes, Hale, Harlan, Howard, Lane of Indiana, Lane of Kansas, Morgan, Pomeroy, Sherman, Sprague, Sumner, Ten Eyck, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wilkinson, and Willey—24.

NAYS—Messrs. Brown, Buckalew, Cowan, Davis, Henderson, Hendricks, Johnson, Powell, Richardson, and Saulsbury—10.

ABSENT—Messrs. Carlile, Chandler, Doolittle, Harding, Harris, Hicks, Howe, McDougall, Morrill, Nesmith, Ramsey, Riddle, Wade, Wilson, and Wright—15.

On December 22d, on motion of Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, the Senate took up the bill supplementary to the act "prescribing an oath of office," &c., which had been reported upon adversely by the Committee on the Judiciary. It provided that no person, after the 4th of March next, should be admitted to the bar of the Supreme Court of the United States, or of any circuit or district court of the United States, or of the Court of Claims, as an attorney or counsellor of such court, or be allowed to appear and be heard in any such court, by virtue of any previous admission or any special power of attorney, unless he have first taken and subscribed the oath prescribed in "An act to prescribe an oath of office, and for other purposes," approved July 2, 1862, according to the forms and in the manner provided in that act; which oath so taken and subscribed is to be preserved among the files of such court; and any person who should falsely take the oath should be guilty of perjury, and, on conviction, be liable to the pains and penalties of perjury, and the additional pains and penalties in that act provided.

The bill was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Brown, Clark, Collamer, Conness, Dixon, Doolittle, Farwell, Foot, Foster, Grimes, Harlan, Harris, Henderson, Johnson, Lane of Indiana, Lane of Kansas, Morgan, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Sherman, Sprague, Sumner, Ten Eyck, Van Winkle, Willey, and Wilson—27.

NAYS—Messrs. Buckalew, Davis, Richardson, and Saulsbury—4.

ABSENT—Messrs. Carlile, Chandler, Cowan, Hale, Harding, Hendricks, Hicks, Howard, Howe, McDougall, Morrill, Nesmith, Powell, Riddle, Trumbull, Wade, Wilkinson, and Wright—18.

This bill subsequently passed the House of Representatives.

In the House, on January 10th, Mr. Kernan, of New York, by unanimous consent, introduced the following resolution; which was read, considered, and agreed to:

Resolved, That the Committee on Military Affairs be, and the same is, directed to inquire and report to the House what legislation or action, if any, is necessary to secure to persons arrested and imprisoned by military authority a prompt examination into the cause of their arrest, and their discharge if there be no adequate cause for their detention, and a speedy trial where there is such cause.

In the House, on January 18th, Mr. Ganson, of New York, offered the following resolution, which was agreed to:

Resolved, That the Military Committee be, and they are hereby, directed to ascertain and report to this House as soon as possible the number of persons now confined in the Old Capitol and Carroll prisons; when such persons were respectively arrested and confined, and upon what charges their arrests were made; whether any of such persons are officers of the army, and have been confined without a trial beyond the time in that respect prescribed by law or by the regulations in the military service; and whether any persons so in prison are confined without any written charges made against them; and whether there are any persons now in said prisons who have not had any trial; if so, to report the names of such persons, the time when they were arrested, and the alleged cause of their arrest respectively; and that the said committee be, and they are hereby, authorized to send for persons and papers.

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, subsequently moved to reconsider the vote by which the resolution was agreed to. He said: "I thought that it was a resolution of inquiry, and I now find that it is absolute and directory."

Mr. Ganson, of New York, replied: "I know the case of one of my constituents, a captain, who has been confined in prison since the 27th of October last without charges being preferred against him, and after he had served three years and a half in the army. I called upon him on Saturday and was permitted to inquire into his case in the presence of a turnkey, who insisted upon sitting between him and myself and listening to our conversation. I felt it to be a personal indignity, and I am determined that the position of this prisoner shall be investigated if there is any power in this House to have it done."

Mr. Davis, of Maryland, followed, saying: "Mr. Speaker, I do not see why that resolution should not stand. I suppose it is the right of the House of Representatives, and more than

its right, its duty, to see that the liberty of the citizen is not unlawfully violated. If persons have been confined in these prisons beyond the period allowed by law, we are entitled to know it, that we may apply a remedy. If persons are there confined, under the discretionary order of the President, which discretion we have conferred upon him by the law suspending the writ of *habeas corpus*, that is an adequate and conclusive reply to any investigation. If any officer of the army has been arrested, not under the discretionary power conferred upon the President, but in the administration of the ordinary laws for the government of the army, there is a law that entitles him to trial or to his discharge at the expiration of a certain period of time if he be not tried; and I understand the gentleman from New York (Mr. Ganson) to have said that within his knowledge there is one case of that kind."

Mr. Ganson: "I know of two such cases."

Mr. Davis, of Maryland: "The honorable gentleman states that he knows of two such cases. My impression is that it is likely there are other cases of this kind; and one such case justifies and requires the adoption of the resolution."

"There is another ground upon which, in my judgment, it ought to stand. The law suspending the writ of *habeas corpus* in some respects, in my judgment, too much limited the discretion which ought to have been confided to the President when that writ was suspended; yet, being the law of the land, it must be obeyed, and I think—I had almost said with my knowledge—it has not been obeyed."

Mr. Cox, of Ohio, said: "I would like, Mr. Speaker, to have read for the information of the House the first and second sections of the law to which the gentleman from Maryland (Mr. Davis) has just referred; I mean the law which regulates the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*, which lays down expressly the effect of such suspension, and directs that the Secretary of State and the Secretary of War shall report to the judges of the circuit and district courts of the United States the names of prisoners. I should like also to enlarge the scope of this resolution so as to inquire why it is that that law has not been obeyed, and whether there has been any attempt made to carry out the law, by the indictment of the persons whose duty it is under that law to report the names of those who are in prison. I would like to know whether the district attorneys of the United States have done their duty; whether such lists have ever been furnished, or whether the law made by the American Congress is a dead letter; whether the executive department, even the legal portion of the executive department, can set aside our laws when they please for their own purposes."

"I do not make these remarks without having cases in my eye—not alone the distinguished case referred to by the gentleman from Maryland, and the case of Mr. Vallandigham. There are

other cases—cases in which the Secretary of the Treasury, under some peculiar 'higher law' unknown to our statutes, has, for purposes connected with the revenue, or to protect the issue of greenbacks or shinplasters against counterfeiting, caused persons to be arrested by the military power. And there are now men in the Capitol prison, almost within the sound of the voice of at least some of the members of this House, who are kept there month after month on the mere order of the Solicitor of the Treasury on the charge of forgery. Applications have been made by their friends again and again to have their persons removed to the proper jurisdictions in the States and districts where the law is unimpeded by the military authority, and no attention has been paid to the request. They still remain there. There is a case from my own district of an old man who has been suspected of counterfeiting. He could be released at any moment by the Solicitor of the Treasury, if he chose. Is there no relief for these abuses? Shall we not be permitted to inquire about them with a view to future legislation?"

Mr. Coffroth, of Pennsylvania, also said: "Mr. Speaker, I know that Lieutenant Nelson, a brave and gallant officer from my district, has been confined in the Capitol prison for four long months. By permission of the Secretary of War I went on Monday last to see him, and he told me that there had been no charges up to this time preferred against him, and that he did not know why he was imprisoned. He had served in the army two years; he had been wounded and had a limb amputated, and he was hobbling through that prison on crutches. In cases of this kind, I think it is right for this House to carry out this resolution, and make it compulsory upon the committee to examine into this matter and let the people of the country know why their friends are detained in these prisons."

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, said: "The whole resolution, as explained by the various speakers, and the gentleman from Maryland (Mr. Davis) especially, is censorious on the War Department. Now, if the Department deserve censure, I am willing that it shall have it. But there may be several things that are not expedient at this moment to disclose except it were in secret committee, as the gentleman has said. If the usual form be observed of directing the Military Committee to inquire into the expediency of investigating these matters, I shall have no objection to the inquiry. But no one can deny that the passage of the resolution is a direct censure on the Department. I do not say that it was so intended, but I do say that it has that effect. However, if the gentleman from New York has no objection to letting me look into it more carefully, I will move to postpone the further consideration of the matter."

Mr. Kasson, of Iowa, said: "I desire to add my testimony, so far as it may go—and will

give my reasons for it—to the propriety of the investigation proposed. It would constitute not the slightest objection with me, resting my opinion on facts within my own knowledge, that it may imply censure on one Department of the Government; for I believe that the time has arrived when it is due to the people of this country that Congress shall examine the extent and manner in which the power of the Secretary of War is exercised. I state it on my responsibility as a member of the House that an order taken from the President to the Secretary of War, for a certain object, has been met with the reply 'I shall not do it, sir;' and when an explanation has been asked it has been met by the reply, 'I do not propose to argue the question; I am responsible to the President, and to him alone, for my conduct.' When a Representative of the people is met by a responsible officer of the Government in that way, it constitutes with me no objection to a proposition that it may possibly imply censure on the head of an executive Department.

"One thing more: if he be the man he is charged with being, who could in June last have exchanged prisoners of war of the United States on terms recognized throughout all civilized nations, yet left ten or twenty thousand of our gallant men to perish in rebel pens during the last summer, again I find a reason why his administration of that Department should be investigated. I do not want the letters to increase on my table urging Congress to investigate some of these facts connected with the exchange of our soldiers in rebel hands. For the satisfaction of my own constituents, at least, I desire to have an investigation wherever the public interests may require it, and wherever the military rights of the soldiers or the personal rights of citizens are involved."

Mr. Davis, of Maryland, still further added: "I do not desire to be understood as saying that the law is violated under one Department of the Government more than under another. Nor must it be assumed that arrests are made only under the order of the President, or of the heads of Departments. Wherever the fault may lie, they are made by every lieutenant and every provost marshal, from one end of the country to the other, at discretion, and almost without complaint. I speak now directly of what I know to be the case in Maryland. These arrests are sometimes justifiable, and sometimes unjustifiable; sometimes made by a person calling himself a provost marshal, not known to the laws of the United States, acting absolutely without knowledge on the part of the Secretary of War that he held authority from him or from anybody else. And such is getting to be the habit of everybody in the country to act at the bidding of any provost marshal or military officer that the very independence of the American character is being broken down under the unchecked license of military arrests. The law, sir, is not so deficient; but the people have been educated with-

in the last three years in the belief that the existence of a state of war justifies any thing and every thing in the shape of discretionary and arbitrary authority on the part of military officers, high and low, until the very laws of the land intended for the protection of the citizen are not invoked by the people, because they fear that to invoke them will offend the military power and bring its irresponsible vengeance on their heads. When I say that, I say it on my personal knowledge.

"Gentlemen have appealed to me to redress, in the un-American mode of soliciting favor, some of the grievances suffered in Maryland by persons who are loyal citizens. I have pointed them to the law on the subject, and asked, 'Why do you not indict the wrong-doers? The law for the suspension of the *habeas corpus* is your adequate protection. Why do you not indict them?' 'We are afraid,' the reply has been, 'to incur the displeasure of the military authorities.' I wish it to be understood that there is a power higher than the military authority, whether that authority be lodged in the hands of a lieutenant, or of a provost marshal, or of the President of the United States, and that that power is here. I impeach nobody; I cast reflections upon nobody; I speak of things, not men; of grievances, not of the persons responsible for them; but I say abuses are committed by subordinates, if not by gentlemen in superior authority, that require our intervention, and I shall most cheerfully vote for this resolution."

Mr. Garfield, of Ohio, said: "Mr. Speaker, I will detain the House for a moment only. The resolution which passed the House yesterday I will say is now being executed by the Committee on Military Affairs. I have this moment arrived in the hall, after a visit of two hours to one of the prisons in this city in obedience to that resolution; I am not now at liberty to disclose the action of that committee, for the investigation is still pending. But I earnestly hope that the House will not reconsider the vote by which that resolution was adopted, and thus put a stop to the investigation."

The motion to reconsider was laid on the table—ayes, 136; nays, 5.

In the House, on February 20th, the following resolution was offered:

Resolved, That the President of the United States be respectfully requested, and that the Secretary of State and the Secretary of War be directed, to report and furnish to this House the names of all persons, if any there are, who have been arrested and are now held in imprisonment or confinement in any prison, fort, or other place whatsoever, for political offences or any other alleged offence against the Government or authority of the United States, by the order, command, consent, or knowledge of them, or either of them respectively, and who have not been charged, tried, or convicted before any civil or criminal, not military, court of the land, together with the charge against such person, or cause for such arrest and imprisonment, except only such persons who may at the time of their arrest have been in the military or naval service of the United States, together with the name of the prison, fort, or place

where they are severally kept or confined; also whether any person or persons, for any alleged like offence, have been banished or sent from the United States, or from the States not in rebellion to the rebellious States; and the names, times, alleged offences or cause thereof, and whether with or without trial; and if tried, before what court.

The motion to lay on the table was lost by the following vote:

YEs—Messrs. Ames, Ashley, Baxter, Beaman, Blair, Boutwell, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Freeman Clarke, Cobb, Cole, Thomas T. Davis, Deming, Dixon, Dumont, Eckley, Eliot, Farnsworth, Grinnell, Higby, Hooper, John H. Hubbard, Hulburt, Julian, Kasson, Kelley, Francis W. Kellogg, Knox, Littlejohn, Loan, Longyear, Marvin, McBride, McClurg, Samuel F. Miller, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Amos Myers, Norton, Patterson, Perham, Pomeroy, William H. Randall, John H. Rice, Edward H. Ross, Shannon, Sloan, Smith, Smithers, Starr, Tracy, Upson, William B. Washburn, and Worthington—54.

NAYs—Messrs. James C. Allen, Allison, Ancona, Bailly, Augustus C. Baldwin, John D. Baldwin, Bliss, Brandegee, James S. Brown, William G. Brown, Chandler, Clay, Coffroth, Cox, Dawson, Denison, Donnelly, Driggs, Eden, Edgerton, Eldridge, Finck, Ganson, Griswold, Harrington, Charles M. Harris, Herrick, Holman, Hutchins, Ingersoll, Kalbfleisch, Orlando Kellogg, Kernan, Knapp, LeBlond, Long, Mallory, Marcy, McKinney, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Nelson, Noble, Odell, Pendleton, Prayn, Radford, Ross, John B. Steele, William G. Steele, Thayer, Townsend, Wadsworth, Whaley, Wheeler, Wilson, Winfield, and Fernando Wood—58.

It was subsequently referred to the Committee on Military Affairs.

In the Senate, on March 3d, the Civil Appropriation Bill being under consideration, Mr. Lane, of Indiana, moved to strike out the following section:

Sec. 18. *And be it further enacted,* That no person shall be tried by court-martial or military commission in any State or Territory where the courts of the United States are open, except persons actually mustered or commissioned or appointed in the military or naval service of the United States, or rebel enemies charged with being spies.

He said: "Mr. President, here is a regular appropriation bill, every item of which is to carry out an express provision of law or is recommended by one of the Departments of the Government; and upon that bill in the last hours of the session is introduced this provision calculated to revolutionize and change the whole military jurisprudence of the country for the last four years. What business has this proposition upon such an appropriation bill? What connection has it with an appropriation bill? I fail utterly to see that it has any connection with the bill before the Senate. You are told by this provision that no one, except those in the military or naval service of the United States or a spy within our lines, shall be tried by a court-martial. Is that the law? Has it been the law for the last sixty years, or from the very foundation of the Government? No such provision has been the law. I ask the Secretary to read the fifty-sixth and fifty-seventh Articles of War passed under the Ad-

ministration of Thomas Jefferson, who was a democrat when democracy was not an idle name; when it meant something; when it meant devotion to human rights; and there you will see the jurisdiction of military courts affirmed and confirmed. Those articles have been applied in military courts for the last sixty years; and yet we are now told that this whole jurisdiction shall be stricken down in this time of war and rebellion. I ask the Secretary to read those two sections to show the complete jurisdiction of military courts in all such cases."

The Secretary read as follows:

56. Whosoever shall relieve the enemy with money, victuals, or ammunition, or shall knowingly harbor or protect an enemy, shall suffer death, or such other punishment as shall be ordered by the sentence of a court-martial.

57. Whosoever shall be convicted of holding correspondence with, or giving intelligence to the enemy, either directly or indirectly, shall suffer death, or such other punishment as shall be ordered by the sentence of a court-martial.

Mr. Lane continued: "The Senate will perceive by reading the section immediately preceding these two sections that the punishment was confined to men enlisted in the military or naval service; but when it comes to these provisions, these two classes are expressly excluded, and it applies to every one in a time of war who shall give aid and comfort to the enemy. If you will read the four preceding sections you will find that they apply expressly to men in the naval or military service of the United States; but when it comes to these two sections, these classes are expressly excluded, and it applies universally to all people, and it should so apply. We are now in a state of civil war. The war rages South and the war rages North, and wheresoever aid and comfort are given to the enemy there the jurisdiction of a military court applies, and ought to apply.

"How was it last summer in my own State? A treasonable organization was gotten up to murder and assassinate our governor, to release the rebel prisoners, and to deluge in blood the fair plains of that great State from the lakes to the Ohio River, giving aid and comfort to the enemy. Military courts were organized to try the conspirators, and they may now be under sentence of death; but if you adopt this proposition, you rebuke the whole policy of the Government. A court is now organized in Ohio to try the Chicago conspirators, who were in complicity, as I verily believe, as much as I believe in my own existence, or in the God above me, with many of the leaders of the Chicago convention to revolutionize the Northwestern States, to release the rebel prisoners, and to burn the city of Chicago. They are now under trial; but if you adopt this proposition, they cannot be tried by a military court. They must be turned over to the civil tribunals. How are they constituted? By a jury to be called, with the right of challenge and the right of the 'Sons of Liberty' to sit upon the jury

and how will you get convictions? I believe that this bill had far better fail than to incorporate any such provision upon it. It is but a *réecho* of the old cry against arbitrary arrests that I first heard in this chamber from the mouth of John O. Breckinridge, now a rebel in arms against the Government. All that has been said against arbitrary arrests I heard more eloquently and more ably said by him than I have heard by any once since; and yet this is introduced here as a rebuke to the Administration, as a rebuke to all these military courts! Let me tell the Senate that when you put in operation all the machinery of criminal courts and all the machinery of civil courts, you will not punish the one-hundredth part of the rebels, North or South, who deserve to die a felon's death."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, said: "I never heard a different construction given to the Articles of War adopted by Congress in 1806, and certainly never heard it intimated that it was possible, by any interpretation of the fifth constitutional amendment, to authorize a man to be tried for a capital or other infamous offence except on an indictment and presentment, unless he was in the military or naval service of the United States or in the militia. But the practical construction that these military men have put upon that clause is that they have the power to try everybody who is charged with any offence that in their opinion remotely affects the military service, or remotely—no matter how remotely—has a tendency to aid the rebellion. I know the military prisons in Baltimore have been filled with citizens who have been charged with no offence that, except by a military sense, could be construed in any way as assisting the rebellion; and that is the case all over the country; and it is attended with enormous expense. There have been at times from one to two hundred men in Baltimore, citizens of Maryland or citizens who happened to be found there, imprisoned; not notified of what the offence for which they were imprisoned was until they were brought out before a military commission or military court-martial to be tried; and that was not done until they had been in prison for months and months. And when they are brought out, how are they tried? They are tried by a violation of the most ordinary and best-established rules of evidence. All the safeguards and rules of evidence, adopted after the experience of centuries and thrown around the citizen who is charged with an offence, have been disregarded. What is the operation upon the Government in a financial point of view? The honorable member from Ohio showed me a letter the other day stating that there was a trial going on in Cincinnati at that time that had cost or would cost the Government from one to two hundred thousand dollars. A trial down in Boston, the trial to which I believe the honorable member from New Hampshire (Mr. Hale) referred the other day, cost the Government I do not know how much more.

"But not only have these military gentlemen violated, and, I think, as I speak it with all proper respect for the opinion of my friend from Indiana, their duty in the particulars to which I have adverted, but the provisions of your own legislation on the subject have been disregarded by the Executive. Congress was aware—the wailings from every State brought the fact to your knowledge—that these outrages upon the liberty of the citizen were being perpetrated; that men were kept in prison, not for days, for weeks, or for months, but for years, without being advised of what the charge against them was, and you therefore, as far back as the 3d of March, 1863, said:

That the Secretary of State and the Secretary of War be, and they are hereby, directed, as soon as practicable, to furnish to the judges of the circuit and district courts of the United States, and of the District of Columbia, a list of the names of all persons, citizens of States in which the administration of the laws has continued unimpaired in the said Federal courts, who are now, or may hereafter be, held as prisoners of the United States, by order or authority of the President of the United States, or either of said Secretaries, in any fort, arsenal, or other place, as State or political prisoners, or otherwise than as prisoners of war.

"The list is to be sent to the courts, and if there was no presentment or indictment within a limited time the parties are to be discharged. That law has been utterly disregarded. An investigation made by a committee of the other House some weeks ago exhibited a state of things existing here, within the sound of our voices, shocking to every sense of freedom which ought to be entertained by the American citizen. More than a year ago the President of the United States constituted a commission to visit these several places and discharge persons against whom there was no ground of arrest in their opinion, and they found, as one of them told me, here in the Old Capitol prison, right before us, a man who had been there for five or six months; and when the person who had placed him there was called before the commission to state upon what grounds he was placed there, he said that he had made a mistake; he was not the man he intended to arrest; he was somebody else.

"To say now that every citizen of the United States is to be dragged before a military tribunal is to say that our fathers fought during the revolution in vain. We are now, as long as this state of things lasts, in no better condition than the subjects of the Turkish empire; not in as good a condition as the subjects of the Emperor of France, if any one can, at the instance of any detective of the Government, be cast into prison, and whenever he may think proper, or the military may think proper, brought out and tried by a military commission who do not know what the rules of evidence are, or who, if they do know, in general utterly disregard them. I have done, sir."

Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, said: "Mr. President, but for the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*, but for the strong arm of the

war power, but for the enforcement of that power in this country, there would be no country to-day. We should not be here to-night but for the exercise of the war powers. Before we deliberately come forward and, in the face of the verdict of the people, censure an Administration that has held the helm of the ship of State through this terrific storm, this great trial of republican institutions, which in the end promises so much for the cause of human liberty, and declare that the exercise of this military power for the preservation of the nation, for the preservation of the great Republic, has been wrong, violent, oppressive, and wicked, let us pause. I am not prepared to take such a step."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, followed: "Nearly one-half the people of the North have been arrayed, not against the Government, but have been expressing dissatisfaction and weakening the arm of the Government by just such acts as this section seeks to avoid. From the beginning of this war I have believed that the true course to pursue was to preserve the Government and preserve liberty together. I believed that constitutional liberty, liberty regulated by law, could be preserved in this land. It is the liberty we are fighting for. And when gentlemen lay aside the law and the Constitution and say, 'There is no law, nothing but the strong arm,' how are you any better than the traitor you fight? What does he do but disregard the law and the Constitution? What is this rebellion but an armed resistance to constitutional and legal authority? If you would be strong, be strong under the banner of the law and the Constitution. Fight for liberty, fight for law, and then you will be strong."

"Now, sir, I have before me the report of the Secretary of War; and I wish to do an act of justice to that high officer on this occasion. I have often heard him denounced for these arbitrary arrests and for non-compliance with the act of Congress which made it his duty and the duty of other officers of the Government, whenever persons charged with political offences were arrested, to report their cases to the first term of the court which should be held in the proper district after the arrest took place. I am happy to know from this official report that in this respect the Secretary of War has endeavored to do his duty. The act of Congress making it the duty of the Secretaries to report to the judicial tribunals all cases of persons arrested in the loyal States charged with political offences was passed on the 3d day of March, 1863. Within twenty days from the time the act passed, and perhaps as soon as it came to the notice of the Secretary of War, he issued this order:

are observed in regard to all persons held in military custody.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.
Hon. J. Holt, Judge-Advocate General.

"Here was an order of the War Department, made within twenty days of the passage of the act, charging a particular officer in his Department with the execution of this law, and enjoining upon him that he should see that the provisions of the act were observed in regard to all persons held in custody. What more could he do? The Secretary of War could not personally visit all the prisons in the land, to ascertain if persons were held in confinement. He had to intrust this duty to some one; and if you will look through this report you will find that at different times he appointed commissions to visit the different prisons throughout the country and ascertain if there were persons held there in confinement who ought not to be confined; and many have been released by these commissioners. I make this statement in justice to a public officer. I have had some conversation with the Secretary of War upon this subject, and I learned from him that these arrests which had been made in the different parts of the country by subordinate officers had given him more pain than almost any thing else that had occurred during the war; that he had been unable to sleep at night in consequence of its coming to his knowledge that persons had without cause been thus arrested and sometimes held for a considerable period of time before it came to his notice."

"I voted for the law authorizing the suspension of the *habeas corpus*. I did it because in a time of war like this, in a great emergency, I thought there might be occasions when it was proper that men should be arrested and held in confinement. I voted for that law which provided that they might be taken and so held, and should not be released by a court or anybody else until after there was an opportunity to present their case to a grand jury, and not then unless the judge was satisfied that it was proper to release them, and they gave bond for their good behavior and took an oath of fidelity to the Government. But, sir, when I voted for that law, I did not expect that the writ of *habeas corpus* was to be regarded as suspended by all the subordinate officers throughout the land. I did not suppose that every provost marshal in the land would be at liberty to arrest whom he pleased, and keep him in confinement. I thought that whenever an arrest was made, the fact would be immediately reported to headquarters, to the War Department, or to the President himself, and that action would be taken in regard to the case at the earliest possible period. It seems the Secretary of War has endeavored to take action. It seems by this report that he has endeavored to discharge his duty in that respect; and I am glad that he has; and I am glad that the fact turns out to be that persons who have been arrested have

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON CITY, }
March 23, 1863.

COUNSEL: I beg you to direct your attention to the provision of the late act of Congress requiring prisoners held under military authority to be released within a certain time, and to ask that proceedings may be taken against such as are not proper to be released, and that you will see that the provisions of that law

had relief and been discharged where it did not appear on investigation that there were any charges against them sufficient to put them on trial.

"In regard to the section under consideration, I think it should be guarded; I think it should be so framed as not to impair the efficiency of the Government in carrying on this war, and not unnecessarily to infringe upon the right of the citizen. Sir, I have a great respect for law. I love the Constitution.

"I say to the Senators who are so zealous to-night in favor of military trials, who are in favor of trying the citizen by a military tribunal, that you are setting an example which is utterly subversive of the Constitution and regulated liberty; you are overturning all that the Anglo-Saxon race has contended for, for two hundred years, which is, the right of the citizen to be protected and regulated by law, and not to have his rights and his liberties dependent upon an officer, without law, and in disregard of it. There is no law regulating these trials of the citizen. Whenever an act is done—and I think that is the distinction—connected with the military service of the Government, there the military tribunals take hold of the party. Wherever the judicial tribunals of the country are overborne, of necessity the military tribunals must govern."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "Mr. President, I cannot listen to the remarks of the Senator from Illinois without attempting something in the shape of a reply. What does this section propose which is now moved to be stricken out? It proposes to release and liberate hundreds of rogues and conspirators now confined in prison awaiting trial, and some of them undergoing their sentences; to set them at liberty again to plot and conspire against the peace and safety of the United States.

"Had it not been for the salutary use of this restraining power on the part of the Executive as Commander-in-chief of the army, it is, I think, no news to say to the Senator from Illinois that the very city in which he resides would have been reduced to a mass of cinders and ashes during the sitting of the Chicago Convention; for it is perfectly well known, as well established as any fact can be, that on that occasion there were thousands of conspirators who came over from Canada, where they had been hatching their plots against the United States, and for the very purpose of firing that town, liberating the prisoners confined at Camp Douglas, and doing other acts of mischief and destruction. Had it not been for the same protective, the same tutelary power which the Senator now denounces so bitterly, and of which he has heretofore spoken in this body in terms of approbation and praise on more than one occasion, the very dwelling of that Senator would have been laid in ashes by the hands of just such wretches as these military courts and commissions are intended to punish. Now, sir, away with this mawkish, affected sensibility in regard to courts-

martial! If there be any fault connected with them, and connected with the Administration on account of them, it is that they have not been used with sufficient vigor and vigilance. That is my opinion. The rigors belonging to martial law are in a moment of war and public danger the only restraining power sufficient to compel obedience to law and order. I will not trespass on the time of the Senate longer. I am glad the motion has been made to strike out that section so anomalous in a statute making appropriations."

Mr. Conness, of California, said: "I will simply say that rather than allow this section to pass, rather than that the Congress of which I am a member should knowingly adopt this section, and plant the condemnation of its expression upon the best acts of our people for four years past, I would see this appropriation bill and all the others that you have passed sunk into perdition. You cannot taint the bill before you with this miserable and disgraceful attack upon the patriotism of the land, and get my vote for it. It is a poor compliment at this time for us law-makers to pay to the men who have been our agents, the men who have been the mediums through which we have acted in all this great contest, that we now turn about and definitively say to them, 'You have violated liberty, you have outraged law, you have pulled down the great edifice of civil liberty, and we reproach you thus for it.' Such an act, Mr. President, can have no vote of mine.

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, said: "From the argument which has been indulged in one would think this was the first time this subject had been spoken of in the Senate. I beg leave to call the attention of Senators to the very proposition that is now before us which has been denounced with quite as much passion as judgment. This section provides that hereafter no person shall be tried by court-martial or military commission in any State or Territory where the courts of the United States are open, except persons actually mustered or in commission in the service of the United States, or enemies charged with being spies, and a modification acceptable to myself is proposed by the Senator from Illinois. Just two years ago to-day the Senate of the United States agreed to quite this much, and prescribed a penalty for the violation of the very principles defined in this section. When the Senate of the United States, two years ago, agreed that the President might suspend the writ of *habeas corpus*, it was not unconditionally and without restrictions, but it was with such provisions as would yet secure the liberty of the citizen. This law, which will not allow the President to put any man on his trial before a military court unless he be properly answerable before such a court, has stood for two years without a word of complaint from my worthy and very able colleague. But to-night he says he would rather see any of these appropriation bills fall; he would see all the appropriations necessary for the sup-

port of what he regards, and what I regard, to be the best Government on earth, go down to perdition rather than he would sanction that which has been the law of the land well expressed for two years. The trouble is not in the law. Senators, the law is plain. When you said there should be no longer the writ of *habeas corpus* in the United States, you said that in its stead there should be this high and sure remedy, that a man should only be held for a time, but that when the court came round, if the grand jury did not indict him he should be discharged. You said it. The question is, Shall it be the law, or shall there be above the Senate and above the House of Representatives a higher power in the country, a power to place a man upon trial?

"My colleague says that some of our fellow-citizens in Indiana have been put upon trial before courts-martial for civil offences. I know what the offence charged was. It was a conspiracy to commit treason. That was the charge. And where do you find the offence described? You find it defined in the act of 1862, well defined, and the penalty prescribed—not the penalty of going before a military court, but the penalty is a trial before the United States district court, a civil court, upon an indictment, and the punishment is to follow the judgment of that court. The law is, as we declared it, that the President shall not try a man who is not connected with the army or the navy before a military court, but that he shall simply hold him in custody, and for that time the writ of *habeas corpus* is suspended, and shall then bring him before the court, and if he is not found guilty by a grand jury he shall go acquitted. We said that; but the military officers say no, and, as my colleague says, in the very eye of that law men have been sentenced to death in Indiana. That is true, as I understand. Men have been so sentenced to die, and if they die in violation of law who is the murderer? No man's life can be taken except by authority of law. If there is authority of law for it my colleague may sustain the shedding of the blood, he may say that the garments of the officers are yet white after it is done; but it has been long decided by the tribunals of our race that if it is against law it is a murder. That has been too long decided to be questioned now."

Mr. Cowan, of Pennsylvania, said: "I am willing to say that I have had great charity for many people who at first supposed it was necessary to resort to military tribunals to find a remedy for disloyalty. The thought that the Union would be destroyed and the nation divided was so shocking to the minds of loyal men that they were not likely to stop at any means to prevent a consummation so much dreaded; but after the experience we have had of the mischievous working of unconstitutional measures, we ought not only to stop them for the future, but we ought to congratulate ourselves that the Constitution itself is again vindicated

in the fact that it contains the true rules for our guidance even in times of civil war. I hope, too, that when it is again established as the supreme law of the Union, it will only have a firmer hold on our affections, because its wisdom has been demonstrated by the consequences of disregarding it.

"Now, let us contrast the course of the law as I have described it with the course adopted since the commencement of the war, of subjecting citizens not in the land or naval forces to trial by courts-martial, and we will soon see the difference. In the one we will find the utmost care and tenderness for the life, liberty, and character of the citizen, while in the other there is no security whatever for any of them. The innocent are in quite as much danger as the guilty, and not generally as well qualified to make defence.

"And first: the charges are half the time of that vague, indefinite character, that it is not possible to reduce them with any degree of certainty to a definition, especially as there is no statute to furnish a guide. They are drawn up without any technical skill, and the record left of them would make but a sorry plea on a subsequent trial for either a former acquittal or conviction. A man might be put in peril on account of the same offence as often as it pleased his judges for aught they would serve him.

"The court-martial itself is not free; it is composed of officers themselves constantly seeking and constantly expecting promotion from their superiors; and they are of course not at liberty to do any thing which might interfere with their prospects in that respect. This is a prime mischief, as they only sit under special commissions, and for the trial of particular persons, whom it is the desire of the superiors to convict, or they would not have issued the commission. It would be singular, therefore, if the tribunal did not do the work it was set to do, and that with hearty good will, while they can have no sympathy with the accused, who belongs to a different class from themselves.

"These officers are chosen, too, by those who as a general rule are anxious to vindicate the administration of their own department, and divert the attention of the public from their own delinquencies, by exposing the spectacle of some inferior victim, the judge advocate, who is in reality a kind of anomalous cross between a prosecutor and judge, having the disposition of the one and the power of the other to bring about a conviction.

"The further mischief of these trials is that being utterly repugnant to the genius of our institutions and our laws, they command no respect and satisfy no demand of justice. Nobody ever acquiesces in the propriety of their findings, even while admitting them to be substantially correct, because, having no confidence in the machinery used, there is always a lingering suspicion that unfairness has existed in the proceedings.

"Again, these courts are directed to sit, often-

times, without any regard to the convenience of suitors or witnesses, in places remote from their homes and from the locality where the offence was alleged to have been committed. This is a great hardship, especially to the poor, who cannot afford to pay for the travel and wages of witnesses, who come from great distances, nor can the witnesses themselves afford to attend at their own expense, with but a doubtful chance that the bills of costs in the end will be paid. Those familiar with the practice in criminal courts will be able at once to feel the importance of this defect.

"On the trial, too, it is well known that most of the questions requiring the peculiar learning of the lawyer are those of evidence, such as the relevancy of the testimony.

"But, perhaps, after all the greatest and most serious objection to these courts lies in the fact that they are engines of tyranny, useful only to wreak out the vengeance of private malice or partisan fury. They are in their nature especially adapted to these ends, and in all ages and under all circumstances have been denounced for the facilities they afforded in the execution of such purposes. The slightest grounds are sufficient to give them authority, and when once in motion there is no force adequate to restrain them, and they usually go on till they are intolerable."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "It has been argued against as if it were something very different from what it is. The Senator from Michigan says in his argument that this is a proposition to let loose the criminals of the country. He says that men who are undergoing sentence will be discharged by it, and that those held for trial will be discharged, and that it is an assault upon the manner in which persons charged with the administration of the Government have discharged their duty. It is no such thing, sir. The proposition is that hereafter in the loyal States, where the courts are open, no person not in some way connected with the military service shall be tried by court-martial or military commission. That is the proposition. It does not propose to interfere in the least with anybody who has been tried. It is prospective in its operation. It does not propose to discharge anybody. There is no such word in it. Now, what becomes of all that the Senator from Michigan said? Then the Senator goes on to say that but for the exercise of this power to try persons by court-martial and military commission, the city of Chicago would have been burned, the dwelling in which I live would have been burned. I do not think any such thing. I have no such opinion. And the Senator from Nevada speaks of the issue in the last election, and says that what he had to meet upon the stump was a complaint about arbitrary arrests. That is not this question. This section does not say any thing about arbitrary arrests; this is a proposition that persons shall not be tried in a particular way. It has nothing to do with arrest-

ing them. It is not proposed to interfere with the power of arresting persons. That is given by another act by which the *habeas corpus* is suspended. This does not propose to repeal that act.

"But the Senator from Nevada says that something akin to this was a question in the last election. How came it to be a question? What was it that divided the North? There was a time in the early stages of this war when we were very much united in the North. Does not the Senator from Nevada wish that to be so again? I know he does. He would have every man in all these States united as one man to crush this rebellion and crush it at once. I think we should do nothing to divide the North if we can help it. It is not politic to do it. It is not wise to do it. What is it that has divided the North? He says himself that the very question he had to meet away out in Nevada was the question about arrests, not the question we are now considering, because this says nothing about arrests, but somehow akin to it. Does he not think it would have been better if those who are charged with the administration of the Government had so conducted themselves as, if possible, to have kept a united public sentiment?"

The question recurring on the motion of Mr. Lane, of Indiana, to strike out the section as amended, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Brown, Chandler, Clark, Conness, Farwell, Foster, Grimes, Harlan, Howard, Howe, Lane of Indiana, Morgan, Morrill, Nye, Ramsey, Stewart, Sumner, Wilkinson, and Wilson—20.

NAYS—Messrs. Buckalew, Cowan, Davis, Hale, Hendricks, Johnson, McDougall, Nesmith, Powell, Riddle, Sprague, Trumbull, Van Winkle, and Wade—14.

ABSENT—Messrs. Carlile, Collamer, Dixon, Doolittle, Foot, Harding, Harris, Henderson, Lane of Kansas, Pomeroy, Richardson, Saulsbury, Sherman, Ten Eyck, Willey, and Wright—16.

So the motion to strike out prevailed, and was approved by the House of Representatives.

In the House, on January 16th, a bill "to guarantee to certain States whose governments have been usurped or overthrown a republican form of Government," was taken up for consideration, when Mr. Ashley, of Ohio, offered the following substitute, with instructions from the Select Committee of the House on rebellious States, to ask that it might be substituted for the original bill. It was so ordered.

That in the States declared in rebellion against the United States, the President shall, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint for each a provisional governor, whose pay and emoluments shall not exceed that of a brigadier-general of volunteers, who shall be charged with the civil administration of such State until a State government therein shall be recognized as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That until the United States shall have recognized a republican form of State government, the provisional governor in each of said States shall see that this act, and the laws of the United States, and the laws of the State in force when the State government was overthrown by the rebellion, are faithfully executed within the

State; but no law or usage whereby any person was heretofore held in involuntary servitude shall be recognized or enforced by any court or officer in such State; and the laws for the trial and punishment of white persons shall extend to all persons, and jurors shall have the qualifications of voters under this law for delegates to the convention. The President shall appoint such officers provided for by the laws of the State when its government was overthrown as he may find necessary to the civil administration of the State, all which officers shall be entitled to receive the fees and emoluments provided by the State laws for such officers.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That until the recognition of a State government, as aforesaid, the provisional Governor shall, under such regulations as he may prescribe, cause to be assessed, levied, and collected, for the year 1865, and every year thereafter, the taxes prescribed by the laws of such State to be levied during the fiscal year preceding the overthrow of the State government thereof, in the manner prescribed by the laws of the State, as nearly as may be; and the officers appointed, as aforesaid, are vested with all powers of levying and collecting such taxes, by distress or sale, as were vested in any officers or tribunal of the State government aforesaid for those purposes. The proceeds of such taxes shall be accounted for to the provisional governor, and be by him applied to the expenses of the administration of the laws in such State, subject to the direction of the President, and the surplus shall be deposited in the Treasury of the United States to the credit of such State, to be paid to the State upon an appropriation therefor, to be made when a republican form of government shall be recognized therein by the United States.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That all persons held to involuntary servitude or labor in the States or parts of States in which such persons have been declared free by any proclamation of the President, are hereby emancipated and discharged therefrom, and they and their posterity shall be forever free; and if any such person or their posterity shall be restrained of liberty, under pretence of any claim to such service or labor, the courts of the United States shall on *habeas corpus* discharge them.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person declared free by this act, or any law of the United States, or any proclamation of the President, be restrained of liberty, with intent to be held in or reduced to involuntary servitude or labor, the person convicted before a court of competent jurisdiction of such act shall be punished by fine of not less than \$1,500, and be imprisoned not less than five nor more than twenty years.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That every person who shall hereafter hold or exercise any office, civil or military, except offices merely ministerial and military offices below the grade of colonel in the rebel service, State or confederate, is hereby declared not to be a citizen of the United States.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That so soon as the military resistance to the United States shall have been suppressed in any State, and the people thereof shall have sufficiently returned to their obedience to the Constitution and the laws of the United States, the provisional governor shall direct the marshal of the United States, as speedily as may be, to name a sufficient number of deputies, and to enroll all white male citizens of the United States resident in the State in their respective counties, and to request each one to take the oath to support the Constitution of the United States, and in his enrolment to designate those who take and those who refuse to take that oath, which rolls shall be forthwith returned to the provisional governor; and if the persons taking that oath shall, together with the citizens of the United States from such State in the military or naval service of the United States, amount to a majority of the persons enrolled in the State, he

shall, by proclamation, invite the loyal people of the State to elect delegates to a convention charged to declare the will of the people of the State relative to the reestablishment of a State government, subject to and in conformity with the Constitution of the United States.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the convention shall consist of as many members as both houses of the last constitutional State Legislature, apportioned by the provisional governor among the counties, parishes, or districts of the State in proportion to the population enrolled by the marshal, in compliance with the provisions of this act, or in the military or naval service of the United States, as aforesaid. The provisional governor shall, by proclamation, declare the number of delegates to be elected by each county, parish, or election district; name a day of election, not less than thirty days thereafter; designate the places of voting in each county, parish, or district, conforming as nearly as may be convenient to the places used in the State elections next preceding the rebellion; appoint one or more commissioners to hold the election at each place of voting, and provide an adequate force to keep the peace during the election.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the delegates shall be elected by the loyal male citizens aforesaid of the United States of the age of twenty-one years, and resident in the county, parish, or district in which they shall offer to vote, or in the military or naval service of the United States, and who shall take and subscribe the oath of allegiance to the United States in the form contained in the act of Congress of July 2, 1862; and all citizens of the United States who are in the military or naval service of the United States shall vote at the headquarters of their respective commands, under such regulations as may be prescribed by the provisional governor for the taking and return of their votes; but no person who has held or exercised any office, civil or military, State or confederate, under the rebel usurpation, or who has voluntarily borne arms against the United States, shall vote or be eligible to be elected as delegate at such election.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That the said commissioners, or either of them, shall hold the election in conformity with this act, and, so far as may be consistent therewith, shall proceed in the manner used in the State prior to the rebellion. The oath of allegiance shall be taken and subscribed on the poll-book by every voter in the form above prescribed, but every person known by or proved to the commissioners to have held or exercised any office, civil or military, State or confederate, under the rebel usurpation, or to have voluntarily borne arms against the United States, shall be excluded, though he offer to take the oath; and in case any person who shall have borne arms against the United States shall offer to vote, he shall be deemed to have borne arms voluntarily unless he shall prove the contrary by the testimony of a qualified voter. The poll-book, showing the name and oath of each voter, shall be returned to the provisional governor by the commissioners of election or the one acting, and the provisional governor shall canvass such returns, and declare the person having the highest number of votes elected.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the provisional governor shall, by proclamation, convene the delegates elected as aforesaid, at the capital of the State, on a day not more than three months after the election, giving at least thirty days' notice of such day. In case the said capital shall in his judgment be unfit, he shall in his proclamation appoint another place. He shall preside over the deliberations of the convention, and administer to each delegate, before taking his seat in the convention, the oath of allegiance to the United States in the form hereinbefore prescribed.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That the convention shall declare, on behalf of the people of the

State, their submission to the Constitution and laws of the United States, and shall adopt the following provisions, hereby prescribed by the United States in the execution of the constitutional duty to guarantee a republican form of government to every State, and incorporate them in the constitution of the State, that is to say:

First. No person who has held or exercised any office, civil or military, except civil offices merely ministerial and military offices below the grade of colonel, State or confederate, under the usurping power, shall vote for or be a member of the Legislature, or Governor.

Second. Involuntary servitude is forever prohibited, and freedom and equality of civil rights before the law are guaranteed to all persons in said State.

Third. No debt, State or confederate, created by or under the sanction of the usurping power, or in any manner in aid thereof, shall be recognized or paid by the State; and all acts, judicial or legislative, for the confiscation or forfeiture of any debt, property, or franchise, of any loyal citizen of the United States, are hereby declared null and void.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That when the convention shall have adopted those provisions it shall proceed to reestablish a republican form of government, and ordain a constitution containing those provisions, which, when adopted, the convention shall by ordinance provide for submitting to the people of the State entitled to vote under this law, at an election to be held in the manner prescribed by the act for the election of delegates, but at a time and place named by the convention, at which election the said electors, and none other, shall vote directly for or against such constitution and form of State government. And the returns of said election shall be made to the provisional governor, who shall canvass the same in the presence of the electors, and if a majority of the votes cast shall be for the constitution and form of government, he shall certify the same with a copy thereof, to the President of the United States, who, after obtaining the assent of Congress, by act or joint resolution, shall, by proclamation, recognize the Government so established, and none other, as the constitutional Government of the State; and from the date of such recognition, and not before, Senators and Representatives and electors for President and Vice-President may be elected in such State, according to the laws of the State and of the United States.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That if the convention shall refuse to reestablish the State Government on the conditions aforesaid, the provisional governor shall declare it dissolved; but it shall be the duty of the President, whenever he shall have reason to believe that a sufficient number of the people of the State entitled to vote under this act, in number not less than a majority of those enrolled as aforesaid, are willing to reestablish a State government on the conditions aforesaid, to direct the provisional governor to order another election of delegates to a convention for the purpose and in the manner prescribed in this act, and to proceed in all respects as hereinbefore provided, either to dissolve the convention or to certify the State Government reestablished by it to the President.

Sec. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That the United States, in Congress assembled, do hereby recognize the Government of the State of Louisiana, inaugurated under and by the convention which assembled on the 6th day of April, A. D. 1864, at the city of New Orleans, and the Government of the State of Arkansas, inaugurated under and by the convention which assembled on the 8th day of January, 1864, at the city of Little Rock: *Provided*, That the same or other conventions, duly assembled, shall first have incorporated into the constitutions of those States, respectively, the conditions prescribed in the twelfth section of this act, and the marshal of the United States shall have returned to the President of the United

States the enrolment directed by the seventh section to be made and returned to the provisional governor and it shall appear thereby that the persons taking the oath to support the Constitution of the United States, together with the citizens of the United States from such State in the military or naval service of the United States, amount to a majority of the persons enrolled in the State. And the President shall, thereupon, by proclamation, declare the recognition by the United States, in Congress assembled, of the said Government of such State; and from the date of such proclamation the said Government shall be entitled to the guarantee and all other rights of a State government under the Constitution of the United States; but this act shall not operate a recognition of a State government in either of said States till the conditions aforesaid are complied with, and till that time those States shall be subject to this law.

Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, moved to amend by insisting after the words "to enroll all the white male citizens of the United States," the words "and all other male citizens of the United States who may be able to read the Constitution thereof." In support of his motion he said: "At the close of an international war, the wronged but victorious party may justly make two claims: indemnity for the past, and security for the future; indemnity for the past in money or in territory; security for the future by new treaties, the establishment of new boundaries, or the cession of military power and the territory upon which it dwells. Indemnity for the past we cannot hope to obtain. When we shall have punished the conspirators who involved the country in this sanguinary war, and pardoned the dupes and victims who have arrayed themselves or been forced to do battle under their flag, we shall but have repossessed our ancient territory, reestablished the boundaries of our country, restored to our flag and Constitution their supremacy over territory which was ours, but which the insurgents meant to dismember and possess. The other demand we may and must successfully make. Security for the future is accessible to us, and we must demand it; and to obtain it with amplest guarantees requires the adoption of no new idea, the making of no experiment, the entering upon no sea of political speculation.

"In announcing the reasons which impelled the colonies to a separation from the mother country, the American people declared that 'a decent respect to the opinions of mankind' required 'a declaration of the causes which impelled them to the separation;' and in assigning those causes announced a few general propositions, embodying eternal and ever-operating principles, among which were,

"First, that 'all men are created equal, are endowed with certain inalienable rights,' and that 'among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.'

"Second, that 'to insure these rights, Governments are instituted among men.'

"Third, that 'Governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed.'

"Fourth, that 'whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the

right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new Government, laying its foundations on such principles and organizing its powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness.' And in these four propositions we have an all-sufficient guide to enduring peace and prosperity. If in the legislation we propose, we regard these self-evident truths, our posterity shall not only enjoy peace, but teach the world the way to universal freedom; but if we fail to regard them, God alone in His infinite wisdom knows what years of agitation, war, and misery we may entail on posterity, and whether the overthrow of our Government, the division of our country, and all the ills thus entailed on mankind, may not be justly chargeable to us.

"My proposition is, that the Government of the United States was instituted to secure the rights of all the citizens of the country, and not for the benefit of men of one race only; and I know not where to look for evidence that would strengthen the conclusiveness of the mass of proof I have thus adduced, embracing as it does the action of the framers of all the State constitutions but one, of the Congress for framing Articles of Confederation, of the Convention for framing the Constitution of the United States, the acts of Congress in unbroken series throughout the active life of a generation, and the solemn obligations assumed by the executive department of the national Government in the exercise of the treaty-making power. If other source of proof there be, it can only serve to make assurance doubly sure.

"Mr. Speaker, it is safe to assert that in every State, save South Carolina, and possibly Virginia and Delaware—in which two States the question of suffrage was regulated by statute and not by constitutional provision—negroes participated in constituting the Convention which framed the Constitution of the United States, and voted for members of the State conventions to which the question of its ratification was submitted; and as that Constitution contains no clause which expressly or by implication deprives them of the protecting power and influence of the instrument they participated in creating, I may well say that to secure internal peace by the establishment of political homogeneity, and perpetuate it by the abolition of political classes and castes whose conflicting rights and interests will provoke incessant agitation, and ever and anon, as the oppressed may be inspired by the fundamental principles of our Government, or goaded by wrongs excite armed insurrection, we need adopt no new theory, but accept the principles of our fathers, and administer in good faith to all men, the institutions they founded on them.

"As a step to this, my amendment proposes, not that the entire mass of people of African descent, whom our laws and customs have degraded and brutalized, shall be immediately clothed with all the rights of citizenship. It proposes only to grant the right of suffrage, inestimable to all men, to those who may be so far fitted by education

for its judicious exercise as to be able to read the Constitution and laws of the country, in addition to the brave men, who, in the name of law and liberty, and in the hope of leaving their children heirs to both, have welcomed the baptism of battle in the naval and military service of the United States, and who are embraced by the amendment reported by the committee. This, I admit, will be an entering wedge, by the aid of which, in a brief time, the whole mass improved, enriched, and enlightened by the fast-coming and beneficent providences of God, will be qualified for and permitted to enjoy those rights by which they may protect themselves, and aid in giving to all others that near approach to exact justice which we hope to attain from the intelligent exercise of universal suffrage and the submission of all trials of law in which a citizen may be interested to the decision of his peers as jurors.

"Let us frankly accept Jefferson's test as to the right of suffrage, and give it practical effect. In a letter dated July 12, 1816, in discussing a proposed amendment to the constitution of Virginia, Mr. Jefferson said:

"The true foundation of republican government is the equal right of every citizen in his person and property, and in their management. Try by this as a tally, every provision of our constitution, and see if it hangs directly on the will of the people. Reduce your Legislature to a convenient number for full but orderly discussion. Let every man who fights or pays, exercise his just and equal right in their election."—*Jefferson's Works*, vol. vii., p. 11.

"By adopting this sound test, which, be it remembered, was the only one recognized by the fathers, and adhering to it, our practice will harmonize with our theories, and the repugnance between the races will gradually disappear. Wealth and power conceal many deformities, and will make the black man less odious to all than he now seems. Thus will consistent adherence to principle give strength and peace to our country.

"But if, on the other hand, we ignore the rights of these four million people and their posterity, the demon of agitation will haunt us in the future fearfully as it has in the past. The appeals of these millions for justice will not go forth in vain; and the liberal, the conscientious, the philanthropic, the religious, now that our Christian church recognizes her long off-cast child philanthropy, will be found in hostile array against what the commercial and planting interests will regard as the conservatism of the day; and though we find that we have buried the slavery question, our peace will be disturbed by the negro question constantly, and fearfully as it has been by the struggle between slavery and free labor. To which party ultimate victory would be vouchsafed in such a controversy I need not ask, as the nation acknowledges that God still lives and is omnipotent.

Mr. Eliot, of Massachusetts, offered the following substitute to the bill:

Strike out all after the enacting clause and insert: That the States declared to be in rebellion against

the United States, and within which the authority of the Constitution and laws of the United States has been overthrown, shall not be permitted to resume their political relations with the Government of the United States until, by action of the loyal citizens within such States respectively, a State constitution shall be ordained and established, republican in form, forever prohibiting involuntary servitude within such State, and guaranteeing to all persons freedom and equality of rights before the law.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the State of Louisiana is hereby permitted to resume its political relations with the Government of the United States under the constitution adopted by the convention which assembled on the 6th day of April, A.D. 1864, at New Orleans.

To this substitute Mr. Arnold, of Illinois, offered the following amendment, which was accepted by Mr. Eliot:

Sec. —. *And be it further enacted*, That in all that portion of the United States heretofore declared to be in rebellion against the United States, and enumerated in the President's proclamation of January 1, 1863, slavery and involuntary servitude, otherwise than in the punishment of crime whereof the accused shall have been duly convicted, shall be, and the same hereby is, abolished and prohibited forever, and the reenslavement, or holding, or attempting to hold in slavery or involuntary servitude, any person within such State made free by this act, or declared to be free by the proclamation of the President of the United States, dated Jan. 1, 1863, or of any of their descendants, otherwise than in the punishment of crime, whereof the accused shall have been duly convicted, is and shall be forever prohibited, any law or regulation of either of said States to the contrary notwithstanding.

Mr. Wilson, of Iowa, offered the following amendment to the substitute of Mr. Eliot:

Senators and Representatives shall not be received from any State heretofore declared in rebellion against the United States until by an act or joint resolution of Congress, approved by the President, or passed notwithstanding his objections, such State shall have been first declared to have organized a just local government, republican in form, and to be entitled to representation in the respective Houses of Congress.

Mr. Eliot, in support of his substitute, said: "What is the need of any general bill? We passed one last session, I know, containing provisions, many of them like the provisions of this bill. There appeared to be reason to act then. But can we undertake in one bill to state what shall be applicable in detail in all these rebel States? Why is it not more wise to take the States as they shall present themselves for admission? We may, to be sure, agree upon certain principles. We ought to agree upon certain provisions which must be contained within the constitutions of the States before those States shall be recognized and permitted to act under the Government of the United States.

"Mr. Speaker, there is no work imposed upon us by the people of the nation more full of consequences that reach into the far future than that of bringing back into the Union the States whose governments have been overthrown by traitors in arms against their country. As we discharge that duty rightfully and without fear, grounding our action on principle, or wrongfully, by enactments which compromise with principle, endeavor to evade the great and fun-

damental doctrines of freedom and equal rights before the law, so shall we be judged as true or as false in the years that are to come. We may not be able to construct at this time a plan by which, and by which alone, all the States in rebellion shall be admitted again to their political rights under our Government; but we can declare, and we ought by solemn enactment to declare, that no rebel State shall be received until it shall come with a free constitution, prohibiting slavery forever within her borders, and containing provisions under which equal rights before the law may be secured."

Mr. Dawes, of Massachusetts, in opposition to the bill, said: "The bill is divided into two distinct parts: first, that which endeavors to provide a present, temporary municipal government; and, second, that which seeks to prescribe the rule and method to which all efforts at any future period for the adoption of a constitution must conform. And, first, let us look at its provisions for a local government. What are the principles upon which this part of the bill is based? Not on the old theory of a colonial government, treating and subjecting them, according to that old policy of the colonies, to the will, the ownership, and the proprietorship, as well of the soil as the franchise; nor indeed on that later and more modern policy of treating each State in the condition of a Territory having power to form and frame their own government with a supervisory power still residing here and retained by this Government; but, sir, the bill proceeds upon the supposition not only that there are States still existing, but that their old constitutions and laws are still in full force and operation; for, sir, the first duty imposed upon the provisional governor in these several administrations of government is this: 'That until the United States shall have recognized a republican form of State government the provisional government of said States shall see that this act, and the laws of the United States, and the laws of the State in force when the State government was overthrown by the rebellion, are faithfully executed,' saving and excepting the single provision touching the enforcement of the laws against slavery and the mode of trial and punishment of colored people. In all other matters and things this bill takes up the condition of those States, and declares it to be this: that they still exist within the Union, with their old boundaries, and constitutions, and laws still in force, but without officers to enforce them. And the proposition of the bill is to fill those offices by executive appointment here. This, sir, is the first attempt of the bill. It is for the Executive in Washington to supply that deficiency, namely, to fill the State offices in every one of those States, by the advice and with the consent, it may be, of the Senate of the United States.

"Although the provisions of the State constitution and of the laws recognized by this bill to be in full force may provide for another method of appointment or election for these

officials, from the highest judicial officer to the lowest constable in a parish, town, or county; the President may appoint just as many of them as he pleases, and from what part of the country he pleases. There is no provision in this bill that they shall even be residents of the State over which they are, by this bill, to administer its provisions and to execute the laws of the State. An army of officers, in one paragraph of four lines, is here created, subject to the sole authority and control of the President of the United States.

"Sir, this bill authorizes and requires the provisional governor to levy the whole body of the taxes, in sum total assessed and provided by law, in the year next preceding the rebellion, on these people. And, sir, upon what sort of people? Upon a people, to begin with, that are beggars and seekers of alms at this day, dependent upon the charity, the noble and boundless charity of the North, to keep them from starvation. Their houses have been burned, their lands have been laid desolate, the sources of their industry have been destroyed or dried up. They are wanderers in their own land, homeless and houseless. And upon such a people, with all the new circumstances that rebellion and its effects, and the march of armies, fire, and plunder, have visited upon it, it is proposed to levy—yes, sir, levy—in this year of our Lord 1865, and every succeeding year thereafter, the precise sum which constituted the whole body of the taxes assessed upon them for all purposes whatever the last year before they went into rebellion. Sir, the condition of these people, upon whom this gross sum is to be assessed, for wretchedness and for inability to sustain even their lives, much less pay taxes, passes all description. I know nothing that more nearly comes up to a just description of that condition than Burke's glowing and inimitable description of the awful devastation which followed when Hyder Ali marched his conquering army over the Carnatic. Upon this people, as unlike in every thing that constitutes a people capable of paying taxes, that people which they were when the taxes were originally imposed upon them as a beggar is unlike a prince, it is proposed nevertheless to impose and levy these taxes, and call upon this innumerable army of imported officeholders to collect and wrench them as the last drop of life-blood from shrivelled bodies.

"I have thus far considered one of the two branches into which this bill is divided—that which proposes to establish over them a present system of government. How long does this bill propose to continue that system over them? In the first place, just so long as the provisional governor shall see fit to have it maintained. It is left by this bill itself discretionary with the provisional governor himself to determine when he will institute the first initiatory steps of measures calculated to bring out of this state of things a new form of government. The bill says that when the people of any State 'shall have sufficiently returned to their obedience' this

provisional governor shall institute steps for a State government, making no provision except his own opinion for determining this point. Before he will institute the first step, it is in his discretion to say whether the people 'shall have sufficiently returned to their obedience.' With his place and the places of the whole army of office-holders under him at stake, it will not be soon, I think, were there no other obstacle in the way; it will be no immediate period that this governor will come to the conclusion that the people have been sufficiently subdued for him to take the initiatory steps to form a State government.

"But there is another limitation upon the proceeding. Even if the provisional governor should come to be willing in the course of events, to take these initiatory steps, this bill goes on to say that those proceedings shall depend upon another question, that is, whether a majority of the people in the State have of their own choice signified their loyalty by taking the oath of allegiance. Under this bill, it does not depend upon the wish of the loyal people to have a government of their own; it depends upon the wish of the disloyal people. So long as the disloyal people can keep a majority on their side, they can dictate what sort of a government they shall have. In the early part of this rebellion there was no uncertain voice on this side of the House. It was held that upon the loyal people, and upon the loyal people alone, were to be reposed the functions of government; that they were to hold the elective franchise; they to determine the character of the government; and that rebels were only to be 'counted' that we might know what force may be necessary for their subjection. But, sir, under the administration of these men—this army of foreign officers, from him who sits in the high court of judicature, passing upon the rights of the people, down to the most insignificant official—how long, under such instruction as that, I submit to my distinguished friend, will it be before that majority are won back to signify their desire to exchange this form of government which he imposes for one of their own making?

Mr. Edgerton, of Indiana, in opposition to the bill, said: "Before considering the leading provisions and character of this bill I propose to look briefly at its history. The forerunner of this measure of legislation, so far as this House is concerned, may be found in the territorial bill reported by the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Ashley) from the Committee on Territories in the Thirty-seventh Congress, in March, 1862. It was aptly termed at the time by the gentleman's colleague from the Cincinnati district of Ohio (Mr. Pendleton), 'A bill to dissolve the Union and abolish the Constitution of the United States.' The bill was summarily, if not indignantly, rejected by the House without a second reading. But, sir, men and events have since changed, if the Constitution of the United States has not changed, and the stone of revolutionary reconstruction then rejected by the

master-builders in this House bids fair to become the head of the corner. Then the Constitution was not altogether repudiated as the foundation of our legislation; now revolutionary opinions and plans override it as a thing of the past. Not many are there in this Congress, and fewer there will be in the next, I fear, to do reverence to the Constitution and obey its commands.

"Early in the last session of Congress this House, on a resolution of the gentleman from Maryland (Mr. Henry Winter Davis), authorized the appointment of a special committee of nine, called the committee on the rebellious States, to consider and report by bill upon the subject of the reconstruction of States. The ostensible or declared purpose of the committee was to carry out the constitutional guarantee of republican government to States in which such governments had been usurped or overthrown.

"The President, by his amnesty proclamation of December 8, 1863, accompanying his annual message to Congress of that date, with characteristic oblivion of the true character and limitations of his executive powers, had assumed to take the subject of reconstruction pretty much into his own hands. He had assumed to amplify the power to pardon offenders against the laws into a power to reconstruct States, to dictate State constitutions, and to determine the conditions upon which a sovereign State of the Union should or should not be recognized and protected as a State in the Union. This portion of the President's message was referred to the special committee I have alluded to. The amnesty proclamation, like its forerunners, the proclamation of September 22, 1862, and January 1, 1863, was an unprecedented and startling assertion of executive power, and I feel well assured, sir, for I have too high an opinion of their intelligence and patriotism to believe otherwise, that it did not meet the approval of the leading minds of the friends of the Administration in this House. The gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Stevens), whose ability and experience entitle him to speak as an oracle of his party on this floor, declared in his speech of 22d January, 1864, that the President's plan of reconstruction, as stated in the amnesty proclamation, 'is wholly outside of and unknown to the Constitution,' and found its justification only in the war power and in the theory of military conquest. 'It proposed to treat the rebel territory as a conqueror alone would treat it.' To the principle of the plan, that is, the right to treat the Southern people as a foreign and conquered people, the gentleman from Pennsylvania assented (for that was a favorite theory of his own), but to the details he did not agree; and I doubt not that one object of the gentleman from Pennsylvania, as well as the gentleman from Maryland (Mr. Davis), in conjointly moving the resolution for a special committee, was to take from the usurping hand of the Executive and to exercise through Congress

the legislation that might be deemed necessary to restore the relations of the Southern States to the Federal Government.

"Mr. Speaker, the love of power, like the love of fame,

"Howe'er concealed by art,
Reigns more or less in every human heart."

"It is not an idle passion in the breast of the constitutional President of the United States. It is there, restless, active, aggressive, and grows by what it feeds on.

"The President as the author of the emancipation proclamation, on which (though not original with him and forced on him by pressure) he had planted his hope of historic fame, was determined by the work of his own hand to carry it out to its logical results. He had formed his plan of reconstruction, he had proclaimed it to the world, and in the same spirit in which he adhered to his plans of military campaigns, though baffled and butchered Union armies, 'driven like bullocks into the slaughter-pen,' attested his unwisdom, he would admit no rival near his throne to share his honors as the great emancipator. Therefore without waiting for the legislative action of Congress, which was clearly contemplated by the terms of the resolution appointing the special committee of nine, the President moved straight forward to his purpose of reorganizing Louisiana, Arkansas, and I may say Florida, in his own way. Whether the sagacious mind of the President was even at that early period of the Presidential campaign looking forward to the possible contingency of the need of electoral votes from those three States and others he might reconstruct, I will not undertake to say. I leave that question to gentlemen who know the President better than I do; but, sir, my charities are not large for a public magistrate whose public career has been marked by the grossest inconsistencies of principle, and by usurpations of power that have time and again remorselessly and without apology or atonement stricken down the liberties of innocent men, and almost blotted out constitutional limitations so plain that he who runs might read and understand."

"Pending the progress of the military manipulation of a portion of Louisiana, comprising mainly, in votes if not in territorial area, the city of New Orleans, into a reconstructed State according to the President's plan, the bill of the last session, commonly known as the reconstruction bill, and identical in title and similar in its general purposes to the bill now before the House, was reported from the committee on the rebellious States, debated, passed on the 4th day of May last, sent to the Senate, debated and amended there, and finally adopted as it passed the House on the 2d July last, and sent to the President for approval. It was not approved by him, for the reasons stated in his proclamation of the 8th July last.

"The President's objections to the bill may be summed up in three points: First. His unwillingness 'to be inflexibly committed to any

single plan of reconstruction.' Second. That the effect of the bill would be to set aside and hold for naught the free State constitutions of Louisiana and Arkansas, adopted under his proclamation of 8th December. Third. That he was unprepared to declare by an approval of the bill 'a constitutional competency in Congress to abolish slavery in States.'

"The sufficiency of the President's reasons for virtually vetoing the reconstruction bill were, soon after the publication of his proclamation, considered in an able paper made public by a distinguished Senator from Ohio (Mr. Wade) and an equally distinguished member of this House (Mr. Henry Winter Davis). The tenor of their masterly and conclusive argument against the President is best stated in their own words, when they say of the President's anomalous proclamation :

A more studied outrage on the legislative authorities of the people has never been perpetrated.

"And further :

It is a blow at the friends of his Administration, at the rights of humanity, and the principles of republican government.

"These assertions, sir, answer, so far as their authors are concerned, my question as to the honesty of the President's constitutional doubt. A studied outrage, sir, is not the fruit of an honest doubt.

"The President's will undid the work of his friends in the last Congress in their efforts to reconstruct States. The Executive triumphed over the legislative power, and notwithstanding his 'studied outrage on the legislative authorities of the people,' the majority in Congress kissed the hand that smote them, and in spite of the reconstruction bill, in defiance of its well-matured provisions, Louisiana and Arkansas, States reared and reconstructed under the President's hand and plan, upon the basis of martial law, now knock confidently at our doors for recognition.

"The crisis of the election being past, a renewed effort is made by the committee on rebellious States to carry out their plan of reconstruction.

"The various forms in which the subject-matter before the House has been presented, the conflicting arguments which have been urged in its support, all indicate that division of counsel exists among those controlling legislation here, and who, having a common purpose, should have a common plan for its success.

"The reconstruction bill of this session as originally reported, contained a section (the seventh) directly and without conditions recognizing the government and constitution of Louisiana as organized under General Banks' proclamation. Why Arkansas was not included I do not know; but the provision as to Louisiana was evidently intended to propitiate the President to approve the bill. It seemed to be a compromise between the House and the President, saying to him, 'You may take Louisiana

by executive reconstruction, and we will re-make Arkansas by congressional reconstruction.' For some reason this proposition has been withdrawn from the committee's bill reported by the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Ashley), but it stands in the substitute of the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Eliot), accompanied by the further offering to the President by the gentleman from Illinois (Mr. Arnold) of a proposition virtually to confirm the emancipation proclamation of January 1, 1863. The committee's bill, as modified, now proposes to recognize Louisiana and Arkansas under their new constitutions, provided conventions of those States shall incorporate into their constitutions the conditions prescribed in the twelfth section of the bill: and provided further that it shall appear by the United States marshal's enrolment that the persons who had taken the oath to support the Constitution of the United States, together with the citizens of the United States from such States in the military or naval service, amounted to a majority of the persons enrolled in the State.

"As there is therefore a direct proposition before the House to recognize unconditionally the new government of Louisiana, I shall here say what further I have to say on that subject. The case of Arkansas I shall not specially discuss, for the principle of both cases is the same; both rest on the amnesty oath as a condition of suffrage, and if Louisiana is not entitled to recognition, neither is Arkansas.

"On these grounds, then, sir: first, because it was initiated and built up by Federal military power, exacting an unconstitutional and oppressive test oath as a basis or condition of suffrage, and creating a quasi dress over the people of Louisiana; and, secondly, because I have no evidence that it is the act of the people of Louisiana in any proper legal sense of the word, I am opposed to recognizing the new government and constitution of Louisiana as proposed in this bill; and I apply the same points of objection to the case of Arkansas.

"Passing from the case of Louisiana I shall consider with as little of detail as possible, for I do not wish to weary the House, the prominent features of the bill and amendments before us.

"Ostensibly and by its title the bill is one 'to guarantee to certain States whose governments have been usurped or overthrown a republican form of government;' but the title is a misnomer. The mask of the Constitution is on the face of the bill; but usurpation and despotism are in its heart. The bill in fact is, as it is commonly called and known, a reconstruction bill. What, in brief, does it contemplate and propose?

"1. A temporary, provisional, civil government by Federal officers, appointees of the President, over the States in rebellion, as Territories or military provinces—for that is the effect of the bill—which shall disregard all laws and usages of the State in favor of slavery, and shall extend to negroes as to white men

the criminal laws of the State, and the qualifications of jurors.

"2. Confirmation of emancipation to all persons and their posterity in all the States and parts of States covered by the President's emancipation proclamations, and the extension of the writ of *habeas corpus* by United States courts to discharge such persons when claimed and held as slaves, and making it a crime to attempt to enslave any person thus declared free, punishable by a fine not less than \$1,500 and imprisonment for not less than five years.

"For a slaveholder, therefore, to doubt the infallibility of the President and Congress, and to attempt to hold his slaves against their acts, is a high crime by this proposed law.

"8. Disfranchisement as citizens of the United States of all persons who, after this act, shall hold military office under the confederacy from the rank of colonel upward, or any civil office not merely ministerial.

"4. The formation of a new State constitution and government 'so soon as the military resistance to the United States shall have been suppressed in any State, and the people thereof shall have sufficiently returned to their obedience to the Constitution and laws of the United States.' The proceedings initiative of such government are to be taken by the Federal governor, aided by a State convention over which he shall preside; in the election of delegates to which convention the right of suffrage is to be extended to negro citizens who can read the Constitution of the United States, as proposed by the amendment of the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Kelley), and to white citizens, and to all citizens of the United States, irrespective of color, who are in the military or naval service of the United States, all first having taken the oath of allegiance under the act of July 2, 1862. All persons who have held any office, State or Federal, under the rebel usurpation, or borne arms voluntarily against the United States, are to be excluded from voting for or being elected as delegates, even if they offer to take the oath of allegiance.

"In regard to the right of suffrage, and the right to be delegates to the constitutional convention, the last amendment proposed by the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Ashley) in the nature of a substitute for the whole bill and amendments (but which I have not had time fully to examine), goes beyond any previous proposition, and virtually would give to the freed negroes the right both to vote for and be delegates to the constitutional convention. I refer to sections three and five of the last amendment or substitute. In the phrases 'all male citizens of the United States,' in section three, and 'all citizens of the United States,' in section five, are wrapped up the two cardinal ideas of the party in power—negro suffrage and negro equality.

"5. The bill makes it the duty of the constitutional convention not only to declare submission to the Constitution and laws of the United

States, but to incorporate into the State constitution these conditions:

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That the convention shall declare, on behalf of the people of the State, their submission to the Constitution and laws of the United States, and shall adopt the following provisions, hereby prescribed by the United States in the execution of the constitutional duty to guarantee a republican form of government to every State, and incorporate them in the constitution of the State, that is to say:

First. No person who has held or exercised any office, civil or military, except civil offices merely ministerial and military offices below the grade of colonel, State or confederate, under the usurping power, shall vote for or be a member of the Legislature, or Governor.

Second. Involuntary servitude is forever prohibited, and freedom and equality of civil rights before the law are guaranteed to all persons in said State.

Third. No debt, State or confederate, created by or under the sanction of the usurping power, or in any manner in aid thereof, shall be recognized or paid by the State; and all acts, judicial or legislative, for the confiscation or forfeiture of any debt, property, or franchise, of any loyal citizen of the United States, are hereby declared null and void.

"The constitution thus formed, to be submitted to a vote of the people of the State entitled to vote for delegates to the convention, and, if approved, certified to the President, who, after obtaining the consent of Congress, is by proclamation to recognize the State government thus established; and thereafter, and not before, Senators, Representatives, and presidential electors may be chosen in such State.

"6. If the convention refuse to reestablish the State government on the conditions prescribed, the provisional governor is to dissolve the convention, and the State remains in its territorial or provincial condition, under military durance, until the President shall see fit to direct the provisional governor to order a new election, when the same process shall be gone through with until a government to suit the prescribed terms shall be accepted by the people.

"The effect of all this is—

"1. To take from the people of the State all power to initiate proceedings to reorganize their own State government in harmony with the Constitution of the United States, or even to prescribe the qualifications of suffrage. The bill ignores the idea that there is any vital power in the people to restore their State government—not only taken from them by rebellion but kept from them by Federal power—until the Federal authority awakens the latent power of the people, puts it in motion, gives it direction, prescribes its mode and instruments of action, and defines and limits its results.

"2. The effect is to exclude from the reorganization the entire white population of the State who shall have held office or voluntarily borne arms against the United States, or who shall not take the oath of July 2, 1862.

"3. To confine the right of suffrage and power of reorganization to enrolled men and Federal soldiers taking the oath; and the law affords no guarantee that even the enrolment shall embrace a majority of males over twenty-one years

of age. The majority required as a basis of action is so many of enrolled persons taking the oath as, with the soldiers, shall constitute a majority of the persons enrolled; that majority, through defect or fraud in enrolment, may be not even one-tenth of the males of the State over twenty-one years of age.

"4. The effect is the absolute disfranchisement of eleven States and their continuance in a state of war until they accept 'the abandonment of slavery,' as dictated to them by the United States, and until by organic law they declare that all persons shall have 'equality of civil rights before the law' of the State; a well-seeming phrase of broad import, the precise meaning of which I do not understand. A woman is a person, a negro is a person, an alien is a person, and the right of suffrage is a civil right. Does this high-sounding phrase of the bill mean that women, negroes, and aliens shall all have equal right to vote in a regenerated State with white male citizens? What does 'equality of civil rights before the law for all persons' mean?

"Now, it is to be borne in mind that these will be the effects of the proposed bill upon States in which the bill itself assumes as a condition precedent of this Federal dictation that 'military resistance to the United States has been suppressed, and the people have sufficiently returned to their allegiance to the Constitution and laws of the United States.' If so, why treat them as aliens and enemies, conquered subjects of an imperial power?

"In fact and in purpose, then, the bill before the House is one to abolish slavery in the United States, and to enfranchise and elevate negroes, and to disfranchise and degrade white men; a bill to change the social and industrial systems and internal policy of eleven States; a bill to take from those States their inherent reserved constitutional right to regulate in their own way their internal policy, not inconsistent with the Constitution of the United States. It is a bill to punish treason without trial or conviction; a bill to confiscate private property without adequate compensation; in short, a bill to reconstruct States and make State constitutions, when in truth no States or their constitutions have been destroyed, or need reconstruction, unless by the voluntary action of their own people.

"Where, sir, is the power in the Federal Government to do all these things? Where the power to make a State, known as such to the Constitution and laws of the United States, a province or Territory of the United States, and to govern it as such, in defiance of the laws of such State not inconsistent with the Constitution of the United States? Where the power to put a State, not in rebellion or disobedient to the Constitution, under military duress for indefinite years, until you force its people to remodel their constitution, not in itself anti-republican nor in any sense unconstitutional, and make it conform to the changeful will of a Fed-

eral Congress? Sir, there is no such power but in usurpation and physical force. This bill is in every element revolutionary, and had the issue now made by it with the slaveholding States been made with them on the 4th of March, 1861, and an attempt made then, as now, to enforce it by war, no man who is capable of distinguishing between the rhapsodies of fanatical abolitionists and the plain provisions of the Federal Constitution would hesitate to say that the people of the Southern States whose rights were thus assailed would have been justified in resisting such conditions to the extremity of revolution."

Mr. Ashley, of Ohio, followed, withdrawing a motion to recommit the bill, and also withdrawing, by authority of the committee, the bill which was the original text, and introducing another. He made the following explanation: "At the last session of Congress, the committee of which I am a member reported a bill which received the sanction of this body and of the Senate, but failed to receive the approval of the President. Since that time, and during this session, it has been my earnest desire to conciliate all gentlemen on this side of the House who had scruples in regard to the bill as it originally passed, and, if possible, to secure a united vote in its favor. For that purpose I consented to what might properly be termed a compromise, in providing for the readmission or recognition of the new governments of Louisiana, Arkansas, and Tennessee. The conditions were not such as I would prescribe if those States stood separately and alone. But in order to secure what I thought of paramount importance—universal suffrage to the liberated black men of the South—I consented to ingraft in the bill which I had the honor of proposing the other day a conditional recognition of the existing governments of the States of Louisiana and Arkansas, and the government now being organized in Tennessee.

"Disappointed in my efforts to secure the coöperation of gentlemen who profess to entertain, and who I am willing to concede do entertain, practically the same opinions which I do in favor of securing universal suffrage to the colored man, and in favor of the early recognition of every rebel State which has a population sufficient to sustain and maintain a government; failing in that, I now decline to offer my substitute, and at the request and with the concurrence of the committee we have offered the bill of the last session, with the modifications which members will notice when the bill is read. Those modifications are to strike out all the bill contains to which gentlemen have raised objection, in that it seemingly authorized the execution of the State laws as they existed at the time of the rebellion. In order to make perfectly clear what the committee meant, they have inserted a provision that the provisional governor shall execute only such laws as relate to the protection of persons and property; and that all laws inconsistent with this bill, and all

laws recognizing the relation of master and slave, shall not be enforced.

"The committee have also in this bill omitted the section which authorized the collection of taxes in the State, thus leaving the original bill of last session to stand with those modifications, and with the addition of the thirteenth section of the amendment which I offered yesterday.

"I prefer to stand there. I prefer not to offer my substitute, and thus commit myself to a recognition of the governments of Louisiana and Arkansas, unless I can secure that which I think of paramount importance in the reorganization of the other States, and which I felt confident would follow in these States if they were recognized even with their present form of government."

Mr. Davis, of Maryland, followed in explanation of the bill, saying: "The bill which is now the test, to which amendments are pending, is the same bill which received the assent of both Houses of Congress at the last session, with the following modifications to suit the tender susceptibilities of gentlemen from Massachusetts: first, the sixth section, declaring rebel officers not citizens of the United States, has been stricken out; second, the taxation clause has been stricken out; third, the word 'government' has been inserted before 'trial and punishment,' to meet the refined criticisms of the two gentlemen from Massachusetts, who suppose that penal laws would be in force and operative when the penalties were forbidden to be enforced; that discriminating laws could survive the declaration that there should be no discrimination between different persons in trial or punishment. There has been one section added to meet the present aspect of public affairs; that section authorizes the President, instead of pursuing the method prescribed in the bill in reference to the States where military resistance shall have been suppressed, in the event of the legislative authority under the rebellion in any rebel State taking the oath to support the Constitution of the United States, annulling their confiscation laws and ratifying the amendment proposed by this Congress to the Constitution of the United States, before military resistance shall be suppressed in such State, to recognize them as constituting the legal authority of the State, and directing him to report those facts to Congress for its assent and ratification. With these modifications, the bill which is now the test for amendment, is the bill which was adopted by this House at the last session.

"All I desire now to do, is to state the case and predict results from one course or the other. The course of military events seems to indicate that possibly by the 4th of next July, probably by next December, organized, armed rebellion will cease to lift its brazen front in the land. But whether sooner or later, whenever it comes, there is one thing that will assuredly accompany it. If this bill do not become a law, when Congress again meets, at our doors, clamorous and

dictatorial, will be sixty-five Representatives from the States now in rebellion, and twenty-two Senators, claiming admission, and, upon the theory of the honorable gentleman, entitled to admission beyond the power of argument to resist it; for peace will have been restored, there will be no armed power but that of the United States; there will be quiet, and votes will be polled under the existing laws of the State, in the gentleman's view. Are you ready to accept that consequence? For if they come to the door of the House they will cross the threshold of the House, and any gentleman who does not know that, or who is so weak or so wild as to suppose that any declaratory resolution adopted by both Houses as a condition precedent can stop that flood, had better put his puny hands across the flood of the flowing Mississippi and say that it shall not enter the Gulf of Mexico.

"There are things, gentlemen, that are possible at one time and not possible at another. You can now prevent the rise of the flood, but when it is up you cannot stop it. If gentlemen are in favor of meeting that state of things, then do as has been already so distinctly intimated in the course of this debate, vote against this bill in all its aspects; leave the door wide open; let 'our brethren of the South,' whose bayonets are now pointed at our brothers' hearts, drop their arms, put on the seemingly garb of peace, go through the forms of an election, and assert the triumph of their beaten faction under the forms of political authority after the sword has decided against them. I am no prophet, but that is the history of next December if this bill be defeated; and I expect it not to become a law.

"But suppose the other course to be pursued; suppose the President sees fit to do what there is not the least reason to suppose that he desires to do; suppose that after he has destroyed the armies in the field he should go further, and do, as I think he ought to do, what the judgment of this country dictates, treat those who hold power in the South as rebels, and not as governors or legislators; disperse them from the halls of legislation, expel them from executive mansions, strip them of the emblems of authority, and set to work to hunt out the pliant and supple 'Union men,' so called, who have cringed before the storm, but who will be willing to govern their fellow-citizens under the protection of United States bayonets; suppose that the fruitful example of Louisiana shall spread like a mist over all the rest of the Southern country, and that Representatives like what Louisiana has sent here, with such a backing of votes as she has given, shall appear here at the doors of this Hall; whose representatives are they? I do not mean to speak of the gentlemen now here from Louisiana in their individual character, but in their political relations to their constituency. Whose representatives are they? In Louisiana they are the representatives of the bayonets of General Banks and the will of the President, as expressed in his secret letter to General Banks. If you admit such representatives, you must

admit, on the same basis and under the same influences, Representatives from every State from Texas to Virginia; the common council at Alexandria—which has just sent two Senators to the other House and has ratified the amendment to the Constitution abolishing slavery in all the rest of Virginia, where none of them dare put his portly person—would be entitled to send ten Representatives here and two Senators to speak for the indomitable 'Old Dominion.' If the rebel representatives are not here in December next, you will have here servile tools of the Executive who will embarrass your legislation, humble your Congress, degrade the name of republican government for two years, and then the natural majority of the South, rising indignantly against that humiliating insult, will swamp you here with rebel representatives and be your masters. These are their alternatives, and there is no middle ground.

"To meet that state of the case, the honorable gentleman, who so ably heads the Judiciary Committee (Mr. Wilson), has proposed a declaratory resolution, and that is all—a declaratory resolution, with no provisions of law to execute it, with no power to arrest the flood at our door, a very bubble born amid the hubbub of the waters and floating with the flood—that Senators and Representatives shall not be received from any State heretofore declared in rebellion until a joint act or resolution of Congress shall have declared that they have organized a new government."

The motion was then made to lay the bill and amendments on the table, which passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. James C. Allen, Ancona, Anderson, Baily, Augustus C. Baldwin, Blair, Bliss, Boyd, William G. Brown, Clay, Cobb, Coffroth, Cox, Cravens, Thomas T. Davis, Dawes, Dawson, Denison, Eckley, Eden, Edgerton, Eldridge, English, Finck, Ganson, Gooch, Grider, Griswold, Hale, Hall, Harding, Harrington, Benjamin G. Harris, Charles M. Harris, Herick, Holman, Hulburt, Hutchins, Julian, Kalbfleisch, Keruan, King, Knapp, Law, Lazear, Le Blond, Littlejohn, Long, Mallory, Marcy, Marvin, McAllister, McKinney, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Morrison, Nelson, Noble, Odell, Pendleton, Pike, Pomroy, Pruyn, Radford, Samuel J. Randall, William H. Randall, Alexander H. Rice, Rogers, James S. Rollins, Roas, Smith, John B. Steele, William G. Steele, Stevens, Stiles, Strouse, Stuart, Sweat, Thomas, Townsend, Tracy, Van Valkenburgh, Wade, Worth, William B. Washburn, Webster, Whaley, Wheeler, Joseph W. White, Winfield, Fernando Wood, and Yeaman—91.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Arnold, Ashley, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Blaine, Blow, Boutwell, Brandegee, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Cole, Henry Winter Davis, Deming, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Dumont, Eliot, Farnsworth, Garfield, Grinnell, Higby, Hooper, Asahel W. Hubbard, John H. Hubbard, Ingalls, Jenckes, Kelley, Francis W. Kellogg, Orlando Kellogg, Knox, Loan, Longyear, McBride, McClurg, Samuel F. Miller, Moorhead, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Amos Myers, Leonard Myers, Norton, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Patterson, Perham, Price, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, Schenck, Scofield, Shannon, Sloan, Smithers, Starr, Thayer, Upson, Williams, Wilson, Woodbridge and Worthington—64.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. William J. Allen, Alley, Brooks, James S. Brown, Chanler, Freeman Clark,

Creswell, Frank, Hotchkiss, Philip Johnson, William Johnson, Kasson, McDowall, McDoe, Middleton, John O'Neill, Perry, Robinson, Scott, Spalding, Voorhees, Ward, Elihu B. Washburne, Chilton A. White, Wilder, Windom, and Benjamin Wood—27.

On Feb. 22d, Mr. Wilson, from the Committee on the Judiciary, reported back the House bill to establish the supremacy of the Constitution in the insurrectionary States, with the following substitute:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That neither the people nor the Legislature of any State, the people of which were declared to be in insurrection against the United States by the proclamation of the President, dated August 16, 1861, shall hereafter elect Representatives or Senators to the Congress of the United States until the President, by proclamation, shall have declared that armed hostility to the Government of the United States within such State has ceased; nor until the people of such State shall have adopted a constitution of government not repugnant to the Constitution and laws of the United States; nor until, by a law of Congress, such State shall have been declared to be entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States of America.

Mr. Ashley, of Ohio, moved an amendment, consisting of the bill previously laid on the table, with a few alterations. He said:

"I want a record made on this question. I do not expect to pass this bill now. At the next session, when a new Congress fresh from the people shall have assembled, with the nation and its Representatives far in advance of the present Congress, I hope to pass even a better bill. Sir, I know that the loyal people of this country will never be guilty of the infamy of inciting the loyal blacks to unite with them in fighting our battles, and after our triumph—a triumph which we never could have achieved but for their generous cooperation and aid—deny these loyal blacks political rights while consenting that pardoned but unrepentant white rebels shall again be clothed with the entire political power of these States.

"Failing to secure the adoption of the amendment as printed, I desire, as a practical man, to secure the next best thing, and that is, the declaration here, on the part of the Congress of the United States, that the people of no rebel State shall hold a convention and frame a constitution which does not contain in it a provision securing the civil rights of these people. And even if the word 'white' is not stricken out of the fifth section I secure by the provision of the seventh section to every colored citizen of the United States, who now is or who has been in the military or naval service of the United States, the right to vote first for delegates to a convention, and then upon the constitution which that convention may adopt and submit to the people for their ratification or rejection.

The bill and amendments were then laid on the table, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. James C. Allen, Ancona, Anderson, Baily, Blair, Bliss, Brooks, William G. Brown, Chanler, Clay, Cobb, Cox, Cravens, Dawes, Dawson, Denison, Eden, Edgerton, Eldridge, English, Finck, Gan-

son, Gooch, Grider, Griswold, Hall, Harding, Harrington, Benjamin G. Harris, Charles M. Harris, Herrick, Holman, Hutchins, Kalbfleisch, Kasson, Kernan, Knapp, Law, Lazear, LeBlond, Long, Mallory, Marcy, Marvin, McAllister, McKinney, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Morrison, Nelson, Noble, Odell, Pendleton, Perry, Pike, Pomeroy, Pruyn, Radford, Samuel J. Randall, William H. Randall, Alexander H. Rice, Rogers, James S. Rollins, Ross, Smith, John B. Steele, William G. Steele, Stiles, Strouse, Stuart, Townsend, Tracy, Voorhees, Wadsworth, William B. Washburn, Whaley, Wheeler, Winfield, Fernando Wood, and Yeaman—80.

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Ashley, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Blow, Boutwell, Boyd, Brandegee, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Cole, Henry Winter Davis, Deming, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Dumont, Eckley, Eliot, Garfield, Grinnell, Higby, Hooper, Asahel W. Hubbard, John H. Hubbard, Hulburt, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Kelley, Orlando Kellogg, Knox, Littlejohn, Loan, Longyear, McBride, McClurg, Samuel F. Miller, Moorhead, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Amos Myers, Leonard Myers, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Perham, Price, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, Schenck, Scofield, Shannon, Sloan, Smithers, Starr, Stevens, Thayer, Upson, Van Valkenburgh, Elihu B. Washburne, Williams, Wilder, Wilson, and Woodbridge—65.

In the House, a joint resolution was adopted to amend a joint resolution explanatory of "An act to suppress insurrection, to punish treason and rebellion, to seize and confiscate the property of rebels, and for other purposes." This measure of the House was in the Senate incorporated in the bill to organize a Freedman's Bureau. Subsequently, on Feb. 20, a bill providing for the forfeiture of the fee of insurgent landholders, was reported to the House and passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Ashley, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Blaine, Boutwell, Boyd, Brandegee, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Freeman Clarke, Cobb, Cole, Thomas T. Davis, Dawes, Deming, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Dumont, Eckley, Eliot, Frank, Garfield, Gooch, Grinnell, Higby, Hooper, Asahel W. Hubbard, John H. Hubbard, Hulburt, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Kelley, Orlando Kellogg, Knox, Littlejohn, Longyear, Marvin, McBride, McClurg, Samuel F. Miller, Moorhead, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Leonard Myers, Norton, Orth, Patterson, Pike, Pomeroy, Price, Alexander H. Rice, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, Schenck, Shannon, Sloan, Smithers, Starr, Stevens, Thayer, Upson, Van Valkenburgh, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, Wilder, Wilson, Woodbridge, and Worthington—72.

YEAS—Messrs. James C. Allen, Ancona, Bailly, Augustus C. Baldwin, Blair, Bliss, Brooks, James S. Brown, Chanler, Clay, Coffroth, Cox, Cravens, Dawson, Denison, Eden, Edgerton, Eldridge, English, Finck, Ganson, Griswold, Hale, Hall, Benjamin G. Harris, Holman, Hutchins, Philip Johnson, Kalbfleisch, Kernan, King, Law, Lazear, LeBlond, Long, Mallory, Marcy, McAllister, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Morrison, Nelson, Noble, Odell, John O'Neill, Pendleton, Perry, Pruyn, Radford, Samuel J. Randall, William H. Randall, Rogers, James S. Rollins, Ross, John B. Steele, William G. Steele, Stiles, Strouse, Stuart, Sweat, Townsend, Tracy, Voorhees, Wadsworth, Webster, Whaley, Wheeler, Joseph W. White, Winfield, Fernando Wood, and Yeaman—71.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. William J. Allen, Alley, Anderson, Arnold, Blow, William G. Brown, Creswell, Henry Winter Davis, Farnsworth, Grider, Harding, Harrington, Charles M. Harris, Herrick, Hotchkiss, William Johnson, Julian, Kasson, Francis W. Kel-

logg, Knapp, Loan, McDowell, McIndoe, McKinney Middleton, Amos Myers, Charles O'Neill, Perham, Robinson, Scofield, Scott, Smith, Spalding, Thomas, Ward, Chilton A. White, Williams, Windom, and Benjamin Wood—39.

The measure failed to pass in the Senate.

In the Senate, on Feb. 1st, Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, reported back, with amendment, from the Committee on the Judiciary, a joint resolution previously referred, as follows:

Whereas, the inhabitants and local authorities of the States of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Tennessee rebelled against the Government of the United States, and have continued in a state of armed rebellion for more than three years, and were in said state of armed rebellion on the 8th day of November, 1864: Therefore,

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the States mentioned in the preamble to this joint resolution are not entitled to representation in the Electoral College for the choice of President and Vice-President of the United States, for the term of office commencing on the 4th day of March, 1865; and no electoral votes shall be received or counted from said States concerning the choice of President and Vice-President for said term of office.

The amendment of the Committee on the Judiciary was to strike out of the preamble the following words:

And have continued in a state of armed rebellion for more than three years, and were in said state of armed rebellion on the 8th day of November, 1864.

And to insert the following in lieu thereof:

And were in such state of rebellion on the 8th day of November, 1864, that no valid election for President and Vice-President of the United States according to the Constitution and laws thereof was held therein on said day.

Mr. Ten Eyck, of New Jersey, said: "I move to strike out of the preamble the word 'Louisiana.' I will simply state that it is a matter of history that the State of Louisiana has reorganized, or at least attempted to do so, and in the opinion of many, and perhaps most, of the loyal citizens of that State, has reorganized as a State. It is a matter of history that they have elected State officers and a State Legislature; that they have elected members to a constitutional convention and framed a new constitution for that State; that that Legislature passed a law authorizing the election of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States in the last presidential election, and that such electors have met and cast their votes. Under these circumstances I think there is a striking distinction between the State of Virginia and the State of Louisiana. My object in moving this amendment is, under this state of facts, that some opportunity may be afforded to a loyal people who have suffered all the horrors of the rebellion, who have got the better of it, and put it under foot, of coming back and resuming their place in the councils of the nation."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, opposed this motion, saying: "The Committee on the Judiciary, by the amendment they have reported, propose

to alter the preamble somewhat. The object of this alteration is to avoid as far as possible any committal upon the subject which the amendment of the Senator from New Jersey brings up. The object of the amendment of the committee is simply to put the preamble in such form that if it is adopted and the resolution passed, Congress will not have decided whether Louisiana is in the Union or out of the Union, whether she is a State or not a State. It will be time enough to decide that question when it is presented to us. If our amendment is adopted, we place the resolution upon the ground that the condition of things on the 8th day of November last, the day of the Presidential election, was such in all these States that no election was held according to the Constitution and laws of the United States.

"I trust that the State of Louisiana will not be stricken out. I think if we strike that out and decide to receive the electoral vote cast in that State on the 8th of November last, we do decide directly that there was a State government there, and that there was an election for electors for President and Vice-President in accordance with the Constitution and laws of the United States. Now, I do not believe that. I think such was not the fact. There could be no election according to the laws and Constitution of the United States in the State of Louisiana when a very considerable portion of that State was overrun by the enemy, and the legal voters had no opportunity to vote one way or the other. I am not advised how many votes were cast at the election on the 8th of November. No evidence has been submitted showing how many were cast.

"Again, sir, the President of the United States, in pursuance of an act of Congress, declared the inhabitants of the State of Louisiana to be in a state of insurrection against the Government of the United States. We passed a law authorizing him to issue the proclamation declaring that fact. In pursuance of the law the proclamation was issued. That proclamation has never been recalled. According to the law of the land, according to the proclamation of the President, the inhabitants of the State of Louisiana are to-day in a state of insurrection against the Government of the United States. Can you receive a vote cast by the inhabitants of a State for Chief Magistrate of the Union, when your own laws declare and your executive proclamation declares that they are in a state of insurrection against the Government of the United States? Sir, until there shall be some action by Congress recognizing the organization which has been set up in Louisiana, we ought not in my judgment to count electoral votes from that State. Whether we shall recognize that organization or not, I will not undertake to say. We have not done so yet; and until we do it we ought not to count the electoral vote."

Mr. Ten Eyck, of New Jersey, in reply, said: "I hold to the doctrine that none of these States can be out of the Union; that having

taken up their lot and part with their sister States at the time they were admitted into the Union, they are not now legally out of the Union; their governments have been in abeyance; they have been overrun by the feet of hostile armies, and many of their citizens have by usurpation and in violation of their duty to their fellow-men and to their God attempted to carry these States out of the Union.

"That being my opinion, whenever the testimony is furnished to my mind that these States thus in the Union have, by the aid of the General Government, or by the efforts of their own people, or by the act of both combined, reestablished themselves, so to speak, or set their State governments in action anew and have commenced again to revolve in their old orbits, I feel it shall be my duty, so far as I am concerned, to extend to them all the privileges and all the rights which the loyal people of a loyal State are entitled to at the hands of their sister States, whether upon this floor or anywhere else. It was simply in that view and aspect of the case that I made the motion to amend the preamble of this joint resolution, for the purpose of excluding from the operation and effect of the resolution the State of Louisiana, judging and believing from the testimony which is notorious throughout the country, and which has come to the knowledge, I apprehend, of the Senate through various channels, that the present condition of the State of Louisiana is such as I have just stated. I can well see that there is a propriety in passing some such joint resolution as this in relation to States that are manifestly in the condition alluded to in its preamble; States that are in rebellion or such a condition of rebellion as that no election could be held or was held for the purposes that are requisite to establish them as a State; States that are not in the exercise of the ordinary constitutional powers of a State.

"The chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary states that it was the desire of a majority of the committee to avoid a committal on this subject. It would not perhaps be amiss to insist that a committal shall not be had against the interest of the State any more than in its favor. The Senator says that the adoption of the amendment proposed by myself will be a declaration by Congress that the State of Louisiana was in a condition to perform all the functions of a State government and to appoint State officers and Senators and members of the national House of Representatives. I admit that that question is involved in this amendment; but the same question is involved in the resolution, and it will be determined against the State if this joint resolution passes as it stands, for you will then decide that this State is now, this day, in a state of rebellion such as to deprive it of all the powers, rights, and privileges of the State of Louisiana. I am not prepared to go to that extent."

Mr. Harris, of New York, followed in opposition to the resolution, saying: "I am op-

posed to the preamble to this resolution. I do not like it. In my judgment, it is not true. I admit that the rebel States have been declared to be in a state of insurrection, and the first clause of the preamble is true; the inhabitants and the local authorities of those States have been in a state of insurrection; but are the local authorities in Louisiana and Tennessee and Arkansas now in insurrection? I deny it. Who are the local authorities of Louisiana? I insist that they are those authorities that have been put in power by the proceedings under the Federal Government. I understand that Michael Hahn is the Governor of that State, and that they have a Legislature elected by the loyal people of that State; and if that be so, then it is not true that on the 8th of November last the local authorities of that State were in a state of armed rebellion.

"Since the discussion of this question in the committee, I have been led to doubt exceedingly whether it is competent for Congress to legislate at all in reference to the counting of the votes. The Constitution authorizes Congress to fix the time for choosing electors. It also empowers Congress to specify the time when those electors shall perform the functions of their office, when they shall vote; and, so far as I can find in perusing the Constitution, that is the extent of the power of Congress over the subject. It fixes the time when the votes shall be counted, and it declares that, in the presence of both Houses of Congress, the Vice-President shall open all the certificates returned—it is careful to specify that he shall open them all—and the votes shall be counted.

"I cannot find in the provisions of the Constitution any authority for Congress to pass a law (for this amounts to that) excluding any votes that shall have been returned to the Vice-President. I do not see how it is possible. I am not prepared to say that in case the rebel States had sent votes here which would be controlling in the election, that in such an extreme emergency as that Congress would not be called upon to do something—what, I am not prepared to say; but in this case I am clearly of opinion that even though Congress may possibly have the power, it is inexpedient for us by legislation to declare that these votes shall not be counted. I doubt the power very much; but of the inexpediency of exercising any such power, if it exists, I am very clear."

Mr. Hale, of New Hampshire, said: "Mr. President, it is refreshing at the present time to hear anybody urge any special measure in a contrary direction to the provisions of the Federal Constitution. It seems to me that upon this question, if upon no other—a question upon which depends the continuance of the Government—it is necessary to adhere to the Constitution, and to look for it and see if we have any guide or direction in that instrument. I foresaw this evil, and I introduced at the last session of Congress a joint resolution directing in advance what should be done; but, for some

reason or other (owing to the press of other business, probably, certainly not more important business), that resolution was not acted upon. It struck me at that time—and I have not lost any of the strength of that conviction now—that it was one of the most important measures that could possibly be presented to the consideration of Congress, and it was not then without the range of possibility or probability that on that question might depend the very continuance of this Government. No one could have known to the contrary of that at the last session; for let me suppose that the result of the presidential election might have been determined by the votes of these States who have now proposed to offer them. I think there are three of them, Tennessee, Louisiana, and Arkansas; let me suppose that, in November, the votes of these three States had decided which way the majority was, would the party against whom they have voted have submitted? I tell you nay, sir. If the counting of these votes had determined the result of the presidential election it would have deluged this land in blood, and another civil war would have followed, just as certain as that we have one now on hand. My friend from Michigan (Mr. Howard) shakes his head. Why, sir, what caused the present rebellion? Nothing at all in comparison with this.

"My friend from Wisconsin (Mr. Doolittle) says that Congress has no power over this subject. It would be one of the strangest things that ever occurred on earth if it had not the power. The provision of the Federal Constitution is that no member of Congress or any person holding an office of profit or trust under the Federal Government shall be an elector. Suppose when the two Houses meet in convention to count the votes it is palpable to them that the electoral votes of some States were given by members of Congress, has Congress no power to say that they shall not be counted?

"But, sir, the Constitution is not so silent on this subject as my friend from Wisconsin seems to imagine; for the election of President and the mode of counting the votes is one of the means and measures by which the national life is to be preserved. If this is not followed, carried out, and executed, there is an end to the Government; there is no President elected, and the whole fabric falls to chaos. Now, is it within the range of possibility or probability that the framers of the Constitution were so derelict, so blind, as not to have provided that there should be some mode of conducting, and conducting legally, the machinery of this great measure which is essential to the very life of the nation? No, sir. The Constitution would have been one of the most imperfect things that was ever created without some provision of this sort, and accordingly I find that the framers of the Constitution made the most ample provision for exactly this case. I find in the Constitution a clause declaring that Congress shall have power 'to make all laws which shall be necessary and

proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States.' Is not the power to choose a President one that is vested in the Government of the United States? It is the most essential power that there is; without it all the other powers are nothing; and the Constitution says that for carrying into execution this power thus granted Congress may make all laws which shall be necessary. It seems to me that it would be impossible to frame in broader or more comprehensive terms a provision which shall give Congress exclusive jurisdiction over this matter than that which I have just read, and it is found on the 10th page of Hickey's Constitution.

"Well, sir, what would be the common sense, and what the reason of the thing? What does Congress meet for when the votes are counted? Is it to see as a matter of curiosity how the thing is done? Is it to go there to see the Constitution trampled upon and not have the power to remedy it? Is it when they see that there is danger of the Constitution being violated, that they shall not provide by law against it? It seems to me that to say that Congress has no power, is to say that the Constitution itself is a dead letter, inoperative, and of no force.

"Now, I contend that it is the part of wisdom before the emergency comes to settle this question. There never was a more favorable time for its settlement than the election of 1856 presented, and there will be none more favorable than this election presents. It is the part of sagacity, of wisdom, and of patriotism, when we see that such a contingency as this may be fraught with the consequences of revolution, to provide beforehand against it. There never was a time when you could do it, when you would be less liable to the charge of any sinister influence, because it cannot change the result, it cannot determine any thing except to settle the principle: and then when an occasion occurs that evil consequences may follow from settling it one way or the other, here will be a precedent showing that Congress at a time when there was no inducement to any thing but an honest and straightforward decision of the case maturely settled it, and settled it in such a manner that the influence of the decision will be morally binding upon our successors, and will be preserved."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, followed, saying: "But, sir, both the Senator from New York and the Senator from Wisconsin doubt the power of Congress to pass this resolution, and they place themselves upon the Constitution. The Senator from Wisconsin insists, as also does the Senator from New York, that the Vice-President, or the presiding officer of the Senate, is to determine this question in the first instance. The Constitution does not say that the presiding officer of the Senate shall count the votes even, and in the practice of the Government

since the days of Washington till this moment the Vice-President never has counted the vote. The Constitution says, 'The President of the Senate shall, in presence of the Senate and House of Representatives,' do what? 'Open all the certificates.' That is what he shall do. Then what follows? 'And the votes shall then be counted.' By whom? Another clause in the Constitution already referred to declares that Congress shall have authority to pass all laws necessary and proper to carry into effect every one of the granted powers. The power to count the votes is given by the Constitution; the mode of doing it is not prescribed by the Constitution; but another clause in the Constitution says that Congress shall have power to provide by law for carrying into effect every provision of this instrument; and here is a provision of this instrument that these votes shall be counted; the manner of doing it is now determined by the Constitution, and it is clearly constitutional and proper for Congress, in the exercise of its authority, to carry into effect the granted powers of the Constitution, to pass the necessary laws to count the votes, and Congress has done it from the beginning of the Government. If it were not so, we should have revolution at every Presidential election."

Mr. Oollamer, of Vermont, thus viewed the question: "In relation to this resolution, its preamble declares that certain States, naming them, or the inhabitants of those States, were in a condition of armed rebellion, and have continued in that condition for a certain time, and then the resolution legislates of and concerning those States. I think that is all wrong, all uncalled for. Let it be remembered that in 1861 Congress passed an act making a large body of provisions for the condition of things which had then arisen. It is an act entitled 'An act further to provide for the collection of duties on imports, and for other purposes,' which was approved July 13, 1861. In the fifth section of that act, drawn, as I know, with a great deal of thought and care, it was provided:

That whenever the President, in pursuance of the provisions of the second section of the act entitled "An act to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions, and to repeal the act now in force for that purpose," approved February 28, 1795, shall have called forth the militia to suppress combinations against the laws of the United States, and to cause the laws to be duly executed, and the insurgents shall have failed to disperse by the time directed by the President, and when said insurgents claim to act under the authority of any State or States, and such claim is not disclaimed or repudiated by the persons exercising the functions of government in such State or States, or in the part or parts thereof in which such combination exists, nor such insurrection suppressed by said State or States, then and in such case it may and shall be lawful for the President by proclamation to declare that the inhabitants of such State, or any section or part thereof, where such insurrection exists, are in a state of insurrection against the United States; and thereupon all commercial intercourse by and between the same and the citizens thereof and the citizens of the rest of the United States shall cease and be unlawful so long as

such condition of hostility shall continue; and all goods and chattels, wares and merchandise, coming from said State or section into the other parts of the United States, and all proceeding to such State or section, by land or water, shall, together with the vessel or vehicle conveying the same, or conveying persons to and from such State or section, be forfeited to the United States.

"In short, a state of war was declared to exist in that event. It will be observed that that statute did not make any law for the States which had attempted to secede and were in arms. It named no State whatever. It was a general law that when the people of a State are in insurrection and claim to act under the authority of the State, and the State authorities do not repudiate it and do not stop it, then the President may declare them to be in insurrection, and thereupon a state of war exists; and the Supreme Court of the United States, differing about the blockade question before that, all decided that after that act was passed the state of war was complete.

"Now, Mr. President, in order to conform our legislative acts to that law which we have already passed and that condition of things which exists, I propose to offer a substitute for this resolution, which I shall presently send to the desk. The President's proclamation declaring certain States to be in a state of rebellion and insurrection, was duly issued under the law of 1861, which I have just read. That is all matter of public record. We know what the proclamation is. We know that it was issued according to law. It declared a state of war. The proclamation is before me, but I need not read it. It declares under the act which I have read, that certain States are in a condition of war and insurrection. Has that ever been changed? Have any States declared by that law and proclamation to be in this condition, ever altered their condition? The state of war certainly still continues.

"In view of the statement which I have made, I propose in place of the resolution, which seems to me obnoxious to the objections I have made, to strike it all out, and also the preamble, and to insert simply this:

That the people of no State, the inhabitants whereof have been declared in a state of insurrection by virtue of the fifth section of the act entitled "An act further to provide for the collection of duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved July 13, 1861, shall be regarded as empowered to elect electors of President and Vice-President of the United States until said condition of insurrection shall cease and be so declared by virtue of a law of the United States.

"This is not a resolution declaring any State to be in this condition, and legislating for any State by name, or making any distinction between particular States. It is simply a law in pursuance of the act of 1861, declaring what shall be the effect which shall follow a certain condition of things into which any State may fall. For the reasons I have stated, I desire that this substitute shall be adopted in lieu of the resolution."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, followed, saying: "The question, Mr. President, is whether Congress have any authority to legislate at all on this subject. I agree with the chairman of the Judiciary Committee and my friend from Vermont that the authority exists; and I was somewhat surprised to find that it was disputed by gentlemen of such distinction every way, and particularly in their profession, as the honorable member from Wisconsin and the honorable member from New York. The Constitution of the United States does not provide in any way a mode by which a contested election growing out of an alleged informality in voting, or an alleged illegality upon the part of those who voted, or an alleged incapacity on the part of those voted for, is to be decided. The honorable member from Illinois is right in saying that if we are governed by the mere letter of the Constitution in this particular, there is no power existing by which any thing more can be done than to have the votes counted. He is right in saying that looking to the mere letter of the provision there is no authority given to the President of the Senate to count the votes. He is right, also, in saying that there is no provision in the Constitution which decides who shall declare the result of the voting after the votes shall have been counted. In relation to all these points the Constitution is silent; but the Constitution provides that certain persons shall not be voted for as President of the United States. No one who is not a native-born citizen of the United States, or who was not a citizen at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, can be voted for. Members of Congress and officers under the Government cannot be selected as electors. The States are only authorized to appoint through their Legislatures a number of electors equal to their number of Senators and Representatives. Now, if a person not a native citizen of the United States, or not a citizen in 1789, when the Constitution was adopted, is voted for as President, or if a member of Congress of either branch or an officer of the United States is voted for as an elector, or if more than the number of votes to which a State is entitled is cast, there is no clause in the Constitution which provides a mode by which these objections may be obviated. If the Vice-President is to count the vote, and he is to decide the result, and is merely to decide the result, according to the words of the instrument alone, then he may declare that A B is elected President of the United States, although the whole country knows that A B was not a native citizen of the United States. So he may count all the votes of any one State (for his function it is supposed is only to count), he may count all the votes cast by the State of New York when, in point of fact, New York has cast more votes than she is authorized to cast under the Constitution.

"How are these questions to be decided? As it is very clear that in the instances to which I have referred—and there are others—there is

an absence of any authority given to the Vice-President or to the two Houses when meeting in convention to decide them if they should arise, one would suppose—unless we are to remain without a President, or to have placed in the presidential office a man who is not eligible, or to have one placed there by votes which there was no constitutional right to cast—that there must be some mode by which those difficulties are to be obviated.

“Now, Mr. President, the honorable member from New York—I do not understand my friend from Wisconsin as going to the extent of that objection—says that he denies to Congress the power to declare that the votes of any State are not to be counted. Does he mean to say that the votes of the States in rebellion are to be counted? I do not speak of Louisiana, because he may perhaps be able to except Louisiana out of the category of rebel States; but assuming now that there are rebel States, and assuming that Louisiana is one of the rebel States, does my friend from New York say that the votes of those States are to be counted? I presume not; and yet if we do not legislate upon the subject, where is the power to exclude them? The Vice-President of the United States may think it his duty to count them; he may think it his duty, counting them, to declare the result of the election consequent upon that count; and it makes no difference that we know outside of the balloting that the result will be the same whether those votes are counted or excluded, the principle is the same. We are not to know, we do not officially know, what the result of the election has been. Who can know (officially, I mean) how the electors have voted?

“It is true that my honorable friends from New York and from Wisconsin, and that is my opinion as I am at present advised, think that the efforts of those rebellious citizens to take those several States out of the Union are legally imperfect; that is to say, in the contemplation of the Constitution they are still subject to the powers of the Constitution, and the war is being carried on for the purpose of making them yield obedience to the Constitution upon the hypothesis that they are responsible to all the obligations of allegiance. That is all true; but it is equally true that they are in a state of rebellion. The Supreme Court of the United States has decided unanimously that since the passage of the act to which my friend from Vermont has referred, the act of July 13, 1861, all the States named in the preamble to this resolution are now at war with the United States, and that the United States have not only the right but it is their duty to prosecute that war to a success by bringing them back, they being (not in a constitutional sense, but practically) out of the Union. Now, is it possible that the inhabitants of a State thus at war with the United States have a right to vote in any Presidential election for President of the United States?”

Mr. Cowan, of Pennsylvania, said: “I should

like to hear the honorable Senator from Maryland speak to this question, which is involved in the last clause of the amendment offered by the Senator from Vermont: suppose the rebellion to be entirely suppressed, is it necessary then, in order to restore them to their rights in the Union, that we should enact a law that it was suppressed?”

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, replied: “My own opinion has been throughout that the States are not out, in one sense; and if all the inhabitants of those States were now to throw down their arms, admit their allegiance to the United States, and elect their members to the Senate, &c., hereafter, after the rebellion was entirely terminated, perhaps they would be entitled to their seats; but I am not prepared to say whether I shall hold that opinion upon examination or not. All that I mean to say now is, that it is incumbent upon us to provide by law for a contingency which has now happened, although it may never happen again, so far as the particular effects are concerned; and it is now, above all, the best time to provide for it, because, although we do not know officially that it will have the slightest effect upon the result, we do know that there is involved in an exigency of that description very great peril.”

Mr. Collamer, of Vermont, said: “I desire to add to the amendment that I have offered these words:

Nor shall any vote cast by any such electors elected by the votes of the inhabitants of any such State, or the Legislature thereof, be received or counted.

“According to my view, when a state of war has been declared to exist, declared according to law, we cannot recognize a state of peace and reconciliation in any other way but by declaring it by law, or authorizing the President to declare it by law.”

Mr. Ten Eyck, of New Jersey, said: “I am not in favor of the adoption of the substitute proposed by the Senator from Vermont, although it is always with the greatest diffidence in the world that I venture to differ from him in any well-considered proposition that he submits to the Senate. I understand his substitute to be based upon the idea that under the act of Congress and the President's declaration, we are now in an actual state of war with these eleven Southern States, and that it will require an act of Congress to enable them to resume their position again in the Federal Union. That presupposes, in the first place, that they are out of the Union, a fact which I am not willing to admit and can never assent to; but I do not propose to insist upon that. The main direction of the argument is, that inasmuch as the President has declared these States to be in a condition of insurrection under an act of Congress passed in 1861, therefore it will require an act of Congress to enable them to resume their legitimate or ordinary State functions; or, in other words, it will require an act of Congress to authorize them to elect electors for President and Vice-President, and, as a necessary conse-

quence, to elect Senators to this body, or Representatives to the House of Representatives.

"I do not mean to weary the Senate by reading at large the statute of 1861, but I may be permitted perhaps to refer to it for the purpose of showing the object, intent, and scope of that enactment. It is entitled, not 'An act to declare war against the States of South Carolina, Virginia, and others,' but 'An act further to provide for the collection of duties on imports, and for other purposes.' The fifth section authorizes the President in certain cases to declare the inhabitants of certain States to be in a state of insurrection by virtue of the power conferred upon him by the act of February 28, 1795. It goes on to declare that it shall be lawful for the President, whenever he shall call forth the militia, in pursuance of the act to which I have referred—

To suppress combinations against the laws of the United States, and to cause the laws to be duly executed, and the insurgents shall have failed to disperse by the time directed by the President, and when said insurgents claim to act under the authority of any State or States, and such claim is not disclaimed or repudiated by the persons exercising the functions of government in such State or States, or in the part or parts thereof in which said combination exists, nor such insurrection suppressed by said State or States, then, and in such case, it may and shall be lawful for the President, by proclamation, to declare that the inhabitants of such State, or any section or part thereof, where such insurrection exists—

"Not a state of actual war—

are in a state of insurrection against the United States; and thereupon all commercial intercourse by and between the same and the citizens thereof, and the citizens of the rest of the United States, shall cease, and be unlawful so long as such condition of hostility shall continue.

"This is the object of the act. When these people, in the opinion of the President of the United States, are in the condition specified in this act, he shall issue his proclamation declaring that fact; 'and thereupon all commercial intercourse by and between the same and the citizens thereof, and the citizens of the rest of the United States, shall cease, and be unlawful so long as such condition of hostility shall continue.

"In pursuance of that act of Congress the President issued his proclamation, and I shall refer to a portion of it. The proclamation bears the date of August 16, 1861. It recites the act of 1861 to which I have just referred; it also recites the act of 1795, under which he derives the authority, and then proceeds to declare:

Now, therefore, I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, in pursuance of an act of Congress approved July 13, 1861, do hereby declare that the inhabitants of the said States of Georgia, South Carolina, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Florida (except the inhabitants of that part of the State of Virginia lying west of the Alleghany Mountains, and of such other parts of that State and the other States hereinbefore named as may maintain a loyal adhesion to the Union and the Constitution, or may be, from time to time, occupied and controlled by forces of the United States engaged in the dispersion of said in-

surgents), are in a state of insurrection against the United States, and that all commercial intercourse between the same and the inhabitants thereof, with the exceptions aforesaid, and the citizens of other States and other parts of the United States, is unlawful, and will remain unlawful until such insurrection shall cease or has been suppressed.

"The object, design, and intent of the act was to prohibit trade with these insurgents, to prevent persons in the loyal part of the Union from carrying on commercial intercourse with them, and from furnishing them with provisions and munitions of war with which they might continue to prosecute this rebellion; and then there was an exception from the scope and effect of the act in favor of the State of West Virginia and such other States or parts of States as maintained a loyal adhesion to the Union and the Constitution, or may be from time to time occupied and controlled by forces of the United States engaged in the dispersion of the insurgents.

"Now, if it comes to the knowledge of the joint convention to be assembled on Wednesday of next week that in either of these States this insurrection has been suppressed, and that the people of either one of those States have assumed the suspended functions of their State government, have reorganized a State constitution, have elected State officers, and have put their civil government into full execution and operation, and that fact comes before us attested and undisputed, I inquire whether, under the provisions of this law and the proclamation of the President, it is necessary that there should be an act of Congress passed in order to establish the fact that these people have reorganized and reassumed their ancient loyal functions! Why, sir, I thought that this whole war, the expenditure of thousands of millions of dollars and of oceans of blood, was for the very purpose of restoring this Union and bringing back these shooting stars to their ancient orbits.

"I differ with the Senator from Michigan, who would make the return of these States to the Union attendant with the utmost difficulty. Whenever I was satisfied that there was a true, genuine, loyal feeling among the inhabitants of any of these States to repudiate their heresies and return to their allegiance, and that there was a sufficient body of them to justify the proceeding, and to carry on all the essential, necessary operations of State governments, and to perform their duties within the limits of the Union, I should be disposed to extend the hand of encouragement to the loyal people, always saving and reserving not only terms of indignation for the leaders, but the privilege and firm determination of punishing in the most condign manner the guilty authors and leaders and instigators of the rebellion."

Mr. Cowan, of Pennsylvania, followed, saying: "The preamble states the fact of the rebellion prevailing in these States, and the resolution declares that because of this fact stated in the preamble these States ought not to vote. That is the proposition from the committee

The amendment of the honorable Senator from Vermont, on the other hand, proposes to take the question in blank, and to declare that all the States which were proclaimed to be in a state of insurrection by the President ought not to vote until that insurrection has been declared by law to be suppressed. I am opposed to that amendment for divers reasons, and I think if we come to examine this question fairly we shall see that any action of ours intended to prevent Louisiana, for instance, and Arkansas from voting, will be perhaps a breach of faith on the part of this Government, and a violation of that courtesy which is due from one department of it to another.

"Sir, what are the facts? It is said that by the act of July 13, 1861, these States are cut out from the Union and debarred from all their privileges as States, political as well as others. I do not so read the act of July 13, 1861; nor do I conceive that that was its purpose, because in endeavoring to get at a fair construction of a law, it is always necessary to ascertain what was the purpose of the lawgiver. I apprehend, so far from its being the purpose of that law to put these States out of the Union, it was its intention to keep them in; that is, it was intended to be a means to keep them in, although for the purpose of better achieving that end all commercial intercourse was cut off with them, but not political intercourse. They were not deprived of any of their rights as States, or from exercising any of the functions of States, provided they were able to do so in due time.

"In pursuance of that act of Congress, the President, by his proclamation of August 16, 1861, declared Louisiana in a state of insurrection. By the proclamation of January 1, 1863, he exempted thirteen parishes of the State from the operation of the emancipation proclamation. Why? Because he says in that proclamation that the rebellion does not exist in those thirteen parishes; that that condition of things upon which he was allowed before that time to issue his proclamation did not exist in those parishes, and therefore he exempted them. We recognized the validity of that proclamation, I believe; at least we have always treated it with that respect which is due to the act of another department of this Government when it is not grossly in violation of law or of the Constitution. By the proclamation, however, of the 8th of December, 1863, the President invited the people of Louisiana and of all the other States to resume their State rights and State functions, provided one-tenth of them would agree to make the proper organization.

"Now, as I understand the question here, it is simply this: in pursuance of that invitation extended by the President, and upon the footing of his proclamation declaring that those rights should be restored to them, and that they would be protected in the exercise of them, the people of Louisiana, in numbers sufficient to bring them within his terms, have

organized a State government, and have it now actually in operation in the State of Louisiana. The question simply is, whether we will carry out that arrangement of the President in good faith, or whether we will violate it; and that is the question which presents itself distinctly upon the propositions now before this body. The President has invited a number of the people of these States which have been oppressed with the rebellion to go to work to reorganize their State governments, and has promised that he will extend, and this Government will extend, to them the protection guaranteed by the Constitution; and he goes so far as to state that phrase of the Constitution *in hæc verba*. Will we stand by it? That is the question. Will we carry it out in good faith? If we are willing to do so, then there is no difficulty; and this one-tenth of the people, or whatever the number may be, will become for this occasion the State of Louisiana, and the State of Arkansas, or any other State that sees fit to accept those conditions:

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "The question now is, whether the two Houses in their legislative capacity may lay down certain principles and regulations to prevent disorder and confusion in the act of counting the presidential votes? I think they may.

"Where the Constitution directs an act to be done, it invests all needful power to enable that act to be conveniently done. As I understand the Constitution, the power to count the votes is vested in the two Houses of Congress. That is a power to be executed under the Constitution. A general provision of the Constitution provides that Congress may pass all laws necessary and proper to carry into execution any power vested by the Constitution in the Government of the United States or in any of the departments or officers thereof. This power to count the presidential votes is certainly vested by the Constitution somewhere. It is vested in the two Houses. The manner in which the count shall be made is not prescribed by the Constitution. Then comes in the general power given to Congress to pass all laws necessary and proper to execute any of the powers vested by the Constitution in the Government or in any department or officer thereof.

"I understand that that incidental power is simply proposed to be executed by this joint resolution in declaring certain principles and forms by which the count shall be made. This count is to be made in subordination to the Constitution. The Constitution declares that no man shall be eligible to the office of President unless he be a native-born citizen or a citizen of the United States at the adoption of the Constitution. Suppose the State of Louisiana had voted for a man who did not come up to that qualification, who was not a native citizen of the United States, or who had not resided in the United States at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, would it not be the duty of the two Houses, in counting the

vote, to decline to count the vote of Louisiana that had been cast for a person for President in direct conflict with the spirit and the letter of the Constitution? It certainly would. The vote must be counted. How can it be counted until it is ascertained? The vote must be identified. It must be identified, and ascertained in obedience to certain principles of the Constitution. One of those principles is that the candidate voted for must be thirty-five years of age; another is that he must have been a citizen of the United States at the time the Constitution was adopted, or he must be a native-born citizen. Any vote cast in opposition to these plain and palpable provisions of the Constitution would be null and void; it would not be a vote for President in conformity to the Constitution, and therefore it would be void. To ascertain whether this vote is so cast or not, the two Houses of Congress, acting in the count of the vote, must decide whether any State has voted for a man under thirty-five years of age, or voted for an alien, against the provisions of the Constitution. They are to ascertain whether such votes have been given or not, before they can make a constitutional count of the votes.

"Now, sir, as I understand the effect of this joint resolution, it is simply in a form to do that duty; that is, to ascertain whether the vote of certain States has been cast in conformity to the Constitution or not, and deciding that they have not been cast in conformity to the Constitution, to exclude them from the count."

Mr. Powell, of Kentucky, said: "I believe that the States in revolt are still States of the Union. I believe they are not out of the Union. I believe, furthermore, that when they choose to lay down their arms, and to elect officers of their State governments who acknowledge this Government, and to send members to the House of Representatives, and Senators to this chamber, they have the right to do so, and I believe that they ought to be permitted to do so. While I say that, I know of course that each House is the judge of the qualifications of its members, and each House is to judge for itself whether the resistance to the Government in any State has sufficiently ceased to entitle it to representation here, and hence it is that each case must stand upon its own merits as it is presented here. For myself, I would vote tomorrow to receive Senators in this hall from every State that is in revolt, provided I believed that a majority of the people of those States, unawed by the military power, uninfluenced by any outward force, of their own good will, in the exercise of their own volition, had in good faith elected those men in the way prescribed by their constitution and laws. I think, whenever they manifest such disposition to return, a majority of the people will indicate that it is our duty to allow them to return. We, of course, and the other House, must be the judges of that matter to a great extent; we

must sit in judgment upon each case; and we must decide whether or not a majority of the people of the State have ceased their resistance to the authority of the United States, and whether or not the parties who present themselves were elected by the free suffrages of those people, unawed by the military or any other power."

Mr. Cowan: "Allow me to ask the honorable Senator what he would do if a majority of the people of a State were to establish a monarchy?"

Mr. Powell: "The Constitution guarantees a republican form of government."

Mr. Cowan: "The inquiry which I put to the Senator from Kentucky I think is one which reaches to the very marrow of this question. The people of a State are divided; about half of them desire to preserve their connection with the Union, to give it their allegiance; but the other portion, say a majority, refuse, and insist upon secession. We are bound by the Constitution to preserve the Union and to preserve the rights of the people under union; not merely the rights of a majority, but the rights of the people, of all the people, and of any number of the people, however small. What are we to do? A minority of the people come forward and say, 'If you aid us for awhile, we can preserve this State and keep her in the Union.' 'But no,' according to the doctrine advanced here, 'there must be a majority of you before we can recognize you as in the Union.' Suppose they answer you, 'The majority, by persisting in abandoning the Union, can destroy forever the State and deprive us of our rights which were guaranteed to us as a portion of the people of the State.'

"A portion of the people of Louisiana come here and say, 'We are loyal, we owe you allegiance, we have a State government organized and in operation, and if you will aid and assist us we will keep it in organization and operation, and we will control and dominate after a time the rebels and secessionists.' What is it proposed to answer to them? 'You cannot come back; there are not enough of you.' That will be very poor encouragement for the loyal men of the rebel States to try and bring back their people to reason, and it presumes another thing that never was true—that the people, the masses of a country under circumstances like those which surround us, ever were in rebellion. The masses of the people even in the Southern States never were in rebellion against the Government of the United States. They never could have been. The masses never go into rebellion unless they have wrongs to redress and injuries to avenge. That was not the case in this rebellion. It is a rebellion of leaders, and the masses are deluded away by falsehoods industriously circulated everywhere, and inflammatory speeches made. It is impossible for them to get back unless we create some such scaffolding in the rebel States as these governments of Arkansas and Louisiana

will furnish. We ought to cultivate them. We ought not, I think, to stop and inquire whether they constitute a tenth or a twentieth of the inhabitants; we ought to make the most of them. They are all we have there; and if we repulse them and take away their authority, what is left in those States, what have we there? Will not those loyal men say, 'What is the bounty to loyalty that you propose? Why, that we wait without any State government, that we submit to this military rule and dictation, which is so much deprecated, until we can convert more than a majority of the people to establish a State government.'"

Mr. Wade, of Ohio, said: "Can any portion of a State attempt to govern the whole? Suppose you have got one loyal county in a State, can it control the destinies of all the rest of that State? If you have by military authority within the lines of your encampment a great city or a portion of a State where there is a population, is it very difficult for the President or for the commanding officers there to get up all the paraphernalia of a State upon a ten-acre piece of land? When you have done that, and under the shadows of your armies attempt to elect all the magistrates and all the officers necessary to perfect the machinery of your government and put it in operation, can you be so blind as to suppose that when you have by military power, for it is nothing else, clothed these men with authority to govern, it is a republican government? Sir, it is just as much a military government as it was before you went through the farce of selecting those officers. There is your military governor; has he ever been withdrawn from Louisiana; or if another governor has been substituted, by whom was he substituted? By the Commander-in-chief of all the armies of the United States. When the mandate went forth from the President to Mr. Hahn, 'Be Governor of that State,' he did not consult the Senate, he did not consult anybody in particular; but the mandate issued from the President of the United States unaided, unknown, unadvised by anybody, 'Mr. Hahn, be Governor of that State, call a convention, declare what your status shall be in the Republic, elect your Representatives, organize in form the shadow of a State government, and you shall be a State government.' They could make out the semblance, but it lacks all the reality of a government, because it does not represent the will of the people, or at least we have no evidence that it is the will of the people of the State.

"There is no alternative. If you have a rebellious people who are determined that they will not submit to the laws and authority of the General Government, if a majority of a State are thus inclined, a free government in that State is impossible. You need not talk to me about your one-tenth. The Senator from Pennsylvania wants to know if it takes a majority to govern a State. I wish he was here, because I want to put the question to him, how do you understand it; 'how readest thou?' is there any

principle of free government that has decided that any thing less than a majority of the people of a State, or of the voters of a State, can govern its destinies? I mean upon republican democratic principles. I speak not of the farce of a civil government overshadowed by a military governor, a wheel within a wheel, a military government dominating your whole political community, and inside of that and under it and subordinate to it, a civil government pretending to be a free government! I say it is a farce; it is unworthy of the American Senate to give it a moment's consideration.

"The Senator from Pennsylvania says he would permit one-tenth of the people to govern the State. Now I want to know of the Senator what protection that one-tenth will have when you withdraw all external power from them, and leave them to themselves? What chance will they have with the nine-tenths opposed to them?

Mr. Cowan: "That is the very question that we must now meet. It is the question now whether we will maintain State governments there in connection with the Union or whether we will treat these people as a conquered people, as conquered provinces; whether we will assume the task of governing them entirely, or whether we will do that which the President is endeavoring to do now. I am very free to say that I am in favor of his plan; I very much prefer it; and I have no doubt that the one-tenth of the people of a State organized with the reins of State government in their hands, the means of enforcing its authority, aided by the General Government, will finally bring back all these States to obedience, allegiance. I have no doubt about it. But repulse this one-tenth, repulse the loyal people of the States who are endeavoring to bring them back, drive them away into rebellion, what then? If you have not the one-tenth, you have nothing. If you have not these people who are your friends in Louisiana and Arkansas and the other States, whom have you? Are you determined to drive them all into utter and inextinguishable rebellion, or are you willing that the repentant, as well as those who have always been loyal, shall come back and endeavor to establish themselves in such form that the Union may be restored? To state the question, in my judgment, is to answer it.

"It is said that the tenth of the people do not represent the whole people. They may not represent the whole people, loyal and disloyal, but they represent the loyal people, and it is the loyal people of these States for whom we have made this tremendous struggle. Is there a Senator on this floor who would have embarked on this war if it were not to rescue the loyal people of these States from the usurpation which oppressed them? Certainly not. What right should we have had to do so? If the whole of this people had gone away into secession, what right should we have had to restrain and control them?"

A motion was now made by Mr. Lane, of Indiana, to postpone the resolution indefinitely, which was lost—yeas 11; nays 26; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Cowan, Doolittle, Farwell, Harlan, Harris, Howe, Lane of Indiana, Nesmith, Ten Eyck, Van Winkle, and Willey—11.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Buckalew, Clark, Collamer, Conness, Davis, Dixon, Foster, Hale, Henderson, Howard, Johnson, Lane of Kansas, Morgan, Morrill, Nye, Powell, Sherman, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Trumbull, Wade, Wilkinson, Wilson, and Wright—26.

ABSENT—Messrs. Brown, Carlile, Chandler, Foot, Grimes, Harding, Hendricks, Hicks, McDougall, Pomeroy, Ramsay, Richardson, Riddle, and Saulsbury—14.

Mr. Doolittle, of Wisconsin, in opposition to the resolution, said: "The Senator from Ohio, in the course of his remarks, undertook to denounce in very strong terms the policy adopted or suggested by the President of the United States in his message as the policy upon which he would attempt the reorganization of civil government and civil institutions in the States where the insurrection had prevailed. There has been so much said about it, and so much misrepresentation also, that I desire for a few brief moments to call the attention of the Senate to that proposition.

"Every person knows that there must be some form of government in these States. If, with our armies, we enter into a State or country, and take possession of it by military power, some form of government must be established—military, of course, in the first instance. The civil government is displaced, so to speak, by military power. In the midst of arms the laws are silent, is the old expression of the Romans: *inter arma silent leges*. When the people of a district become so far obedient to their obligations of loyalty to the Government which thus assumes, by military power, to put down an insurrection, an attempt may be made to surrender the military power and establish a civil administration by the people themselves. For a time the form of government may be, to a certain extent, a mixed form, both of civil and military power, each leaning upon the other. As the thing progresses and grows still further, the military power may be more and more withdrawn, and still greater power and authority given to the civil administration and the civil officers of the government.

"Now, sir, what is the actual state of the case in relation to Louisiana? When we first captured New Orleans, and by our forces took possession of the rivers and the lands adjoining, there could be no government but that of a military character. But after an experience of one, two, or three years, the people there became so well satisfied of the great mistake of going into rebellion against the Government of the United States and of the necessity of submitting to its authority and its jurisdiction, that they began to come back to their allegiance to this Government, and were willing to join in the organization of the civil government of the State, and resume their relations to the Gov-

ernment of the United States. Accordingly we find that when asked to do so, eleven thousand four hundred and fourteen of the loyal citizens of that State joined in the organization of a new constitution, which was submitted to the people, adopted by them, and a Legislature and other officers chosen by virtue of it, and the whole machinery of civil government put into full operation in that State. By virtue of the authority of that constitution, they now have their own government, their own Legislature, they are making municipal laws and regulations for themselves. Their courts are sitting every day in judgment upon the rights of individuals. Under the authority of this new constitution, all the relations of life are now being regulated. Under the authority of this new constitution, I tell my friend from Ohio that nearly ninety thousand slaves, who were not reached by the emancipation proclamation, have had their fetters knocked from their limbs and freedom given to them. Yes, sir, freedom has been given to ninety thousand slaves by this very constitution which he would undertake to trample under his feet as a military usurpation and as a miserable farce. Can he stand up in the face of this country, when Louisiana presents herself in this attitude as a free State, knocking off the chains from ninety thousand of her slaves whom the emancipation proclamation did not reach (for they were excepted), and deny to free Louisiana her rights of representation here, and her right to be heard as one of the free States of this Union in voting upon the very constitutional amendment which we have submitted to the States for their ratification?

"But, sir, to return once more to this much-denounced policy of the President. It is denounced as a military usurpation. It is directly the reverse of that. It is an attempt on the part of the President to lay down the military power, to put it into the hands of the civilians; to take it from the army and to give it to the people. What does he say? He says this in substance: 'Whenever one-tenth or a portion of the population equal to one-tenth of the whole voting population of the district or the State before the rebellion began are willing voluntarily to undertake the business of administering civil government, I, as President of the United States and Commander-in-chief of the army, pledge to them my good faith that I will stand by them and try and enable them to do it.' That is all there is of it. So far from being a military usurpation, it is an attempt on the part of the President to lay down his military power; and under that provision of the Constitution which compels this Government to guarantee a republican form of government to every State in the Union, the President is endeavoring in good faith to do it."

Mr. Conness, of California, said: "With the Senator's consent, I ask him if he holds that the right of Congress to act upon the question of the organization or admission of the States now in rebellion can only occur and take place

when Senators present themselves from those States here, or if the Senator denies to Congress a right to participate in the question of their reorganization as States? I desire the information, because it is important."

Mr. Doolittle: "My opinion is very clear that we act upon the question when it is presented to us, and the Senators appear here and ask admission, first, whether there is a State to represent; secondly, whether a Legislature has been chosen which can send representatives; and, thirdly, whether the men who appear here have the constitutional qualifications; and on this subject our decision is final. The President has nothing to do with it; the House of Representatives has nothing to do with it; we are the sole and conclusive jurisdiction."

"The question raised by the Senator is not one that I have discussed in this argument. It is a very distinct and different question from the one I am now discussing, and I do not intend to go into a discussion of it now. Possibly on some other occasion it may come up, and I may discuss that question; but I understand it is a very different one from that I am now arguing."

Mr. Conness: "I so understand it; and I understand the Senator; but I understood him to say that upon the question of the admission of Senators from those States only could our right to act on the question occur or come up; and therefore I asked the Senator if he held the opinion that Congress has no right and no power to act upon the question of whether those States should be reorganized or not, because, although the Senator may not believe that the latter question is involved in the proposition now before the Senate, I differ with him, and believe that it is involved in it. Therefore I asked the Senator the question."

Mr. Doolittle: "I did not intend to go into the discussion of that question, which leads into a much broader field of inquiry, and there are certain other provisions of the Constitution that would have to be discussed that I do not intend to take up now. I prefer to go on with my train of argument, and finish what I have to say on the point directly under consideration."

"I was saying, Mr. President, that our decision on that question of the admission of Senators is without any appeal, and whatever law might be passed by Congress would not in any way whatever abridge our supreme jurisdiction over the question of the admission or rejection of Senators in this body. The House and the Senate act entirely independent of each other on that question. Take the case of Virginia. We have Virginia represented on this floor. The House of Representatives refused Virginia any representation in that body. We act upon our own responsibility, each for itself. We determine whether men shall come in here and sit as the Representatives of States. The House determine whether they shall go into that body as the Representatives of the districts of the several States."

"There is another question, it seems to me, that may be involved in this decision. If we assume to say, as is contended for by the Senator from Michigan (Mr. Howard), I believe, that these several States which have been declared to be in insurrection have ceased to be States of the United States, and are to be regarded as mere subjugated provinces or territories, as if acquired from some foreign power; if that doctrine is to prevail—a doctrine which finds support in some circles and places—this other consequence will follow."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, replied: "What I stated, or intended to state, was this: that the power of the United States over a conquered State which has been in rebellion is the ordinary power of the conqueror over conquered territory; but that in this particular case there is superadded to the rights and duties of the conqueror a trust, growing out of the Constitution of the United States, which is to be performed by the United States in its discretion and in due time, in the shape of a restoration of the conquered State to the Union. Congress may take its own time to bring about this restoration. There are no limitations in the Constitution in regard to the mode or time in which it is to be done. The Territory, however, having been once a State, must be restored to its condition of a State by the action of Congress at some time, and according to the discretion of Congress, carrying out honestly and fairly the obligation of the Constitution; but in the mean time, understand me, I hold that while in this conquered state it is subject to be governed by military authority, by a provisional government, or by any other means which Congress may see fit to adopt; and I hold it to be the duty of Congress at an early day, as early as is reasonable and practicable, to pass an act which shall apply to all such cases, and not to leave it to the unlimited discretion of the Commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States."

Mr. Doolittle: "The point that I understood the Senator to make the other day, and I am not quite clear now whether I understand him to controvert it, was, that these States once declared in insurrection cease to be States of the Union. If I was mistaken in that I am glad to be corrected."

Mr. Howard: "If they are States in insurrection, as they have been pronounced to be by the constituted authorities of the United States, then as States, as political communities, they are enemies of the United States. Can a community which is an enemy of the United States be treated as one of the United States? It is only necessary to ask the question, to answer it. *De facto* these States are out of the Union, and all the gentleman's argument and all he may imagine cannot, *de facto*, constitute them States until our arms have triumphed."

Mr. Doolittle: "*De facto* out of the Union; they are no longer States of the Union. I do not wish to charge upon that Senator doctrines that he does not entertain. I know that it has

been advocated in certain other quarters that those States, by virtue of their insurrection, have ceased to exist as States, are no longer States of the Union; that they are not only out of the Union, but have ceased to be States at all.

"Now, I understand the Senator from Michigan to say that he regards them as States *de facto* out of the Union, and as States hostile to the United States, as public enemies. There is another provision of our Constitution that ought not to be forgotten; and that is, that when we elect a President and Vice-President they must both be residents of some State of the Union. We have elected Mr. Lincoln from Illinois. Undoubtedly that is a State in the Union. We have also elected Andrew Johnson from the State of Tennessee as Vice-President of the United States. Is he a public enemy? Does he live in a State of this Union, or does he live in some subjugated territory?

"Sir, whatever fine-spun theories gentlemen may give loose to in their imaginations, I tell you that the doctrine that any one of these States is out of the Union is the very doctrine which we have been fighting against from the beginning. The very ground on which we stand is, that they are not out of the Union, that they have no power to go out of the Union; and it is to maintain that doctrine that we have poured out our treasure and our blood like water upon every battle-field. In my opinion the doctrine—I do not say that the Senator contends for it, for I do not precisely understand his position—but the doctrine that says these States are no longer States of the United States is one huge, infernal, constitutional lie, that would stamp all our conduct from the beginning as murder, and cover us all over with blood."

Mr. Sumner: "I understood the Senator a few moments ago to say that the Constitution required that the President and Vice-President should come from two different States."

Mr. Doolittle: "Not be residents of the same State."

Mr. Sumner: "I think the Senator has not quoted it correctly. I have it before me. It is as follows:

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves.

"All that is required is that the candidate shall be a citizen of the United States; and I presume nobody ever questioned that Andrew Johnson was a great and loyal citizen of the United States."

Mr. Doolittle: "The Constitution also provides that—

No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President.

"And there is another provision in the Con-

stitution requiring their residence in the States of the Union."

The question was taken on the motion of Mr. Ten Eyck, to strike out "Louisiana" from the title, and lost, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Cowan, Dixon, Doolittle, Farwell, Harlan, Harris, Howe, Lane of Indiana, Lane of Kansas, Nesmith, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ten Eyck, Van Winkle, and Willey—15.

NAYS—Messrs. Brown, Buckalew, Clark, Collamer, Conness, Davis, Foster, Henderson, Hendricks, Howard, Johnson, Morgan, Morrill, Powell, Saulsbury, Sherman, Sprague, Sumner, Trumbull, Wade, Wilkinson, and Wright—22.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Carlile, Chandler, Foot, Grimes, Hale, Harding, Hicks, McDougall, Nye, Richardson, Riddle, Stewart, and Wilson—14.

A motion to strike out the preamble was lost, yeas 12; nays 80.

The motion of Mr. Collamer to strike out the preamble and the whole of the resolution except the resolving clause, and to insert the following, was rejected, yeas 13, nays 27:

That the people of no State, the inhabitants whereof have been declared in a state of insurrection by virtue of the fifth section of the act entitled "An act further to provide for the collection of duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved July 13, 1861, shall be regarded as empowered to elect electors of President and Vice-President of the United States, until said condition of insurrection shall cease, and be so declared by virtue of the law of the United States; nor shall any vote cast by any such electors elected by the votes of the inhabitants of any such State, or the Legislature thereof, be received or counted.

Other amendments were made, and the joint resolution was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Brown, Buckalew, Chandler, Clark, Collamer, Conness, Davis, Dixon, Farwell, Foster, Grimes, Hale, Harlan, Henderson, Hendricks, Howard, Johnson, Morgan, Morrill, Nye, Powell, Ramsey, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Trumbull, Wade, and Wright—29.

NAYS—Messrs. Cowan, Doolittle, Harris, Howe, Lane of Kansas, Nesmith, Saulsbury, Ten Eyck, Van Winkle, and Willey—10.

ABSENT—Messrs. Carlile, Foot, Harding, Hicks, Lane of Indiana, McDougall, Pomeroy, Richardson, Riddle, Sprague, Wilkinson, and Wilson—12.

It was as follows:

Whereas, the inhabitants and local authorities of the States of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Tennessee rebelled against the Government of the United States, and were in such condition on the 8th day of November, 1864, that no valid election for electors of President and Vice-President of the United States, according to the Constitution and laws thereof, was held therein on said day: therefore

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the States mentioned in the preamble to this joint resolution, are not entitled to representation in the Electoral College for the choice of President and Vice-President of the United States for the term of office commencing on the 4th day of March, 1865; and no electoral votes shall be received or counted from said States concerning the choice of President and Vice-President for said term of office.

In the House, on January 30th, Mr. Wilson, of Iowa, from the Committee on the Judiciary,

reported back the joint resolution relative to counting the electoral votes. The preamble recited that the inhabitants and local authorities of the States of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Tennessee, rebelled against the Government of the United States, and have continued in a state of armed rebellion for more than three years, and were in a state of armed rebellion on the 8th of November, 1864.

The joint resolution provides that the States mentioned in the preamble are not entitled to representation in the electoral college for the choice of President and Vice-President of the United States.

The previous question was called, and under its operation the resolution was passed.

In the Senate, on Feb. 6th, Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, offered the following joint resolution:

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of both Houses concurring), That the following article be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of such Legislatures, shall become a part of the Constitution, to wit:

Representatives shall be appointed among the several States which may be included within this Union according to the number of male citizens of age, having in each State the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature. The actual enumeration of such citizens shall be made by the census of the United States.

He said: "I ask the reference of the joint resolution to the Committee on the Judiciary, and I content myself with remarking that that amendment, or something like it, seems to become necessary now since the adoption of the other constitutional amendment by which slavery is prohibited throughout the United States." It was so referred.

In the House, on Feb. 6th, the following joint resolution of the Senate was considered and adopted:

Resolved by the Senate (the House of Representatives concurring therein), That the following be added to the joint rules of the two Houses, namely:

The two Houses shall assemble in the hall of the House of Representatives at the hour of one o'clock, P. M., on the second Wednesday in February next succeeding the meeting of the electors of President and Vice-President of the United States, and the President of the Senate shall be their presiding officer. One teller shall be appointed on the part of the Senate, and two on the part of the House of Representatives, to whom shall be handed, as they are opened by the President of the Senate, the certificates of the electoral votes; and said tellers having read the same in the presence and hearing of the two Houses thus assembled, shall make a list of the votes as they shall appear from the said certificates; and the votes having been counted, the result of the same shall be delivered to the President of the Senate, who shall thereupon announce the state of the vote and the names of the persons, if any, elected, which an-

nouncement shall be deemed a sufficient declaration of the persons elected President and Vice-President of the United States, and, together with a list of the votes, be entered on the Journals of the two Houses.

If, upon the reading of any such certificate by the tellers, any question shall arise in regard to counting the votes therein certified, the same having been stated by the presiding officer, the Senate shall thereupon withdraw, and said question shall be submitted to that body for its decision; and the Speaker of the House of Representatives shall, in like manner, submit said question to the House of Representatives for its decision; and no question shall be decided affirmatively, and no vote objected to shall be counted, except by the concurrent votes of the two Houses, which being obtained, the two Houses shall immediately reassemble, and the presiding officer shall then announce the decision of the question submitted; and upon any such question there shall be no debate in either House. And any other question pertinent to the object for which the two Houses are assembled, may be submitted and determined in like manner.

At such joint meeting of the two Houses, seats shall be provided as follows: for the President of the Senate, the Speaker's chair; for the Speaker, a chair immediately upon his left; for the Senators, in the body of the hall upon the right of the presiding officer; for the Representatives, in the body of the hall not occupied by the Senators; for the tellers, Secretary of the Senate, and Clerk of the House of Representatives, at the Clerk's desk; for the other officers of the two Houses, in front of the Clerk's desk and upon either side of the Speaker's platform.

Such joint meeting shall not be dissolved until the electoral votes are all counted and the result declared, and no recess shall be taken unless a question shall have arisen in regard to the counting of any of such vote, in which case it shall be competent for either House, acting separately, in the manner hereinbefore provided, to direct a recess not beyond the next day at the hour of one o'clock, P. M.

In the House, on February 8th, the counting of the electoral vote for President and Vice-President took place. At five minutes past one o'clock, P. M., the Doorkeeper announced the Senate of the United States.

The Senate entered the hall, preceded by its Sergeant-at-Arms and headed by the Vice-President and the Secretary of the Senate, the members and officers of the House rising to receive them. The Senators took the seats set apart for them in the eastern section of the hall.

The Vice-President took his seat as presiding officer of the joint convention of the two Houses, the Speaker occupying a chair on the left of the Vice-President.

Senator Trumbull, the teller appointed on the part of the Senate, and Messrs. Wilson and Dawson, the two tellers appointed on the part of the House, took their seats at the Clerk's desk, at which the Secretary of the Senate and the Clerk of the House also occupied seats; two of the clerks of the Senate occupying seats at the reporters' desk.

The Vice-President: "The Senate and House of Representatives having met under the provisions of the Constitution for the purpose of opening, determining, and declaring the votes for the offices of President and Vice-President of the United States for the term of four years commencing on the 4th of March next, and it being my duty, in the presence of both Houses

thus convened, to open the votes, I now proceed to discharge that duty."

The Vice-President then proceeded to open and hand to the tellers the votes of the several States for President and Vice-President of the United States, commencing with the State of Maine.

Senator Trumbull, one of the tellers, read in full the certificate of the vote of the State of Maine, giving seven votes for Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, for President of the United States, and seven votes for Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, for Vice-President of the United States.

Senator Wade: "Mr. President, I move to dispense with the reading of every thing in the certificate except the result of the vote."

Mr. Cox: "Mr. President, I believe that it is not competent for this joint convention to have any motion submitted, but I suggest, as General Cass suggested in 1857, that only the result of the votes shall be announced."

The Vice-President: "That can be done, as suggested. The Chair does not think that it is within his power to receive the motion, unless the Senator from Ohio desires that the Senate shall separate in order to pass upon the question."

Senator Wade: "I do not propose any such thing. I believe we may dispense with the reading of all but the results."

The Vice-President: "The Chair will, therefore, if there be no objection, direct the results of the returns only to be read. The tellers will now read the results of the vote of the State of New Hampshire."

The tellers reported, through Senator Trumbull, that they had examined the vote of the State of New Hampshire, that they found it in due form, that all the votes given for President of the United States were five, all of which were for Abraham Lincoln, of the State of Illinois; and that all the votes given for Vice-President of the United States were five, all of which were for Andrew Johnson, of the State of Tennessee.

The same form was observed in announcing the votes of the other States.

The tellers having read, through Mr. Wilson, the certificate from the State of Nevada, showing that two votes had been given for Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, for President, and two votes for Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, for Vice-President,

The Vice-President said: "The Chair will state to the convention that the messenger who bore the returns from the State of Nevada communicated the fact that the third elector did not appear when the vote was taken. The State having been but recently admitted into the Union, had no law by which the vacancy could be filled; and consequently but two votes were given for President and Vice-President."

The vote of the State of Nevada having been recorded,

Senator Cowan said: "Mr. President, I in-

quire whether there are any further returns to be counted?"

The Vice-President: "There are not."

Senator Cowan: "And if there be, I would inquire why they are not submitted to this body in joint convention, which is alone capable of determining whether they should be counted or not?"

The Vice-President: "The Chair has in his possession returns from the States of Louisiana and Tennessee, but in obedience to the law of the land the Chair holds it to be his duty not to present them to the convention."

Senator Cowan: "I ask whether the joint resolution on that subject has become a law by having received the approval of the President of the United States?"

The Vice-President: "The Chair believes that the official communication of its approval by the President has not been received by either House. The Chair, however, has been apprised of the fact that the joint resolution has received the approval of the President."

Senator Cowan: "Then, as a motion is not in order in this body, I suggest, that the votes of Louisiana and Tennessee be counted, and that this convention determine the fact."

Mr. Cox: "I suggest the reading of the joint resolution by which our action is to be determined."

The Vice-President: "The Secretary will read the joint resolution under which the House and Senate are now acting."

The Secretary of the Senate then read as follows:

Resolved by the Senate (the House of Representatives concurring therein), That the following be added to the joint rules of the two Houses. (See preceding page.)

Mr. Stevens: "I do not think any question has arisen which requires the two Houses to separate. That, according to the wording of the joint resolution, can only be upon the reading of the returns which have been opened by the president of the convention."

Senator Cowan: "I merely wish to say that, believing as I do that it rests with this joint convention, in its joint capacity, to determine all questions which ought to arise here, I have done what I have thought to be my duty in bringing to the attention of the convention the question which I have raised. Having done so, I now beg leave to withdraw it."

The Vice-President: "The Chair did not understand the Senator from Pennsylvania (Mr. Cowan) as making any distinct motion, but merely a simple suggestion."

Senator Cowan: "I understood that no motion could be entertained in this convention."

The Vice-President: "Motions can be entertained upon any matters pertinent to the purpose for which the convention has assembled. The decision of those motions must be determined by the two Houses separately, after the Senate shall have withdrawn from the convention."

Mr. Yeaman: "Mr. President, if it requires a distinct motion to determine the question, I will move that all the returns before this joint convention be opened and presented for its consideration."

The Vice-President: "The Chair is of the opinion that the motion of the member from Kentucky (Mr. Yeaman) is in order, being pertinent to the object for which the House and Senate have assembled in joint convention. The member will reduce his motion to writing, so that the precise question shall be in possession of the Senate when it shall retire for the determination of the question presented for the consideration of the convention."

Mr. Pruyn: "I wish to inquire whether a second proposition, one in regard to the counting of the votes, can be entertained before the two Houses shall separate. If so, I desire to move that the tellers be instructed not to count the vote of the so-called State of West Virginia."

The Vice-President: "In the opinion of the Chair the motion of the member from New York (Mr. Pruyn) is made too late, the vote of the State of West Virginia having been already announced and declared."

Mr. Pruyn: "With all respect to the Vice-President, I desire to say that I understand the rule to be this: the certificates of the votes of the respective States have been opened, read, and announced, and now the tellers, as the proper officers of this joint convention, are to pass upon those votes, and announce the result. My motion is that the tellers be instructed not to count the vote of the so-called State of West Virginia."

Mr. Whaley: "If it be in order, I would ask the gentleman from New York (Mr. Pruyn) to state his reasons for his motion."

The Vice-President: "The language of the rule under which the two Houses are now acting is as follows:

If upon the reading of any such certificate by the tellers, any question shall arise as to the counting of the votes therein certified, &c.

"The question must be raised when the vote is announced. In the opinion of the Chair the member from New York (Mr. Pruyn) should have made his motion, in order to come within the rule, at the time the tellers announced the vote of the State of West Virginia."

Mr. Cox: "If the rule is that which has just been enunciated by the Chair, how is it that the gentleman from Kentucky (Mr. Yeaman) can submit his motion before the Vice-President shall have opened, and the tellers shall have announced, the votes of the States of Louisiana and Tennessee?"

The Vice-President: "In the opinion of the Chair the motion of the member from Kentucky (Mr. Yeaman) is in order. It does not apply to a return where objection is made, but it applies to a return which has not been submitted to the convention. It is a distinct motion that

a return shall be submitted to the convention. It comes within the latter clause of the joint resolution, which relates to any other motion pertinent to the object for which the two Houses have met in convention."

Senator Farwell: "I would suggest that the question raised by the member from Kentucky (Mr. Yeaman) has already been decided by the two Houses of Congress in the passage of the joint resolution which has just been read. It is not in order, therefore, to again raise the question in this convention, the point of order having already been determined by the two Houses of Congress."

The Vice-President: "Does the Senator from Maine (Mr. Farwell) raise a question of order upon the ruling of the Chair?"

Senator Farwell: "I raise the question of order that this question has already been decided by the two Houses of Congress in passing the joint resolution under which this convention is acting, which joint resolution has been approved by the President."

The Vice-President: "The fact of that approval of the President is within the knowledge of the Chair, and in consequence of that knowledge the Chair has seen fit to withhold the returns of the States in question. There has been no official promulgation of that approval of the President. Still, in the opinion of the Chair, if either branch of Congress shall be disposed to order the returns now upon the table to be read, it is within their power to do so. The reading of the returns would be one thing; then would arise another question, whether the vote in the return so read should be added to the count of the tellers. In the opinion of the Chair the motion of the member from Kentucky (Mr. Yeaman) is in order."

Mr. Yeaman: "Before I submit my motion in writing, I would inquire whether the submission of that motion would require the temporary dissolution of this convention and the resolving of the two Houses into their separate bodies in their respective chambers?"

The Vice-President: "The Chair has no doubt upon that point. Each House must determine the question in its own chamber; and each House has a negative upon the determination of the other."

Mr. Yeaman: "Then I desire to submit another suggestion."

Mr. Washburne, of Illinois: "I object to any debate."

The Vice-President: "All debate is out of order. The rule itself prescribes that no question shall be debated in the convention."

Mr. Yeaman: "Then I withdraw my motion, if it requires the separation of the convention into the two Houses."

The motion was accordingly withdrawn.

Senator Trumbull, on the part of the tellers, announced the following as the result of the vote for President and Vice-President of the United States:

List of votes for President and Vice-President of the United States for the constitutional term, to commence on the 4th day of March, 1865.

Number of Electoral Votes.	STATES.	President.		Vice-President.	
		Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois.	George B. McClellan, of New Jersey.	Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee.	George H. Pendleton, of Ohio.
7	Maine.....	7		7	
5	New Hampshire.....	5		5	
12	Massachusetts.....	12		12	
4	Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.....	4		4	
6	Connecticut.....	6		6	
5	Vermont.....	5		5	
33	New York.....	33		33	
7	New Jersey.....		7		7
26	Pennsylvania.....	26		26	
8	Delaware.....		8		8
7	Maryland.....	7		7	
11	Kentucky.....		11		11
21	Ohio.....	21		21	
13	Indiana.....	13		13	
16	Illinois.....	16		16	
11	Missouri.....	11		11	
8	Michigan.....	8		8	
8	Wisconsin.....	8		8	
8	Iowa.....	8		8	
5	California.....	5		5	
4	Minnesota.....	4		4	
3	Oregon.....	3		3	
3	Kansas.....	3		3	
5	West Virginia.....	5		5	
3	Nevada.....	3		3	
233	Total.....	212	21	212	21

The Vice-President: "The tellers report that the whole number of votes cast for President and Vice-President of the United States is 233; necessary to a choice, 117. For President of the United States, the tellers report that Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, has received 212 votes; George B. McClellan, of New Jersey, has received 21 votes. For Vice-President of the United States, the tellers announce that Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, has received 212 votes, and George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, has received 21 votes:

"Wherefore, I do declare that Abraham Lincoln, of the State of Illinois, having received a majority of the whole number of electoral votes, is duly elected President of the United States for four years commencing on the 4th day of March, 1865; and that Andrew Johnson, of the State of Tennessee, having received a majority of the whole number of electoral votes for Vice-President of the United States, is duly elected Vice-President of the United States for four years commencing on the 4th day of March, 1865."

[The announcement of the result of the vote was received with applause upon the floor and in the galleries.]

The Vice-President: "The object for which the House and the Senate have assembled in joint convention having transpired, the Senate will retire to its chamber."

In the Senate, on the 10th, the following message was read:

To the honorable the Senate and House of Representatives:

The joint resolution entitled "Joint resolution declaring certain States not entitled to representation in the electoral college" has been signed by the Executive, in deference to the view of Congress implied in its passage and presentation to him. In his own view, however, the two Houses of Congress convened under the twelfth article of the Constitution, have complete power to exclude from counting all electoral votes deemed by them to be illegal; and it is not competent for the Executive to defeat or obstruct that power by a veto, as would be the case if his action were at all essential in the matter. He disclaims all right of the Executive to interfere in any way in the matter of canvassing or counting electoral votes, and he also disclaims that, by signing said resolution, he has expressed any opinion on the recitals of the preamble, or any judgment of his own upon the subject of the resolution.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, February 8, 1865.

In the Senate, on February 17th, the credentials of Joseph Segar, Senator elect to supply the vacancy occasioned by the death of Mr. L. J. Bowden, were presented.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, moved to refer them to the Judiciary Committee.

Mr. Willey, of West Virginia, opposed the motion, saying: "I trust that it will not be done. I know of no reason why it should be. The credentials, I believe, are proper on their face. They come to the Senate in due form under the seal of the State of Virginia. The gentleman who comes here is accredited the successor of Hon. Mr. Bowden, who died while a member of this body. Mr. Segar appears here to take his place and to supply the vacancy occasioned by his death. I see no more propriety in referring these credentials to the Judiciary Committee than I would have seen in referring the propriety of Mr. Bowden himself (if he were now living) retaining his seat on this floor. If Mr. Bowden was entitled to a seat upon this floor, I suppose this gentleman would be entitled to take his seat as his successor, provided the credentials be all regular and correct; and I know of no objection to them."

Mr. Cowan: "I hope that reference will not be made. I think it is a very extraordinary step indeed. It seems to me this question is *res adjudicata*. We have proceeded on that idea up to the present time, and it seems to me that no sufficient reason has been presented why we should change our policy now. I beg Senators to pause before doing so. If this Union is ever to be restored in the world it must be by the means which are now presented to us for our consideration. If we are to wait until the whole of a State is under our dominion and until all the people of a State are heard from, such a restoration will never take place, never. There was no such objection as this made when the predecessor of Mr. Segar presented himself here. When he came and claimed his seat he was allowed to take it, as other Senators were. I think it would be

making an invidious distinction if we now pursue a different course on this question. I hope, therefore, that the Senate will allow the person who has been properly accredited to take his seat as a Senator."

Mr. Hale: "I wish to ask the Senator whether Mr. Bowden presented himself here as a Senator from Virginia before or after the vote taken on the admission of West Virginia."

Mr. Cowan: "I do not know how that was; perhaps it was before."

Mr. Harris: "Yes, sir."

Mr. Foster, of Connecticut, said: "The simple reference of these credentials to the Judiciary Committee will merely, as I suppose, charge that committee with inquiring whether the credentials are in due and proper form. So far as I know, that would be all the duty with which the committee would be charged by the mere reference of the credentials."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, replied: "I do not quite agree with the Senator from Connecticut as to the effect of a reference of the credentials to the Committee on the Judiciary. I suppose, if that reference be made, it will be the duty of the Committee on the Judiciary to ascertain whether these credentials come from a proper source. A public meeting might be held in the city of Washington, or in the State of Connecticut, or in the State of Illinois, and make out a credential in proper form to A, B, or C, as a Senator, and I suppose on the reference of such a credential the committee would inquire whether that public meeting had any authority to elect a Senator."

Mr. Foster: "I would ask the honorable Senator, with his permission, whether, if the credentials were in proper form and under the seal of a State, the committee would not be bound to take those credentials as they stood; and if the motion was simply to refer them to the committee, whether the committee could inquire whether the names were forged or the seal forged or any thing of the sort; whether the seal would not prove itself, and whether the document would not, under those circumstances, on its face be the evidence for the committee, to which they would be confined?"

Mr. Trumbull: "I apprehend not by any means. I suppose the members of the Senate are to take judicial notice of what is the Legislature in a State, of who is Governor of a State; and I suppose that if a credential was signed by A, B, and it was brought to the notice of the committee, or the committee of their own knowledge had notice, that A, B was not Governor of the State, or that no such Legislature had convened as purported to have made the election, they would report that fact to the Senate."

"I think that it is very proper, in the condition of things which we know to exist in the country, that these credentials should be referred before the claimant is permitted to be sworn as a member of this body; and I think the reference of the credentials will bring up

the question as it did in regard to Arkansas. In the case of persons claiming seats in this body from Arkansas a year ago, there was no objection to the credentials; they were in proper form; but the Senate proceeded to consider whether the body which undertook to elect them to the Senate was the Legislature of the State. The Constitution declares that this body "shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof;" and when credentials are referred, it is competent to inquire whether the Legislature of the State has made such an election.

"We have made that inquiry frequently since I have been here. It arose in reference to the State of Indiana a few years ago, the question being whether the body which elected certain Senators was the Legislature of that State. It arose also in reference to the first election of my friend from Iowa (Mr. Harlan), whether the body which elected him was the Legislature of the State of Iowa. The Senate, wrongly as I think, decided in that case that the body which elected him was not the Legislature of the State of Iowa, and he was sent back and reflected afterwards. This is an inquiry that has been often made in this body; and I think that when the credentials are referred, something more is to be considered than simply whether on the face of the paper it purports to be the election of a Senator or not."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "I think that is a question upon which not only we but the whole country need to be enlightened. I shall be very much obliged to that committee, should the reference be made, if they will furnish to the Senate and the country a succinct history of all the proceedings which have resulted in the election of the gentleman who now presents his credentials. If I understand it rightly, the constituency which this gentleman will claim to represent in this body is now in a state of insurrection and rebellion against the United States; that constituency as a political community are the enemies of the United States, and at war with the United States; and I desire particularly that the Committee on the Judiciary shall furnish to us, if they can furnish some argument, to show that a political community at war with the United States has a right to be represented in this body or in the other House of Congress, and thus to enjoy the political privileges which belong to States that are at peace and performing their duty to the Government. I am very much inclined to deny the right of that community to any representation upon this floor, and am embarrassed not only about the right but also the matter of the election of this gentleman and his colleague, if he has a colleague, to this body."

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, in support of the motion, said: "I regret that a question of this magnitude has been precipitated upon the Senate at this late period of the session when there is so much public business which has not yet received the attention of either House of

Congress. The Senator from Michigan does not exaggerate its magnitude. Sir, it is much to be a Senator of the United States, with all the powers and privileges pertaining to that office—powers and privileges legislative, diplomatic, and executive; and the question now is whether all these extraordinary powers and privileges shall be recognized in a gentleman whose certificate has been sent to the Chair. I thought it my duty, on hearing that certificate read as I entered the chamber, to move at once its reference to the Committee on the Judiciary. I am astonished that there can be any hesitation in making that reference. Sir, Senators who hesitate show an insensibility to the character of the question. Is the Senate ready to act blindfolded or with the eyes open? I insist that on a question of this magnitude the Senate shall act with the eyes open, wide open; and I know no other way in which they can be brought to act so except through the intervention of a responsible committee of this body. Therefore, sir, I proposed that the credentials should be referred to that committee. It will be the duty of the committee, as my friend from Michigan has suggested, to consider in the first place whether a State in armed rebellion like Virginia can have Senators on this floor. That is a great question, constitutional, political, practical. It will be their duty, then, to consider in the next place whether the gentleman whose credentials have been presented has been chosen legally under the Constitution of the United States by any State. Now, sir, I do not intend to prejudice either of these questions. I simply open them now for the consideration of the Senate."

Mr. Saulsbury: "I am glad, Mr. President, that we are furnishing evidence every day that we are a progressive people. We are learning something. These points, however, have not been presented to-day for the first time. I recollect that when my friend before me (Mr. Willey) and my other friend who is now absent from his seat (Mr. Carlile) applied for admission to this body as Senators from the State of Virginia, a few of us, a small corporal's guard, objected (not on account of any personal dislike to those honorable members) to their being admitted as members of this body, because we contended then that the Legislature of the State of Virginia had not sent those gentlemen here. We thought that the State of Virginia then was at war with the Government of the United States, and we thought that Senators professing to represent a State should in fact represent the sovereignty of that State.

"So, sir, it is too late for any member of this body to say that he opens these points now. They were opened years ago, and to my amazement, if I could be amazed at any thing transpiring either here or elsewhere in the country, I find some of those who were then most zealous for admitting the honorable Senators who claimed to represent the State of

Virginia here, now most vehement in their opposition to the admission of the new Senator."

Mr. Foster: "When I was up before I simply suggested that it did not appear to me that the question in the case would be raised on a simple reference of these credentials. I think so now. No gentleman has suggested that on these credentials any question but their due legal form arises, except the honorable Senator from Illinois (Mr. Trumbull), who cites cases that have been previously referred on credentials and considered on credentials. He has referred to the case of the State of Indiana.

"Now, the honorable Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Sumner) speaks of this as a mighty question, and he says that persons who do not perceive that it is a mighty question are insensible to its greatness. I agree with him that it is a great question, and I certainly am not to be charged with overrating it when I suggest that the question is too mighty to be raised on the simple credentials. He speaks of the credentials as a certificate to enable men to sit here. By what else does the honorable Senator sit here, except by what he calls a certificate? He refers to the honorable Senator from New York, and to the honorable Senator from Pennsylvania. By what other tenure do they hold their seats here except a certificate, if the honorable Senator chooses to call it so? How does the certificate of either of those Senators differ from this? It has the seal of the State sending the Senator, certified by certain officers. If this has the same, what is the difference?"

Mr. Sumner: "The Senator refers, for instance, to myself as a Senator from Massachusetts. Suppose it was matter of public notoriety that I came into this chamber with a certificate from a body of men in Boston, little more in number and character than the common council of that city, by public report not in fact supposed to represent the State; suppose that that was a fact much received in the country; then I submit to the Senator whether it would not be the duty of the Senate before receiving my credentials to inquire into their origin."

Mr. Foster: "Certainly. I agree most decidedly in the case put by the honorable Senator that such would be the duty of the Senate; but if, in that state of facts, the honorable Senator came here with credentials verified according to the usual forms, signed by the Secretary of State of the State of Massachusetts, with the seal of that noble Commonwealth attached to the instrument, certifying that the honorable Senator had been duly elected a Senator in the Congress of the United States from such a date to such a date, and that credential was in due and proper form, I submit with great confidence that on merely referring that document to the Judiciary Committee no such question as the honorable Senator suggests would be raised before that committee or before the Senate."

Mr. Howard: "It seems to me the duty of

the committee goes beyond the formality of a mere seal having upon it the effigies of Virginia and the old motto of the Old Dominion, '*Sic semper tyrannis*.' Would the Senator from Connecticut ignore the fact that under an act of the Congress of the United States and the proclamation of the President, old Virginia, and the whole of it, is declared to be in insurrection against the United States, and as a community at enmity with them? He would ignore this most important fact according to his construction. He would forget entirely that there are now standing upon the soil of the Old Dominion half a million of armed men, testing the question whether that old Commonwealth shall belong to the United States or to the counterfeit confederacy instituted by the rebels. It strikes me that that fact is one of some little significance, one not to be lightly treated, and one in the face of which we may well recoil from suffering her to be represented in this Senate."

Mr. Foster: "If the honorable Senator will allow me, I should like to ask him a question right there, not to interrupt him. I should like to ask him whether, if such be the relation between the State of Virginia and the United States, the Senate is not ignoring that condition of things when they admit a man to come into the body, sit here by courtesy, present his credentials, recognize those credentials as proper credentials, at least so far forth as to receive them and refer them to a committee without one word of comment? In what position do the Senate of the United States place themselves on this question if they do that?"

The President *pro tempore*: "The question will be on the motion of the Senator from Michigan to instruct the Committee on the Judiciary in regard to the point suggested by him."

Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, said: "I understand this question to stand in this way: the Congress of the United States recognized a political government in Virginia, or a portion of it, as the State of Virginia proper. On the strength of that recognition men were admitted into this Senate and into the other House. On the strength of it we made West Virginia a State and brought her into the Union, and she is in the Union to-day. It seems to me, therefore, that we are bound by all our votes during the last three years to consider the Governor and Legislature of Virginia as existing."

Mr. Willey, of West Virginia, further said: "Sir, it is a fact, not only that the Senate of the United States has recognized the existence of Virginia as a State, and her right to be represented on this floor, but the executive branch of the Government has done so, I imagine; for I saw it stated in the papers the other day that the Secretary of State had transmitted the constitutional amendment for the abolition of slavery to the Executive of Virginia, and through him it was sent to the Legislature to be acted upon, and that Legislature had acted upon it and ratified the amendment. We shall place ourselves in a singular position if we reject

a gentleman who comes here accredited with a certificate of election in due form, and repulse him from our doors and refuse to allow him a seat on the floor, when we have another member representing the same State upon the floor, and when the executive branch of the Government recognizes the Virginia Legislature at Alexandria as the true Legislature, and Governor Pierpont as the true and legitimate Governor of Virginia. I trust that this matter will not be referred at all, but that we will hold out the inducement to the loyal people of Virginia to rally around the loyal Legislature at Alexandria."

"The Senator from Michigan said awhile ago that we had shed too much blood to bring Virginia back into the Union and be humbugged by proceedings like this. Why, sir, the very object is to bring Virginia back into the Union; and it strikes me there is no more available and desirable means by which to bring her back under the old flag, and to restore her to her allegiance and place in the Federal Government, than the very organization of the loyal people around the loyal Legislature, under a loyal government and a loyal Governor, as fast as the power of the United States can relieve the loyal people of Virginia from the pressure of the rebellion."

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, said: "I wish to submit to the Senate one or two considerations on this subject, and I shall close my remarks by submitting a motion that is not debatable."

"The credentials presented to us purport to show that this gentleman was elected a member of this body on the 8th day of December last, and they bear date on the 12th day of December last. They have been held by him for more than sixty days. Every intelligent man must have known that the presentation of these credentials would give rise to debate, would involve grave political questions about which there are radical differences of opinion in this body and throughout the country. The condition of the State of Virginia, the condition of the rebel States, the effect of the rebellion, all these matters are involved in the question now presented to the Senate. This gentleman, holding these papers, might at any moment have presented them as a privileged question, and have stopped all the business of this body until they were disposed of, either referred or acted upon. Now, I ask the Senator whether it is reasonable for us at this period of the session to stop our deliberations when all the important bills of the session remain unacted upon for the purpose of considering this question? When this gentleman has had these papers in his possession for more than sixty days, when he had the right at any day to present them and call on us to decide the question raised by them, is it reasonable, I ask, to present them at this period of the session, and ask us to postpone all the important business of the session for the purpose of considering them? It seems to me it is not; and, therefore, without going into the merits of the proposition, which is a very grave

and difficult one, upon which I myself have not made up my opinion, although I have read and thought a great deal about it, I submit whether, under the circumstances, the best disposition is not to leave the question to be settled by the next Congress. Under the circumstances, therefore, I feel it my duty to submit a motion that the credentials do lie upon the table.

The motion prevailed, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Brown, Buckalew, Chandler, Clark, Collamer, Conness, Cowan, Davis, Doolittle, Farwell, Foster, Hale, Harlan, Howard, Howe, Morgan, Morrill, Nye, Powell, Ramsey, Sherman, Sprague, Sumner, Ten Eyck, Trumbull, Wade, Wilkinson, and Wilson—29.

NAYS—Messrs. Dixon, Hendricks, Johnson, Lane of Indiana, Lane of Kansas, McDougall, Nesmith, Pomeroy, Richardson, Saulsbury, Van Winkle, Willey, and Wright—13.

ABSENT—Messrs. Carlile, Foot, Grimes, Harding, Harris, Henderson, Riddle, and Stewart—8.

In the Senate, on Feb. 23d, the joint resolution recognizing the government of the State of Louisiana, was considered. The resolution was as follows:

Resolved, That the United States do hereby recognize the government of the State of Louisiana, inaugurated under and by the convention which assembled on the 6th day of April, A.D. 1864, at the city of New Orleans, as the legitimate government of said State, entitled to the guaranty and all other rights of a State government under the Constitution of the United States.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, moved to strike out all after the enacting clause, and insert the following:

That neither the people nor the Legislature of any State, the people of which were declared to be in insurrection against the United States by the proclamation of the President, dated August 16, 1861, shall hereafter elect Representatives or Senators to the Congress of the United States, until the President, by proclamation, shall have declared that armed hostility to the Government of the United States within such State has ceased; nor until the people of such State shall have adopted a constitution of government not repugnant to the Constitution and laws of the United States; nor until, by a law of Congress, such State shall have been declared to be entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States of America.

This amendment was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Brown, Conness, Grimes, Howard, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, and Wade—8.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Buckalew, Carlile, Collamer, Cowan, Dixon, Doolittle, Farwell, Foster, Hale, Harlan, Harris, Hendricks, Johnson, Lane of Indiana, Lane of Kansas, Morgan, Morrill, Nesmith, Nye, Pomeroy, Powell, Ramsey, Richardson, Riddle, Ten Eyck, Trumbull, Willey, and Wright—29.

ABSENT—Messrs. Chandler, Clark, Davis, Foot, Harding, Henderson, Howe, McDougall, Saulsbury, Sherman, Van Winkle, and Wilkinson—12.

Mr. Powell, of Kentucky, in opposition to the resolution, said: "The resolution under consideration proposes to recognize, as the legitimate State government of Louisiana, the government formed by the convention that assembled in New Orleans on the 6th day of April, 1864. In order to come to a just and correct

conclusion upon the question at issue, we must be informed of the action of the people of Louisiana, of the President of the United States, and of the military, in connection with this subject.

"Senators, before they can vote for this resolution, must maintain the doctrine contained in the President's proclamation of the 8th of December, 1863, when he proposed that one-tenth of the loyal voters of a State who would comply with the conditions set forth in his proclamation, should form a State government. They must further maintain, that the President of the United States, of his own volition, has power by decretal order to alter the constitution of a State. They must maintain further, that the President of the United States has the power to prescribe the qualifications of voters, and the qualifications of candidates for office in the States. They must further believe not only that the President possesses those powers, but that Major-General Banks possessed those powers in the State of Louisiana by virtue of his office as major-general of the army commanding in that district.

"Mr. President, I ask those who are in favor of this resolution, to tell me from whence the President of the United States derives the power to prescribe the qualifications of voters for the people of Louisiana. Whence does he derive the power to prescribe the qualifications for office? And yet all these things he does. Why, sir, he tells you plainly and distinctly in that proclamation, that none shall be qualified voters except those who take the oath prescribed in that proclamation. I can recognize no government as legitimate that has such a rotten foundation. Senators who vote for it, must admit that the President possesses these high powers of sovereignty. I have heretofore thought, and now maintain, that there is no power on earth that can lawfully form a constitution for the people of any State in this Union, save and except the sovereign people themselves. It is one of the highest acts of the sovereignty of the people to proclaim their fundamental law; but here in this pretended government of Louisiana, the Chief Executive of the United States undertakes to prescribe the qualifications of voters and to amend the constitution of Louisiana. When he prescribes the qualifications of voters, he amends the constitution of the State; for, under the constitution of that State as it existed before the rebellion, the qualifications of voters was prescribed in that instrument. The President's proclamation is the basis of the whole proceeding, and those who vote for this resolution in-dorse that proclamation.

"The sole object I had in view when I rose to address the Senate was to show, not from any outside testimony, but from the proclamations of the President, from the proclamations and orders of General Banks, and from the records before us, that this government was not formed by the free will of the people of Louisiana, that not one-tenth of the voters

even voted for the ratification of this constitution, but that it was a government formed by coercion, under the influence of the military authorities there.

"After the convention had been in session several weeks, Major-General Banks made them a visit, was received with an address, and graciously told the convention that he was pleased with what they had done so far. The power and influence of the military authorities are seen in this movement from the beginning to the end of the work. Major-General Banks is here urging with great assiduity and zeal, the ratification of his actings and doings in Louisiana. He is here, as he was in Louisiana, the most prominent actor; he has been before the committees of the two Houses, urging with hot zeal the ratification of his work. I hope and trust that he will not find the Senate and House of Representatives as obedient to his will as he found less than one-tenth of the down-trodden people of Louisiana.

"Now, sir, I am of the opinion that a government formed in that way will be of no service to the people of Louisiana or to the Union; I believe it will be absolutely detrimental and injurious. If the people of Louisiana are prepared to return to their allegiance to the United States, there certainly will be enough of them there unawed and uninfluenced by military power to reorganize their State government; but if at the point of the bayonet you force and coerce a small and insignificant minority to do it, you will inflict great injury on the people of that State."

Mr. Henderson, of Missouri, followed, saying: "The Senator from Massachusetts says that these State constitutions are not republican in form. Will he tell me in what respect?"

Mr. Sumner: "Because they do not follow out the principles of the Constitution of the United States."

Mr. Henderson: "I should like to know in what particular. The answer is a very general one, indeed. He refuses, then, to specify. The Senator can answer more particularly hereafter, if he chooses. He says these constitutions do not follow the Constitution of the United States. I have looked over them, and I find no objection to them. I can tell the Senator that if the constitution of Massachusetts is republican in form, so are the constitutions of these two States."

"If secession is potent enough to take a State out, and that was mere revolution, why cannot the loyal men perfect a revolution on the side of the Government as well as rebels perfect a revolution on the side of secession, outrage, and wrong?"

Mr. Sumner: "Does the Senator refer to me as having ever said that the act of secession took a State out?"

Mr. Henderson: "I understand the Senator to claim that these States are in a territorial condition; that they are not States; that by losing their State governments in the act of secession, they lose their specific identity as States."

Mr. Sumner: "I would rather the Senator should use my language than his own, when he undertakes to state my position. I have never stated that any act of secession took a State out. I have always said just the contrary. No act of secession can take a State out of this Union, but the State continues under the Constitution of the United States, subject to all its requirements and behests. The government of the State is subverted by secession; the Senator does not recognize it as legal or constitutional, I believe, any more than I do. Where, then, is the difference between us? There is no government which he or I recognize, but we do hold that the whole region, the whole territory, is under the Constitution of the United States, to be protected and governed by it."

Mr. Henderson: "The Senator then admits that the States are in the Union. Now, I ask him if we can restore the Union without restoring State governments in the seceded States?"

Mr. Sumner: "That is the desire I have most at heart, to restore State governments in those States."

Mr. Henderson: "Then I desire to ask the Senator, if the loyal men in one of those States acquiesce in the constitution presented here, are they not entitled to govern the State under it?"

Mr. Sumner: "If the loyal men, white and black, recognize it, then it will be republican in form. Unless that is done, it will not be."

Mr. Henderson: "Now, Mr. President, I desire to ask the Senator if the Congress of the United States can interfere with the right of suffrage in one of the American States of this Union? I put the question to him as a constitutional lawyer."

Mr. Sumner: "I answer at once as a constitutional lawyer that at the present time, under the words of the Constitution of the United States declaring that the United States shall guarantee to every State a republican form of government, it is the bounden duty of the United States, by act of Congress, to guarantee complete freedom to every citizen, and immunity from all oppression, and absolute equality before the law. No government that does not guarantee these things, can be recognized as republican in form according to the theory of the Constitution of the United States, if the United States are called to enforce the constitutional guarantee."

Mr. Henderson: "I ask the Senator now in all candor, as he believes the Government of the United States can thus interfere with the right of suffrage in one of the States, does he not also believe that the Congress of the United States may to-day declare that a State constitution is not republican in form because it denies the electoral franchise to women, because it prohibits intermarriage between whites and blacks, because it declares that one man shall be entitled to hold more property in the State than another? I content myself at present with laying down the following propositions as true, and if true the States should be admitted.

If untrue, I desire to know in what particular, and why they are untrue.

1. "I hold that the seceded States are still in the Union, and cannot get out of it except through an amendment of the Constitution permitting it.

2. "The seceded States being still in the Union are entitled to claim all the rights accorded to other States.

3. "That each State now in the Union has the right to stand upon the form of its constitution as it existed at the time of its admission. The people of such State may change its constitution, provided they retain a republican form of government; but neither the President nor Congress can reform, alter, or amend such constitution, nor prescribe any alteration or amendment as a condition of association with the other States of the Union. The General Government may properly lend its aid to enable the people to express their will; but any attempt to exercise power constitutionally reserved to the State, beyond what may be demanded by the immediate exigencies of war, will not tend to restore the Union, but rather to destroy our whole system of government.

4. "When citizens of a State rebel and take up arms against the General Government, they lose their rights as citizens of the United States, and they necessarily forfeit those rights and franchises in their respective States which depend on United States citizenship.

5. "If a seceded State be still in the Union, entitled to recognition as a State, and a majority of the people have voluntarily withdrawn their allegiance, the loyal minority constitute the State and should govern it.

6. "Congress should not reject the governments presented because of mere irregularity in the proceedings leading to their reorganization.

7. "If Congress has no right to make and impose a constitution upon the people of any State; if its power extends no further than to guarantee preëxisting republican forms of government; if the State still exists, and the loyal men are entitled to exercise the functions of its government, it follows that the only questions to be examined here are, first, is the constitution the will of the loyal men qualified to act? and, second, is it republican in form?

8. "The constitutions of Louisiana and Arkansas are thought to be republican in form, and it is admitted that the loyal men of those States respectively acquiesce in them. Hence the duty of Congress to recognize them, and the duty of each House to admit their representatives."

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, presented the following amendment for the purpose of having it printed, proposing to move it at a future day:

That it is the duty of the United States at the earliest practicable moment, consistent with the common defence and the general welfare, to reëstablish by act of Congress republican governments in those

States where loyal governments have been vacated by the existing rebellion, and thus, to the full extent of their power, fulfil the requirement of the Constitution, that "the United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government."

SEC. 2. *And be it further resolved*, That this important duty is imposed by the Constitution in express terms on "the United States," and not on individuals or classes of individuals, or on any military commander or executive officer, and cannot be intrusted to any such persons, acting, it may be, for an oligarchical class, and in disregard of large numbers of loyal people; but it must be performed by the United States, represented by the President and both Houses of Congress, acting for the whole people thereof.

SEC. 3. *And be it further resolved*, That, in determining the extent of this duty, and in the absence of any precise definition of the term "republican form of government," we cannot err, if, when called to perform this guarantee under the Constitution, we adopt the self-evident truths of the Declaration of Independence as an authoritative rule, and insist that in every reëstablished State the consent of the governed shall be the only just foundation of government, and all men shall be equal before the law.

SEC. 4. *And be it further resolved*, That, independent of the Declaration of Independence, it is plain that any duty imposed by the Constitution must be performed in conformity with justice and reason, and in the light of existing facts: that, therefore, in the performance of this guaranty, there can be no power under the Constitution to disfranchise loyal people, or to recognize any such disfranchisement, especially when it may hand over the loyal majority to the government of the disloyal minority; nor can there be any power under the Constitution to discriminate in favor of the rebellion by admitting to the electoral franchise rebels who have forfeited all rights, and by excluding loyal persons who have never forfeited any right.

SEC. 5. *And be it further resolved*, That the United States, now called at a crisis of history to perform this guaranty, will fail in duty under the Constitution, should they allow the reëstablishment of any State without proper safeguards for the rights of all the citizens, and especially without making it impossible for rebels now in arms against the national Government to trample upon the rights of those who are now fighting the battles of the Union.

SEC. 6. *And be it further resolved*, That the path of justice is also the path of peace, and that for the sake of peace it is better to obey the Constitution, and, in conformity with its requirements in the performance of the guarantee, to reëstablish State governments on the consent of the governed and the equality of all persons before the law, to the end that the foundations thereof may be permanent, and that no loyal majorities may be again overthrown or ruled by any oligarchical class.

SEC. 7. *And be it further resolved*, That a government founded on military power, or having its origin in military orders, cannot be a "republican form of government" according to the requirement of the Constitution; and that its recognition will be contrary not only to the Constitution, but also to that essential principle of our Government which, in the language of Jefferson, establishes "the supremacy of the civil over the military authority."

SEC. 8. *And be it further resolved*, That in the States whose governments have already been vacated, a government founded on an oligarchical class, even if erroneously recognized as a "republican form of government" under the guarantee of the Constitution, cannot sustain itself securely without national support; that such an oligarchical government is not competent at this moment to discharge the duties and execute the powers of a State; and that its recognition as a legitimate gov-

ernment will tend to enfeeble the Union, to postpone the day of reconciliation, and to endanger the national tranquillity.

SEC. 2. *And be it further resolved*, That considerations of expediency are in harmony with the requirements of the Constitution and the dictates of justice and reason, especially now, when colored soldiers have shown their military value; that as their muskets are needed for the national defence against rebels in the field, so are their ballots yet more needed against the subtle enemies of the Union at home; and that without their support at the ballot box the cause of human rights and of the Union itself will be in constant peril.

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "I find in the President's proclamation the following language:

And I do further proclaim, declare, and make known, that whenever, in any of the States of Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Alabama, Georgia, Virginia, Florida, South Carolina, and North Carolina, a number of persons not less than one-tenth in number of the votes cast in such State at the Presidential election in the year of our Lord 1860, each having taken the oath aforesaid and not having since violated it, and being a qualified voter by the election laws of the State existing immediately before the so-called act of secession, and excluding all others, shall reestablish a State government which shall be republican, and in no wise contravening said oath, such shall be recognized as the true government of the State, and the State shall receive thereunder the benefits of the constitutional provision which declares that "the United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and, on application of the Legislature, or the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence."

"There is an assertion of authority on the part of the Executive of the United States—made, I confess with pleasure, with the best of motives and intentions, and for patriotic ends—an assertion that the President of the United States, whenever one-tenth part of the people constituting the population of any one of the eleven rebellious States shall see fit to constitute a government for the State, will recognize of his own accord such government as being the legitimate government of the State, entitled to all the guarantees contained in the Constitution of the United States to a State peaceful and in the Union. And, sir, he gives this assurance at a time when all these States were engaged, by his own confession, the admissions of his own solemn proclamation, in a wicked, bloody, and wanton insurrection against the Government itself over which he is presiding as Chief Magistrate. Sir, I cannot recognize the authority of the President of the United States without the subsidiary aid of an act of Congress to give any such assurance to a community in insurrection against the United States. I ask the friends of this measure, I ask those gentlemen in this body who are so anxious for the passage of this resolution, which is, or will be, a recognition of this assertion on the part of the President of the United States, where in the Constitution do they find an authority given to him authorizing him to assure one-tenth part of the people of

an insurrectionary State that they, to the exclusion of all other portions of the population of that State, shall be recognized as the State, and be entitled to all the benefits of the guarantee contained in the Constitution? Sir, it seems to me, without imputing or intending to impute any wrongful intention to the excellent President of the United States, that here is an attempt to stretch the executive authority beyond any thing which the country has thus far witnessed, and I think it is time Congress, in whom, according to my ideas, rests, and rests solely, the authority of readmitting and reconstructing the rebellious States, should lay hold of this subject, assert their power, and provide by some statute of uniform application for the reconstruction, as it is called, and readmission, of the insurrectionary States. That is their right and their duty; that is not the right, it is not the duty, of the President of the United States, in my opinion.

"Mr. President, in order to determine what extent of power Congress possesses over a State once in rebellion, and now subdued by the national arms, we must look into the nature of the State governments, and the relations they bear to the national Government.

"What, then, is a State? What are its essential attributes, without which it is no State?

"A State is a moral person, a political community, possessing the faculty of political government. Its being does not consist of geographical extent, but of the united will of the persons who have their domicile within its limits. To attribute to the mere land the qualities of a State would be to mistake the cradle for the child, the vessel for the crew, the dress we behold moving before us for the immortal spirit within.

"The land is, of course, indispensable as affording room for the working of this will, but it is incapable of exercising or receiving any political faculty or right; as much so as is the tombstone of indicating the present thoughts of the departed. It is nothing, absolutely nothing, but the theatre on which the political community moves and acts, but is endowed with no thought, no right, no duty.

"It is not, therefore, in the argument of this question, entitled to any weight or consideration whatever, except as being the unconscious theatre and footstool of the thinking beings residing upon it; and we must, therefore, confine our attention to them. They constitute the State. They alone are the subjects we are to consider. If rights exist they alone possess them; if our powers are to be exerted it must be upon them only, and with a view to influence their action, with a view to bring their will into unison with our own.

"However captious and trifling may seem the objection founded on the inquiry, What is a State of the Union, it is fortunate that even this query was fully solved by the Supreme Court of the United States at an early day, and within a period of only seven years after

the present Constitution went into operation. The court says:

Every particle of authority which originally resided in Congress, or in any branch of the State governments, was derived from the people who were permanent inhabitants of each province in the first instance, and afterwards became citizens of each State; that this authority was conveyed by each body-politic separately, and not by all the people in the several provinces or States jointly; and, of course, that no authority could be conveyed to the whole but that which was previously possessed by the several parts; that the distinction between a State and the people of a State has in this respect no foundation, each expression in substance meaning the same thing.

"I refer to Penhallow's case, 3 Dallas's Reports, p. 94. If my friend from Missouri will look at that decision he will find a clear exposition of what was understood by the Supreme Court at that early day to be a State of the Union.

"A State of the Union or a State in the Union is, therefore, a people yielding obedience to the laws of the Union, that is, the acts of Congress and the national treaties. It is a people who willingly perform the duties of a State required to be performed by the Constitution; a people who have a State government which is republican in form; a people who were one of the original thirteen States which formed the United States, or a people who have, since the adoption of the Constitution, been, in the language of that Constitution, 'admitted by the Congress into this Union' as States upon an equal footing with the original States; for this equality of rights and powers as States is plainly implied by the language and the manifest intention of the instrument; and no other people except such original State or admitted State; none but a State which permits the laws of the Union to have full scope and force within its limits; none but a State which sends Senators and Representatives to Congress friendly to the Government itself, willing to vote men and money to support and uphold it, who believe that a person forcibly resisting its authority is a traitor and deserving of death; none but a State which is willing to bring to trial, to convict such a traitor, and to punish him for his treason; none but a State whose population is capable of furnishing both the grand jury to indict and the traverse jury to convict such a traitor; none but a State whose population and whose authorities are in favor not only of permitting the laws of the United States relating to civil rights to be executed, but who are willing that the punitive code of the nation, the code of vengeance against its enemies, shall be carried out; none but such are States of the Union. A State, being a moral person, must have a will; it must, in accordance with the reasoning of the same high tribunal in the same case, 'be a complete body of persons, united together for their common benefit to enjoy peacefully what is their own, and to do justice to others.'

"To be in fact a State of the Union and in

the Union, this will or consent of the people must be in harmony with the Constitution, and its movements subsidiary to it. It must regard the Constitution as its highest political good; its injunctions as the highest human law, its commands as the infallible and final measure of civil duty. In short, to be in the Union is to be actively and willingly coöperating with other States in the performance of all those acts and things without which the Federal Government cannot act or move, cannot perform the functions required of it by the Constitution; it is to elect Senators and Representatives to the Congress of the United States; to permit the courts of the United States to be held within their limits, and its citizens to act as jurors and officers of the court; to permit the judgments and sentences of the court to be executed against its citizens; to permit the United States mail to be carried through the State and its contents distributed according to law; to permit the officers of the United States to collect the Federal revenue whether derived from foreign or domestic products; to permit the United States to manage and control their own property, whether consisting of forts, dockyards, arsenals, mints, or public lands; to make such elections of Senators and Representatives freely and as the means of maintaining itself as a State in the Union; and to permit all these things willingly and freely as rights belonging to the Federal Government, with which neither the State government nor the people of the State have any right whatever to interfere. In short, to be a State in the Union is to use all those powers of the State which have a relation to the Federal Government in a manner friendly to that Government, and friendly to its existence and continuance, in a manner promotive of the objects of that Government; and to permit without hindrance the exercise within the State of all the powers of the Federal Government.

"Whether a State which should merely omit to send Senators and Representatives to Congress, would for that reason cease to be a State of the Union, it is not, perhaps, worth while now to inquire, though my opinion would be that such a State delinquency would not be followed by that consequence. But surely, if the State has gone further; if it has gone the length, as a political community, of not only refusing to participate in our legislation, but of making war upon us, concerted, open war, war evidenced by the employment of armies and navies against us, it would be folly, madness, to say that the State was not our enemy in every sense in which that term can be employed to describe hostile relations between independent communities. The State, in that case, becomes our enemy, and becomes such for the same reason that any other community becomes such, whose actual government for the time being wields the military forces of that community against us. By the law of civilized war, an organized community, and at

organized or recognized war on the part of that community, are all that are requisite to constitute its government a hostile government as to us, and its citizens or subjects our enemies. No one will pretend that such a community is in the Union in fact, for that would be to make an admission and in the same breath to contradict it. *De facto*, such a community, and, if it be bounded by State lines, such a State is as completely out of the Union as is Canada or Mexico, from the moment it assumes the attitude of hostility until it is subdued and conquered by our arms, or until it voluntarily lays down its arms, ejects its hostile government, and returns *in fact* to its once friendly sentiments and friendly relations to the Federal Government.

"Friendship for the Federal Government, in other words, loyalty, thus becomes the final test in solving the question, What is a State in the Union? If a State by its overt acts has shown a want of this friendship, it is no longer in the Union *de facto*, and cannot be treated as if it were. The Supreme Court, acting upon the soundest principles of public law, have decided the waging of war by a State, although acting under an illegitimate and revolutionary government, renders her territory enemy's territory, and the people there resident enemies of the United States, in the sense of the laws of war. And their decision could not have been different.

"Well, then, the State is in fact, though wrongfully, out of the Union—out of the Union because its actual, present government is disloyal and treasonable. It is out of the Union in the same sense in which Ireland or Scotland, if actually in arms against the authority of the British Parliament, would be out of the United Kingdom; in the same sense in which Ireland was out of her union with England when her people, at the instigation of the expelled James II., took up arms against the Prince of Orange, the actual reigning sovereign; in the same sense in which La Vendée was out of the French republic when, following the lead of George Cadoudal and other royalist chiefs, the people of that province took up arms against the then Government of France; out of it in the same sense in which an insurgent county of a State would, during its unsubdued hostility to the State, be out of the State; out of it, because unsubdued rebellion makes it for the time being an independent though unrecognized nation on the earth's surface, throwing off its allegiance to its paramount Government, and assuming by the sword to assert its separate nationality.

"But we are at war with the rebel States, and are told by those whose mouths are full of complaints and criticisms as to the mode in which this war is waged, and as to the imputed objects to be obtained by it, that the Government, so far at least as the rebel States are concerned, is under some peculiar constitutional restraint by which its hands are tied; that we

are prohibited from 'subjugating' those States; that all we can do, under the Constitution, is to break up the military array of the rebels, disperse their armed bands, take away their arms, and do that very indefinite duty, *restore order*; that thereupon our task is ended and the rebel States have a constitutional right to come back into the Union and participate in the enactment of Federal laws and the conduct of the Federal Government. And we are menaced both in Congress and out with terrible retributions if we conquer or attempt to conquer, if we subjugate or attempt to subjugate, the rebel States. It is admitted by these our critics that in an international war, a war in which the United States are one party belligerent and some other independent Power of the earth is the other, we should have all the rights and powers of other independent nations, and might rightfully conquer our adversary, subdue our adversary, subjugate our adversary; that is, that we might make a complete conquest of his people and his territory, as complete as that of Great Britain over Canada in 1762, when, as Mr. Bancroft tells us, the conquest of the province by Great Britain was complete; complete and perfect in all respects as is recognized by the modern code of war.

"Now, I need not tell the Senate that even under such a complete conquest the usages of war and the laws of nations allow the conqueror only to substitute his political authority for that of the former sovereign, and forbid him to disturb the titles of the peaceable and submissive subjects of that sovereign to their property, real or personal, or to inflict any hardship upon them beyond the ordinary war contributions required for the support of the victorious army. The municipal laws of the conquered country remain unchanged, save in so far as they are inconsistent with the change of sovereignty, and the property of individuals is protected by the conqueror on their submission to his authority. Now, it is lawful to wage such a foreign war for the purpose of effectuating such a complete conquest, and of course lawful to attain it; lawful to substitute the authority of the conqueror for that of his adversary; lawful to substitute the political authority of the United States for that of a hostile foreign nation in the case of an international war (for otherwise the war cannot be a successful one), and for that of the hostile State in the case of a war between the United States and a State. There is, because there can be, no difference between the two cases; for in each, the former actual hostile government must be supplanted by the Federal Government. In the case of foreign territory no one would or could doubt that it is the exclusive right of that Government to take the place of the former sovereign and to erect its own ensigns of power. In the case of a rebel State subdued by the arms of that Government, is not such State equally at its feet, or rather under the shield of its conquering protection? Who but that Government has then the right to give the law?

Has any other State or people? No. Has the rebel government that right? No; for that government is abolished and its agents dispersed. Have the conquered rebel people that right? No; for that would be to allow them at once to expel their conquerors by a popular decree, and to deny the supremacy of the Federal Government that had subdued them. Has the old State government, the once loyal government, the right to govern the conquered people? No; there is no such government. It has long since ceased to exist. Its functionaries have all forsworn and abandoned the old State government. They are gone; some driven into exile, many dead, but by far the largest part of them open traitors, hostile to the conquerors, and utterly opposed to reestablishing any State government acknowledging allegiance or friendship to the United States. In fact, there is no government there, none at all, which can for a moment be recognized or permitted by the United States, as the party now holding the actual mastery of the country; and like every other case where the possession of a country has arisen from the use of superior force, the will of the conqueror is the law—that is, the will of the United States expressed, in the absence of acts of Congress, by the Commander-in-chief of the army, but by the acts of Congress after Congress has spoken.

"I can see no escape from this conclusion, that the United States, as the other hostile party, the party who, in suppressing the rebellion by military power, has conquered the rebel country, and who holds it, as it must necessarily hold it, in the iron gripe of war; that the United States have the right, as the conqueror, to rule and govern the State as conquered country, subject for a time at least to their sole will. If this be not the case, then the State is without any government, and is exposed to all the horrors of anarchy, to murder, and private rapine. No one will deny that we have a right to subdue by arms and to reduce to quietude and submission a rebel State, that is, the people of a State in insurrection. But how absurd to make this concession, and at the same time to deny to us the constitutional power to occupy and hold the territory and its people in our military grasp!—an occupation just as necessary to the end in view as the firing of cannon, the charging of cavalry, or any other operation in the field.

"But the question forces itself upon us, has the Government of the United States the same rights of conquest, the same ample powers of control and disposition of a conquered State, as of a conquered foreign territory?

"What, then, are the powers of the United States over the rebellious States? I reject the idea that they can be converted into Territories. Plainly, under our system, a Territory of the United States implies land never lying in any State, land ceded to the United States either by the old States, or purchased or conquered from foreign nations. The term never has been used to describe a State, or any part of a State; and

it implies not only the ownership of the soil and right of disposition, but full and complete political jurisdiction in the Federal Government over the people resident there. On a question of such magnitude we ought to avoid inappropriate language and terms of equivocal meaning.

"The objects of the conquest being such as I have stated, it follows that it is the duty of Congress, on taking military possession, to endeavor by all reasonable means to effect those objects, and that in its very nature such forcible occupancy is temporary, and ought to cease the moment those objects are attained. This cannot be done without establishing a government to preserve order, life, and property—a provisional government, for that is the true historic name to be applied in this as in all cases where an old government has been overthrown; a provisional government instituted by the conqueror, and to be continued just so long as Congress may find it necessary to continue it for the attainment, and while attaining, those high objects. The occupancy, that is, the possession of all the reins of local government by the Federal authorities (for I do not wish to be misunderstood or to mislead by mere generality of phrase), is but temporary, provisional, fiduciary. It must necessarily last until the Federal Government has done its duty in the reestablishment of order and the revival of loyalty. Until then it is, and must be, the omnipotent sovereign of the State, holding actually by right of conquest, though for a particular purpose, and being itself necessarily the final judge to determine when its tutelary mission has been accomplished.

"I have said the Government must be the final judge how long this military occupation shall last. Its duty in this respect is plain. It is bound by the plain terms of the Constitution not only to suppress the insurrection, which it has done the moment it has obtained firm possession of the hostile territory and not less than the whole of it, but to guarantee to the once loyal but now conquered State a republican form of government. To perform this high and sacred trust, time of course is necessary, and not only time but a great variety of means and instrumentalities, of all which the Government of the United States must, because it has no superior, no equal in the matter, be the sole and final judge. These means may embrace acts of provisional legislation, creating private rights and duties not previously in existence, but existing by law and of a permanent nature, paramount to all subsequent State legislation because arising under the supreme authority of the nation, as for instance the giving freedom to slaves; or they may undoubtedly embrace conditions to be performed by the subdued States on taking their places again in the Union, such as would be an ordinance forever abolishing slavery in the State. And I cannot by any means admit as the true interpretation of this clause the narrow view taken of it by the Senator from Missouri, that it applies only to a

preëxisting republican form of government. It is, sir, in my view, a broad and beneficial power given to Congress for the safety not merely of each of the States, but of the nation; the great mass of Americans, who each and all, at home or abroad, have the deepest interest in the faithful exercise of this guardian power."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, followed, saying: "Mr. President, I propose in as few words as I can to state the reasons which will influence the vote I propose to give on the resolution now under discussion; but before I proceed to that duty I will state what I believe to be the facts out of which the question arises.

"The State of Louisiana was said to be in rebellion by the President's proclamation issued under the authority of the act of Congress of July 13, 1861, but a portion of the State was afterwards recovered to the United States, and the authority of the United States over that portion of the State was reinstated. From the time when the city of New Orleans and the surrounding country were taken possession of and subjected to the authority of the United States up to the present time, that possession has never been disturbed or that authority practically denied. Until the 22d of February, 1864, the United States authority existed only as a military authority. On that day an election was held of officers under the constitution existing at the time, that is to say, the constitution of Louisiana as it existed at the time of the rebellion, and as it theoretically existed on the 22d of February, 1864. An election was held of officers whose offices were created by that constitution, and for whose election it provided. At that election there were polled 11,414 votes. Of those 11,414 voters 808 were in the military service of the United States. By the then constitution of Louisiana citizens of Louisiana entitled otherwise to vote who were in the military service of the United States, were not authorized during the period of their continuance in that military service to exercise the right of suffrage. These 808 soldiers and sailors, for there were some sailors among them, would have been entitled to vote, and were entitled to vote if any citizen of Louisiana was so entitled, except for the fact that they were in the military service. They had all the qualifications required by the constitution of the State to give the right of suffrage except that.

"After that election a convention was provided for on the 28th of March, 1864. That convention met on the 6th of the succeeding month, and remained deliberating upon the business which brought them together until the 23d of July, 1864, I think, when what is now called the constitution of the State was adopted. It was submitted to the people and by the people was ratified in September, 1864, by a vote of 6,836 in the affirmative, and 1,566 in the negative, and the government for which that constitution provides was organized on the 3d of October, 1864.

"These, sir, are the facts. The Committee

on the Judiciary—and in the conclusion to which they came I concurred—were of opinion that under the circumstances in which the State was at the period when these proceedings were had, she could not be recognized as a State of the United States under that constitution adopted in 1864, except by an act of Congress. The committee were of opinion that it was not in the power of the Executive under the circumstances to bring the State back under that constitution. They were of opinion, however, that it was competent for Congress to do so, and the only question before the committee was, whether, under the circumstances in which the State was at the time, it was not the duty of Congress to bring the State back so as to have her represented in the Union.

"The objection to the conclusion of the committee—an objection which had great weight with me in the beginning—was that the proceedings which led to the adoption of the constitution were instituted at the instance and under the power of the military authorities of the United States. The precedent was apparently a bad one, it was really a bad one; and the proposition upon which we were called to decide was whether, if we were satisfied that the number of votes said to have been cast were in fact cast, and the persons voting were loyal citizens, we should deny to them the privilege of being represented in the councils of the nation, and on the contrary should subject them to a continuance of the military power. My impression is that, no matter how the proceedings were instituted, whether it was by the military authority, or by the coming together of the people of the State, if in point of fact the people of the State did act voluntarily and were competent to act under the original constitution, and were authorized to act by being loyal at the time they did act, it is the duty of the Government of the United States to receive them back.

"Another objection was that, however true it might be that it would be in the power of all the voters of the State to adopt a constitution for themselves, or to claim the right of coming back to the Union under the constitution existing at the time of the rebellion, it was not true that it was in the power of eleven thousand four hundred and fourteen voters, when the entire voting population of the State was fifty-one thousand, to take that course. At it seemed to me then, and seems now, there is no evidence to show that a single citizen of Louisiana was excluded from the right of voting. It by no means follows that there was an exclusion either in point of fact, or if in point of fact, that the exclusion was a legal one, because the vote of eleven thousand is much less than the vote that could have been cast before the rebellion commenced. First, as to the fact, where are the fifty-one thousand voters less the eleven thousand? This war commenced in 1861, and these proceedings were had in 1864. Do we not know that the greater proportion of the fighting, and

therefore, in a great measure, the voting population of Louisiana entered into the military service of the confederate government? Do we not know that the result of their entering into that service is that nine-tenths of them have forfeited their lives upon the battle-field; and do we not know also that those who were beyond the age of military service or under the age of military service have gone elsewhere, or if they remain in the State, that they have remained in the State not as loyal citizens of the United States, but as disloyal citizens? So then it by no means follows that the number of votes cast is not a large majority of the actual number of voters to be now found in the State of Louisiana, or however doubtful that may be, it is not only not certain, but the opposite fact would seem to be much more probable, that there was a single person excluded from the privilege of voting who should have been entitled to vote, if it be true that those who have been in the military and naval service of the Confederates, or who have been in any way instrumental in bringing about or assisting the rebellion, should not be entitled to vote; and I understand the Senators on the other side who object to the admission of Louisiana into the Union are of that opinion.

"That being the case, Mr. President, another thing is to be considered. What was the condition of the loyal citizens of Louisiana, in the relation in which they stand to the Government of the United States, by the act of secession? Did they cease to be citizens of the United States? Nobody pretends that. If loyal, were they not entitled to be protected by the power of the United States? If loyal, is it to be said of them that they have forfeited any of the rights which belonged to them before the rebellion commenced? I suppose nobody will say that. None of the laws of the United States have been violated by them; no obligation imposed upon them by the Constitution of the United States has been violated, but on the contrary observed. They have been kept from expressing their opinion by the power of the rebellion. They have had no voice by which they could ask to be admitted into the Union, because to speak such a desire was to subject themselves to punishment. They remained, however, loyal in point of fact; they remained entitled to the protection of the United States; and when the protection of the United States was afforded them and they saw that they could speak their sentiments without hazard, they met at their several election polls, organized their government under the existing constitution, and then, wishing to change it, met in convention and adopted the constitution which is now before us? Why should we not receive it?

"I suppose no one will deny that it is just as much in the power of the people of Louisiana, or of any one of the seceded States, when they are entitled to vote, either before they come back or after they are received into the Union,

to change their existing constitution. They have exercised an inherent right belonging to the American citizen; and he who questions the right of the eleven thousand men who have met together and adopted this constitution, questions it upon the ground, not that it is not a right which they originally held, but because there are others who have not joined in asserting it; and who are those others? Those who are in arms against the United States, men whom you would not receive if they were elected as members of the other House or appointed as Senators to this body, men who could not be received because they would be unable to comply with the provisions of a statute which you say, no doubt correctly, you had the authority to pass.

"Now, if it be true that the secession ordinance had no operation to carry the State out, and that I understand even the Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Sumner) admitted last night; if it be true that the State is in the Union notwithstanding the ordinance, then the only question to be considered is, who are the people of Louisiana that are to exercise the sovereign authority belonging to the State of Louisiana? Are they the loyal or the disloyal? There can be but one answer to that inquiry. It must only be the loyal.

"If the State is not to be brought back in the way provided for by this joint resolution, in what way can the State come back? The honorable Senator from Michigan (Mr. Howard), in his speech this morning admitted that it is not in the power of the United States to change the territorial limits of the States that have gone out, because the Constitution prohibits it. If he had thought for a moment, he would have seen that the Constitution equally prohibits any interference on the part of the General Government with the exercise of the right of suffrage in a State. He and the member from Massachusetts who intimated his opinion last night, seem to suppose that under the Constitution of the United States Congress has the authority to interfere for some general undefined purpose with the exercise of the right of suffrage. I never heard it intimated before. The provision of the Constitution on that subject is, I submit, with due deference to the honorable members who entertain a different opinion, too clear for serious question. The fourth section of the first article says that—

The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof, but the Congress may, at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations except as to the places of choosing Senators.

"That is to say, the whole power of Congress over the subject of the time, the place, and the manner of holding these elections is to alter the regulations of the State; but how the election is to be held with reference to those who are to vote is not only not given to Congress by what I have just read, is not only, according to my

interpretation of it, evidently excluded, but if there was any doubt on that question it would be solved by reference to the second section of the same article, which provides that—

The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

“Does the Constitution in any part of it say what those qualifications are? If the Constitution does not give to Congress the authority to prescribe the qualifications for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures, and if the Constitution itself does not prescribe those qualifications, it necessarily follows that the only authority in relation to the qualifications of electors is the authority possessed by the States. That is obvious, if there could be any doubt on the subject, by another consideration. What were the States before the Constitution was adopted? Had anybody a right to say who were to vote for Representatives or Senators of the State Legislatures except the State? That is very clear; and when they agreed to go into convention, and the people of the States to whom the adoption of the Constitution was submitted determined upon ratifying the Constitution, and by so doing made it a Constitution of Government for the United States, they not only in terms excluded any authority to interfere with the qualifications of electors for members of the State Legislatures, but guarded more effectually against it by providing in one of the amendments that the powers not delegated were to be considered as reserved to the States or the people of the States respectively.

“Then, if it be true that the qualification which an elector is to have to choose the most numerous branch of the State Legislature is to be prescribed by the State, what authority has Congress to interfere with it, and what has been the practical operation? I never heard it intimated, until the intimation fell from the honorable member from Massachusetts, that any authority under the Government of the United States existed to that extent. What have the Western States done? Many of them have admitted to the right of suffrage other than citizens; they have given it to male inhabitants. All of them almost—and that statement is equally applicable to some of the original States—have given it exclusively only to persons of a particular race, the white race, excluding the black. New York does it; Vermont does it; Connecticut does it; Michigan does it; Illinois does it; Ohio does it; Nevada does it; California does it; Maryland does it; and nearly all the States; and nobody ever supposed that they had not the power to exclude the black race, or any portion of the white race that they might think proper in the exercise of their sovereign power to exclude. In other words, the entire authority is in the people of the State, and it is for the people of the State to say who shall exercise

the right of suffrage; and it would be monstrous to hold that, because they admitted or excluded any portion of the people of their State into or from the exercise of the right of suffrage, their government was not republican in point of form.

“The honorable member from Massachusetts has laid upon the table this morning an amendment consisting of nine sections, which I have read hastily, but I believe I understand their result: the first is, that Congress alone has the power to say who shall be permitted to reorganize the State governments; the second is, that in the exertion of that power it is to see that the Constitution be republican in point of form; the third is, that it is not republican in point of form, either because of the truths declared in the Declaration of Independence or upon principles of justice independent of those truths, unless the blacks and the whites are given equally the right of suffrage. That is a most extraordinary doctrine, and where would it lead if true? Suppose the honorable member got the State of Louisiana back under the authority of an act of Congress such as he would draw, saying to that people, ‘You are authorized to frame a constitution for yourselves provided you will insert in it a clause that the right of suffrage shall be exercised by the black as well as the white,’ and they are admitted, does he think it would not be in the power of the people of Louisiana to change that afterwards? What is Massachusetts authorized to do now? Will the honorable member deny that it would be in the power of Massachusetts now to exclude the black? I suppose not; and yet, if by an act of Congress you place it out of the power of the seceded States when they come back, under the authority of that act, to change the qualifications of electors, they will not come back as the equals of Massachusetts. And yet nothing is more plain than that the theory of our Constitution is (no matter whether you consider it as a national Government, a consolidated Government, or a consolidated Union) that the States, with reference to the powers that the original States possessed, are all equal. With just as much propriety could you deny to either of these States the authority to come back unless they would surrender every other sovereign right belonging to a State.

“Now, Mr. President, the result to which I come is, that if a State were brought back under such a law as is suggested by the honorable member from Massachusetts, it would not accomplish his purpose; it could be changed the next day. It is a very easy thing for the honorable member from Massachusetts to say, and for the State of Massachusetts to say, that the negroes who are there, and who can read and write, shall vote, because there are very few there. It does not make a pin's difference whether they vote or not, so far as the result of their elections are concerned; but if they had thrown upon them the negro population of Louisiana, lost in ignorance, divested more

or less of moral sense, because of the horrid condition in which they have been kept, knowing not what the laws of God require, because they have been kept in a state of ignorance—if they were all assembled within the limits of Massachusetts, does not everybody know that there is no State in the Union that would exclude them more certainly than Massachusetts?"

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, then offered the following amendment:

Provided, That this shall not take effect except upon the fundamental condition that within the State there shall be no denial of the electoral franchise, or of any other rights on account of color or race, but all persons shall be equal before the law. And the Legislature of the State, by a solemn public act, shall declare the assent of the State to this fundamental condition, and shall transmit to the President of the United States an authentic copy of such assent whenever the same shall be adopted, upon the receipt whereof he shall, by proclamation, announce the fact; whereupon, without any further proceedings on the part of Congress, this joint resolution shall take effect.

Mr. Clark, of New Hampshire, said: "Mr. President, I am against this amendment as it now stands, because it is an amendment to this resolution which proposes to recognize the government in the State of Louisiana, which is a State in my judgment, still a State in the Union, having its constitution overthrown, but desiring and attempting to establish a new constitution; and I hold that we have no power to amend that constitution; and that is the reason why I shall be obliged to vote against it here."

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, moved a postponement, saying: "Sir, the lessons of to-night have been instructive. There is a strife here; and it is not a strife between gentlemen. Senators are too honorable to have a personal controversy. It is a strife of principle; and the question is, what is to be done with the four million negroes when they are set free? There are Senators upon the Republican side who feel that it is a very troublesome question. That is the trouble here to-night. It is not whether a particular measure shall be considered, but that very thing; and I think the Democracy will eventually have some gains from gentlemen who will not go the extreme doctrine. The Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Sumner) is determined that none of these States shall ever be heard in the halls of Congress until the men who speak from those States speak the voice of the negroes as well as of the white men. Other Senators say that shall not be. We Democrats are a unit upon that question. We believe in the sentiment of the illustrious Senator formerly occupying a seat in this body from Illinois, that this Government was made by white men for white men, and we expect to stand by that idea. Let the controversy go on. The Senators and the Republicans over the country who wish to elevate the negro to an equality, political and social, and civil and legal, with the white man, will have their controversy with Senators and Republicans who entertain

sentiments with the Senator from Wisconsin, who do not believe that the condition of the negro in the South is such as entitles him to control the legislation and policy of this great country."

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, moved to suspend all prior orders to take up the revenue bill.

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, opposed the motion, saying: "Sir, the matter which has been under consideration for several days now, the recognition of the existing State government in Louisiana, has so far progressed that the Senate was ready to vote upon it on Saturday night, and a vote was only prevented by dilatory motions made—I wish not to say any thing offensive, but still the truth ought to be spoken—made in a factious spirit, avowedly made for the purpose of delay. It was manifest upon that occasion that a majority of the Senate, two-thirds of the body, desired action; and I ask, shall one-third of this body be permitted by factious opposition to delay an important bill of this character? Its merits are not under discussion at this moment, I know. If, sir, we can hold that measure before us, if the Senate, a clear majority of which has expressed itself by vote after vote in favor of action upon the Louisiana case, will say to this factious minority, 'Upon you belongs the responsibility of the public business of the country; we will continue to sit, commencing now, until you cease your factious opposition,' I hope that no Senator here acting upon the responsibility he owes to the country will be willing by mere motions of delay to continue the matter much longer."

Mr. Sprague, of Rhode Island, said: "I do not mean to discuss that question, but simply to suggest the point I wish to make in voting for the motion of the Senator from Ohio, and against the consideration of the measure suggested by the Senator from Illinois. I hold in my possession a paper indicating the names of the members of the Legislature of this State that we are called upon to recognize; and it shows that twenty-five, or twenty-seven, or thirty of those gentlemen who now constitute that Legislature, are office-holders under this Government or the government of the State, which is the same thing."

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, followed, saying: "Mr. President, I remember last summer that good fortune threw me in the path of a distinguished gentleman just returned from Louisiana. I think he had been present at the sittings of the convention whose work finds such an advocate in my friend from Illinois; at any rate he had been in New Orleans at the time in the discharge of important public duties. In reply to an inquiry with regard to that convention, he said compendiously, that it was 'nothing but a stupendous hoax'—yes, sir, nothing but a stupendous hoax, and the product of that convention—"

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, asked: "Will the member be kind enough to tell, if he is at lib

erty to tell, who the distinguished citizen is that said it was all a humbug?"

Mr. Sumner: "He did not call it humbug. He called it a stupendous hoax."

Mr. Grimes, of Iowa, said: "I only wish to make a suggestion to the Senator from Maryland. If he is anxious to obtain the names of those who were in New Orleans when the convention was held, and who do entertain the opinion stated by the Senator from Massachusetts, I can furnish him with a large number; and I will say furthermore in this connection that if the Senate will give a committee, I will undertake to prove and I will prove that the voters whose votes were polled in the outlying parishes at Thibodeaux and Plaquemines, and other places, were carried in army transports to those places where they polled the votes, being discharged soldiers and persons belonging in New Orleans, and were brought back to New Orleans, and were not residents of the places where they purported to vote."

Mr. Sumner: "I doubt not that my friend from Iowa is right, but I understand that it is not proper to discuss the merits of the proposition on this preliminary motion, and I do not design to discuss it. I was simply characterizing it, and I was going on to say that in my opinion the proposition which the Senator from Illinois is so earnestly pressing upon the Senate, when we consider its origin and character, is in itself very little different from a stupendous hoax. I say nothing about the convention, for I was not there. I did not see it. On that point I simply cite the testimony of another. But the proposition of the Senator is before us, and we are familiar with its nature. Every moment gives us new glimpses of the violence and fraud with which it is associated. Perhaps this expression I have quoted is hardly grave enough in speaking of such a proposition, where military power and injustice to a whole race have been enlisted in forming the constitution of a State, in defiance of the self-evident truths of the Declaration of Independence. The United States are bound by the Constitution 'to guarantee to every State a republican form of government.' Now, when called to perform this guaranty it is proposed to recognize an oligarchy of the skin. The pretended State government in Louisiana is utterly indefensible whether you look at its origin or its character. To describe it, I must use plain language. It is a mere seven-months' abortion, begotten by the bayonet in criminal conjunction with the spirit of caste, and born before its time, rickety, unfinished, unfinished—whose continued existence will be a burden, a reproach, and a wrong. That is the whole case; and yet the Senator from Illinois now presses it upon the Senate at this moment to the exclusion of the important public business of the country."

The motion to take up the prior orders was agreed to by the following vote:

YEA—Messrs. Anthony, Brown, Buckalew, Charles Chandler, Clark, Collamer, Conness, Cowan,

Davis, Dixon, Farwell, Foster, Grimes, Harlan, Henderson, Hendricks, Howard, Howe, Johnson, Morgan, Morrill, Nye, Powell, Riddle, Saulsbury, Sherman, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Wade, Wilkinson, Wilson, and Wright—34.

NAY—Messrs. Doolittle, Harris, Lane of Indiana, Lane of Kansas, McDougall, Nesmith, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ten Eyck, Trumbull, Van Winkle, and Willey—12.

ABSENT—Messrs. Foot, Hale, Harding, and Richardson—4.

In the Senate, on Feb. 17th, Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, offered the following resolution:

Whereas, certain persons have put in circulation the report that on the suppression of the rebellion the rebel debt or loan may be recognized in whole or in part by the United States; and whereas such a report is calculated to give a false value to such rebel debt or loan: Therefore,

Resolved by the Senate (the House of Representatives concurring), That Congress hereby declares that the rebel debt or loan is simply an agency of the rebellion, which the United States can never, under any circumstances, recognize in any part or in any way.

It was adopted without a division.

In the House, on Feb. 6th, Mr. Edgerton, of Indiana, offered the following resolution, which was laid over:

Whereas the "Daily Morning Chronicle," of this city, the reputed political organ of the President, in recent editorials upon the subject of negotiations for peace, has referred to the President of the United States as having gone "in his sovereign capacity" to treat with the commissioners from Richmond, and has further described the President as "the sovereign head of the greatest Government on earth;" and whereas the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia has, by a late solemn adjudication, affirmed principles as the law of the land which recognized arbitrary dictatorial powers in the President, not only as to military but as to civil offenders, which are subversive of civil liberty and of the public welfare: Therefore,

Resolved (as the judgment of this House), That the President of the United States is in no constitutional sense the sovereign thereof, but that all his governmental powers are derived from the Constitution and constitutional laws of the United States, and are limited by them; and this House sincerely deprecates all political teachings and judicial decisions having a tendency to exalt the President above the Constitution and laws, or to clothe him with attributes unknown to them, or to derogate from the powers of Congress; and they affirm that the principle that the people are sovereign, and that all departments of the Government are their agents or servants, and should be kept in strict subordination to the Constitution and laws, is essential to the permanence of republican government and to civil liberty.

In the House, on Jan. 15th, Mr. Cox, of Ohio, offered the following resolution relative to pacification:

Whereas the country hails with manifestations of patriotic joy and congratulation the victories recently achieved by our brave armies; and whereas "the recognized object of war, at least among civilized and Christian nations, is an honorable and satisfactory peace; and that although we do not know that the insurgents are yet prepared to agree to any terms of pacification that our Government would or should deem acceptable, yet as there can be no possible harm resulting from ascertaining precisely what they are ready to do, and in order to refute the imputation

that the Administration contemplates with satisfaction a continuance of hostilities for their own sake, on any ground of mere punctilio, or for any reason than because it is compelled by an absorbing regard for the very end of its existence;" and whereas "an established and rightly constituted Government, combating armed and menacing rebellion, should strain every nerve to overcome at the earliest moment the resistance it encounters, and should not merely welcome, but seek satisfactory (however informal) assurances that its end has been attained:" Therefore,

Resolved, That now, in this hour of victory, which is the hour of magnanimity, it is eminently the duty of the President, on the basis of the present "rightly constituted Government," either to send or receive commissioners or agents with a view to national pacification and tranquillity, or by some other national means known to civilized or Christian nations, secure the cessation of hostilities and the Union of the States.

On motion of Mr. Washburne, of Illinois, it was laid on the table by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Alley, Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnold, Ashley, Baily, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Boutwell, Boyd, Brandegee, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Freeman Clarke, Cobb, Cole, Henry Winter Davis, Thomas T. Davis, Daws, Deming, Dixon, Donnelly, Eckley, Eliot, Frank, Garfield, Gooch, Grinnell, Griswold, Higby, Hooper, Asahel W. Hubbard, John H. Hubbard, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Julian, Kasson, Kelley, Francis W. Kellogg, Knox, Littlejohn, Loan, Longyear, Marvin, McClurg, McIndoe, Samuel F. Miller, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Amos Myers, Leonard Myers, Norton, Orth, Patterson, Perham, Pike, Price, William H. Randall, Alexander H. Rice, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, Schenck, Schofield, Sloan, Smith, Smithers, Spalding, Starr, Stevens, Thayer, Thomas, Upton, Van Valkenburgh, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, Webster, Wheeler, Williams, Winder, Wilson, Windom, and Worthington—84.

NAYS—Messrs. Ancona, Augustus C. Baldwin, Bliss, Brooks, James S. Brown, Chanler, Coffroth, Cox, Cravens, Denison, Eden, Edgerton, Eldridge, English, Finck, Hale, Hall, Harrington, Charles M. Harris, Holman, William Johnson, Orlando Kellogg, Kernan, King, Law, Lazear, LeBlond, Long, Mallory, Marcy, McAllister, McDowell, McKinney, James R. Morris, Morrison, Noble, Pendleton, Radford, Samuel J. Randall, Robinson, Rogers, Ross, Scott, John B. Steele, Stiles, Townsend, Wadsworth, Clinton A. White, Joseph W. White, Fernando Wood, and Yeaman—51.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. James C. Allen, William J. Allen, Blaine, Blair, William G. Brown, Clay, Creswell, Dawson, Driggs, Dumont, Farnsworth, Ganson, Grider, Harding, Benjamin G. Harris, Herrick, Hotchkiss, Hulburd, Hutchins, Philip Johnson, Kalbfleisch, Knapp, McBride, Middleton, William H. Miller, Moorhead, Nelson, Odell, Charles O'Neill, John O'Neill, Perry, Pomeroy, Pruyn, James S. Rollins, Shannon, William G. Steele, Strouse, Stuart, Sweat, Tracy, Voorhees, Ward, Whaley, Winfield, Benjamin Wood, and Woodbridge—48.

In the House, on December 7th, Mr. Sloan, of Wisconsin, offered the following relative to an amendment to the Constitution:

Resolved, That the Judiciary Committee be instructed to inquire into the expediency of so amending section two of article one of the Constitution of the United States, that Representatives in Congress may be apportioned among the several States which may be included within the Union, according to their respective numbers of qualified electors, and to report by bill or otherwise.

It was adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Alley, Allison, Ames, Arnold, Bailey, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Blow, Boutwell, Boyd, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Cobb, Cole, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eliot, Farnsworth, Garfield, Grinnell, Hooper, Asahel W. Hubbard, Hulburd, Ingersoll, Julian, Kasson, Kelley, Orlando Kellogg, Longyear, Marvin, McBride, McClurg, Moorhead, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Leonard Myers, Norton, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Patterson, Perham, Price, William H. Randall, Alexander H. Rice, John H. Rice, Schenck, Shannon, Sloan, Spalding, Starr, Stevens, Thomas, Upton, Van Valkenburgh, Elihu B. Washburne, Wheeler, Williams, and Wilson—60.

NAYS—Messrs. James C. Allen, Ancona, Augustus C. Baldwin, Blair, Bliss, Brandegee, Brooks, James S. Brown, Chanler, Coffroth, Cox, Daws, Dawson, Deming, Denison, Dixon, Eden, English, Finck, Frank, Ganson, Grider, Harding, Harrington, Holman, Jenckes, Kalbfleisch, Kernan, Law, LeBlond, Marcy, Middleton, William H. Miller, James B. Morris, Morrison, Noble, Odell, John O'Neill, Pendleton, Pruyn, Radford, Rogers, Scott, Smith, Smithers, John B. Steele, William G. Steele, Stiles, Strouse, Stuart, Sweat, Townsend, Webster, Whaley, and Fernando Wood—55.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. William J. Allen, Anderson, Ashley, Blaine, William G. Brown, Freeman Clarke, Clay, Cravens, Creswell, Henry Winter Davis, Thomas T. Davis, Dumont, Egerton, Eldridge, Fenton, Gooch, Griswold, Hale, Hall, Benjamin G. Harris, Charles M. Harris, Herrick, Higby, Hotchkiss, John H. Hubbard, Hutchins, Philip Johnson, William Johnson, Francis W. Kellogg, King, Knapp, Knox, Lazear, Littlejohn, Loan, Long, Mallory, McAllister, McDowell, McIndoe, McKinney, Samuel F. Miller, Amos Myers, Nelson, Perry, Pike, Pomeroy, Samuel J. Randall, Robinson, Edward H. Rollins, James S. Rollins, Ross, Schofield, Thayer, Tracy, Voorhees, Wadsworth, Ward, William B. Washburn, Chilton A. White, Joseph W. White, Wilder, Windom, Winfield, Benjamin Wood, Woodbridge, and Yeaman—67.

On January 16th, Mr. Sloan offered a bill, which was referred to the Committee on the Judiciary, providing for submitting to the State Legislatures the following article as an amendment to the Constitution:

ART. XIII. Sec. 1. Representatives in Congress may be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union according to their respective numbers of qualified electors. The actual enumeration shall be made in the year 1870, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as Congress shall by law direct.

Sec. 2. Direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States according to the appraised value of taxable property therein respectively. The rule of appraisal and taxation shall be uniform.

On February 13th, Mr. Dawson, of Pennsylvania, submitted the following resolution:

Whereas, the American people have now been engaged in a civil war of gigantic dimensions for nearly four years, which has resulted in frightful destruction of life, property, and treasure, creating an enormous public debt, imposing the most oppressive taxes, covering the land with affliction, corrupting the general morals, and putting in peril the liberties of the nation; and whereas, on the part of the United States and the people of the States which adhere to this Government this is, and ought to be, a war solely to vindicate the Constitution and restore the laws to their just supremacy, and to that we are bound by our oaths and by our solemn pledges made in the face of the world when the war commenced: Therefore,

Resolved, That the President of the United States be requested to use all honorable and just means to bring about a lasting peace and the reestablishment

of fraternal relations among all the people by a restoration of the Union upon the simple and just basis of the Constitution and laws, with every proper guarantee to the Southern States that they shall be protected in the full enjoyment of their rights, and that undisturbed control of their own local affairs which the Federal Constitution was intended to secure to them and to us.

It was laid on the table by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Alley, Anderson, Ashley, Baily, John D. Baldwin, Beaman, Blaine, Boutwell, Boyd, Brandegee, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Freeman Clarke, Cobb, Cole, Dawes, Deming, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eliot, Garfield, Hale, Higby, Hooper, Asahel W. Hubbard, John H. Hubbard, Hubbard, Ingersoll, Julian, Kasson, Kelley, Francis W. Kellogg, Orlando Kellogg, Knox, Littlejohn, Longyear, Marvin, McBride, McClurg, McIndoe, Samuel F. Miller, Moorhead, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Amos Myers, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Perham, Pomeroy, William H. Randall, Alexander H. Rice, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, Schenck, Scofield, Shannon, Smithers, Thayer, Thomas, Tracy, Upson, Van Valkenburgh, William B. Washburn, Webster, Whaley, Williams, Wilder, Wilson, Windom, Woodbridge, and Worthington—78.

NAYS—Messrs. James C. Allen, Ancona, Bliss, Brooks, William G. Brown, Chanler, Clay, Coffroth, Cox, Cravens, Dawson, Denison, Edgerton, Eldridge, Finck, Grider, Hall, Harding, Charles M. Harris, Herrick, Holman, Philip Johnson, William Johnson, Kalbfleisch, King, Lazear, Le Blond, Mallory, McAllister, Middleton, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Morrison, Nelson, John O'Neill, Pendleton, James S. Rollins, Ross, William G. Steele, Stiles, Sweat, Wadsworth, Joseph W. White, and Yeaman—44.

NOR VOTING—Messrs. William J. Allen, Allison, Ames, Arnold, Augustus C. Baldwin, Baxter, Blair, Blow, James S. Brown, Creswell, Henry Winter Davis, Thomas T. Davis, Dumont, Eden, English, Farnsworth, Frank, Ganson, Gooch, Grinnell, Griswold, Harrington, Benjamin G. Harris, Hotchkiss, Hutchins, Jenckes, Kernan, Knapp, Law, Loan, Long, Marcy, McDowell, McKinney, Leonard, Myers, Noble, Norton, Odell, Patterson, Perry, Pike, Price, Pruyn, Radford, Samuel J. Randall, Robinson, Rogers, Scott, Sloan, Smith, Spalding, Starr, John B. Steele, Stevens, Strouse, Stuart, Townsend, Voorhees, Ward, Elihu B. Washburne, Wheeler, Chilton A. White, Winfield, Benjamin Wood, and Fernando Wood—65.

Mr. Williams, of Pennsylvania, submitted the following:

Resolved, 1. That there is no power under the Constitution, in any branch of this Government, to treat with the States confederated in rebellion against it, either for the severance of this Union or for the abrogation of any article of its fundamental law.

Resolved, 2. That inasmuch as the said Confederate States have taken up arms against the Government of the United States without any just provocation, and for the avowed purpose of asserting and establishing their independence thereof, and still persist in maintaining that position by armed resistance to its authority; and inasmuch also as the public authorities of this nation have not only declared, as was their duty, that they can accept no terms and entertain no propositions for any thing short of absolute and unconditional submission to its laws, and with a clemency and magnanimity almost without example in history, have proclaimed a general amnesty, without limits as to time, to such of the malefactors as shall return to their duty, with the exception only of the chief conspirators:

It is hereby declared to be the sense of this House that this Government has already exhausted all the

resources of a just and wise statesmanship—except so far as regards the further earnest and vigorous prosecution of the war for the enforcement of the laws—in the effort to restore peace to this nation, and has, to this end, done all that a proper regard for its own interests can allow, and all that a decent respect for the opinions of the world could demand of it; and that therefore any further overtures through embassies, public or private, official or unofficial, looking to treaty or compromise with the usurpers at Richmond, would be not only unprofitable, as they would be inconsistent with the rights and dignity of this nation, but are to be deprecated as absolutely mischievous, in giving encouragement to the insurgents and protracting their resistance, by exposing us to misconstruction, and giving color to the delusion that we mistrust our ability to subdue them to obedience, and are ready to accept something short of the restoration of the Union and the unconditional submission of those who have rebelled against it.

It was laid on the table by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. James C. Allen, William J. Allen, Alley, Ames, Ancona, Anderson, Baily, Blair, Bliss, Boutwell, Brandegee, Brooks, James S. Brown, William G. Brown, Chanler, Ambrose W. Clark, Clay, Coffroth, Cox, Cravens, Dawes, Dawson, Denison, Dumont, Eckley, Edgerton, Eldridge, Eliot, Finck, Frank, Gooch, Grider, Hale, Harding, Benjamin G. Harris, Charles M. Harris, Herrick, Holman, Hooper, John H. Hubbard, Hutchins, Philip Johnson, William Johnson, Kalbfleisch, Kasson, Orlando Kellogg, Law, Lazear, Le Blond, Long, Mallory, McKinney, Middleton, William H. Miller, Morrill, James R. Morris, Morrison, Nelson, Pendleton, Pike, Pomeroy, Pruyn, Alexander H. Rice, James S. Rollins, Ross, Spalding, William G. Steele, Stiles, Townsend, Wadsworth, Webster, and Joseph W. White—72.

NAYS—Messrs. Ashley, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Blaine, Boyd, Broomall, Freeman Clarke, Cobb, Cole, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Higby, Asahel W. Hubbard, Hulburd, Ingersoll, Julian, Kelley, Francis W. Kellogg, Knox, Loan, Longear, Marvin, McClurg, McIndoe, Daniel Morris, Moorhead, Amos Myers, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Patterson, Perham, William H. Randall, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, Schenck, Scofield, Shannon, Smithers, Starr, Thayer, Tracy, Upson, Van Valkenburgh, William B. Washburn, Williams, Wilder, Wilson, Windom, Woodbridge, and Worthington—52.

NOR VOTING—Messrs. Allison, Arnold, Augustus C. Baldwin, Blow, Creswell, Henry Winter Davis, Thomas T. Davis, Deming, Eden, English, Farnsworth, Ganson, Garfield, Grinnell, Griswold, Hall, Harrington, Hotchkiss, Jenckes, Kernan, King, Knapp, Littlejohn, Marcy, McAllister, McBride, McDowell, Samuel F. Miller, Leonard Myers, Noble, Norton, Odell, John O'Neill, Perry, Price, Radford, Samuel J. Randall, Robinson, Rogers, Scott, Sloan, Smith, John B. Steele, Stevens, Strouse, Stuart, Sweat, Thomas, Voorhees, Ward, Elihu B. Washburne, Whaley, Wheeler, Chilton A. White, Winfield, Benjamin Wood, Fernando Wood, and Yeaman—58.

In the Senate, on February 8th, the following resolution, offered by Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, was considered:

Resolved, That the President of the United States be requested, if in his opinion not incompatible with the public interests, to furnish to the Senate any information in his possession concerning recent conversations or communications with certain rebels, said to have been under executive sanction, including communications with the rebel Jefferson Davis, and any correspondence relating thereto.

Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, offered the following amendment:

And that he be also requested to inform the Senate whether he, or others acting under his authority, did not require, as a condition to reunion, the acquiescence of said persons mentioned in said resolution, or of the public authorities of the so-called Confederate States, in the abolition of slavery in said States; and also, whether he, or those acting by his authority, did not require as a condition to negotiation that the said confederates should lay down their arms. And that he be requested to inform the Senate fully in reference to every thing connected with or occurring in said conference or conferences in relation to the subject-matter of said conferences. And also that he be requested to state whether or not an armistice was not asked for by Messrs. Stephens, Hunter, and Campbell with the view to prepare the minds of the Southern people for peace and reunion of the States.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, objected to the amendment, saying: "I object to the amendment of the Senator from Delaware, and on this simple ground: to my mind it is not respectful to the President; it is in the nature of interrogatories addressed to an unwilling witness. I believe that, in the relations between the Senate and the President we have only to express to him our desire that he should communicate to us what in his opinion he can without any injury to the public interests. I believe that he will make a full and frank communication; and I believe I do not go too far when I say it is well known to many Senators that the President is ready to do it; perhaps I might say that he desires to do it. I think, therefore, there should be no delay in making this call upon him in order to give him that opportunity. The amendment as presented by the Senator from Delaware, I admit, does conflict with the resolution, but I presume the Senate will not be disposed to adopt it; there is no occasion for it."

Mr. Saulsbury replied, saying: "Mr. President, nothing was further from my intention than to offer any disrespect to the President of the United States. It never occurred to me that the amendment could bear any such construction. Inasmuch as the original resolution requests the President to communicate the conversations that occurred in that conference, I wish every thing that occurred to be made known. I have been informed that an armistice was requested by those Southern commissioners; and if that be a fact, the country ought to know it. I have been informed also that that request was refused. If that be so, the country has as much interest in knowing that fact as in knowing any other."

Mr. Sumner: "Let us vote it down."

The amendment was rejected, and the resolution was adopted. The reply of the President will be found in *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA*, 1864, page 713.

On the same day, in the House, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That the President be requested to communicate to this House such information as he may deem not incompatible with the public interest relative to the recent conference between himself and the Secretary of State and Messrs. Stephens, Hunter, and Campbell, in Hampton Roads.

The reply of the President to this resolution will be found in *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA*, 1864, page 710.

In the House, on February 2d, the Committee of Conference relative to the bill to enact a Bureau of Freedmen's Affairs, made a report, consisting of a new bill.

Mr. Eliot, of Massachusetts, on presenting the report to the House, said: "This bill presents to the House no new proposition. Substantially, every provision contained there will be found, I believe, either in the provisions of the House bill or in the provisions of the Senate bill. Many of them are combinations of features of both bills."

Mr. Kernan, of New York, in opposition, said: "In my judgment experience shows that the policy proposed to be inaugurated by this bill will not accomplish the benevolent intentions of its promoters toward these people. They are a very numerous class of persons; and the policy of this bill seems to be to regulate, control, and govern this large class of persons by a code of laws, under the name of regulations, which regulations are to be made and administered by an appointee of the President and the Senate called a commissioner. Lands are to be assigned and leased to them. There are to be superintendents to regulate their employment and wages, decide their controversies, and pay the surplus of their earnings, over and above expenses, into the Treasury of the United States. In my judgment this policy will not work out satisfactorily any such social problem as that presented by the colored population of the Southern States. You will not be able to really benefit this class of persons by placing them by the hundred thousand under the guardianship and subject to the control of a commissioner who is to make regulations for their government, and by his agents manage and control them. Some other mode of dealing with this question must be devised, if there is to be any effectual, benevolent, or economical action in reference to this class of persons.

"Again, where and to what consequences will this policy lead? According to this bill the Government, by a bureau like that of agriculture, is to take charge of people by the hundred thousand in States of this Union, and become their guardians, and regulate them by special provisions and regulations to be made by an appointee of the President. Does any man believe that we will succeed in benefiting this really suffering class by any such measure as this?

"But I particularly desire to call the attention of the House to the twelfth section of the bill, which, if this bill is to pass, I trust will be stricken out. I earnestly hope there will be no further legislation by Congress to subject civilians to trial and punishment by military commissions.

"This twelfth section, provides that the superintendents, clerks, and all others con-

nected with this proposed bureau shall be tried for all sorts of alleged offences by military commissions. Where do we get the power to pass any such law? The Constitution declares that no person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service in time of war or public danger; that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; and that in all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right of a trial by an impartial jury. Does any one believe that we can constitutionally subject a class of civilians to the jurisdiction of these military tribunals by declaring, as this twelfth section does, that they shall be deemed to belong to the Army or Navy of the United States, or engaged in its military or naval service? As well might we take the right of trial by jury from any other class of citizens as from the class subjected to trial and punishment by military tribunals under this twelfth section. They can in no sense be correctly said to belong to the Army or Navy. They are civilians, employed in purely civil affairs. If we can do this, we can take away the right of any class of civilians by saying that they shall be deemed to be in the military service of the United States, when we know that all their duties are duties of civilians.

"Sir, I submit that the experience of the last few years must have made it apparent to every gentleman here, that these military commissions are characterized by a want of certainty as to the conviction of the guilty, and the certainty of frequently convicting the innocent. Acts of Congress have been passed declaring that certain contractors and other parties, should be deemed to be in the military service and subject to trial by these commissions; and you have had military commissions sitting in this city and elsewhere in the loyal States, trying men who never were of the class mentioned in the acts of Congress, and there seems to be no power to take them from under the control of these military tribunals, or to get any review of their decisions. Now, I trust that we shall take no further steps in the direction of subjecting civilians, I care not of what class, to this unconstitutional mode of trial. We should be warned by the history of these courts, not only in this country, but in other countries. The Court of High Commission in England, under the influence of those who desired that arbitrary power should prevail, carried its oppressive proceedings to such an extent as to bring on a collision, as such assumptions of power must do in any country where liberty is to be preserved. There is no good reason why these men, for felony, or embezzlement, or any other offence, shall not be tried under the guarantees of the Constitution, and in accordance with the forms, and by the tribunals which it prescribes. We should do something to put a stop to and guard against the wrongs which innocent men have suffered by

being deprived of trial by jury and by being subjected to military commissions. I refer gentlemen to a statement made a few days ago in the other end of the Capitol by a distinguished Senator, that a military commission is sometimes efficient for the conviction of those who have become obnoxious to parties by exposing frauds upon the Government.

Again, the thirteenth section of this bill proposes to do, what? To repeal the joint resolution made a part of the act of Congress as to confiscation, passed in July, 1862, by which confiscation was limited to the life estate in land of the traitor. This subject, the repeal of this joint resolution, has been fully discussed in this House. A bill to effect this was passed at the last session, and went to the Senate. The Judiciary Committee of that body reported, as I understand, unanimously, that that bill ought not to pass. That bill died. Yet now there is an attempt to effect the same object by passing this bill, which comes from a conference committee of the two Houses, and has never been subjected to the scrutiny of any regular committee of either House. I trust that we shall not pass a bill repealing that joint resolution, until there has at least been some discussion or scrutiny of the matter. I ask the Clerk to read an extract from the message of the President of the United States, approving of the confiscation act, and the joint resolution as a part of it, now proposed to be repealed; and I ask members on the other side of the House whether they are prepared to enact a law on the subject of confiscation, which President Lincoln declared he could not sign because it was in violation of the Constitution, without discussion or examination by any appropriate committee. This is the effect of passing the bill now before us."

The Clerk read, as follows:

That to which I chiefly object, pervades most part of the act, but more distinctly appears in the first, second, seventh, and eighth sections. It is the sum of those provisions which results in the divesting of title forever.

For the causes of treason and ingredients of treason, not amounting to the full crime, it declares forfeiture extending beyond the lives of the guilty parties; whereas the Constitution of the United States declares that "no attainer of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted." True, there is to be no formal attainer in this case; still, I think the greater punishment cannot be constitutionally inflicted in a different form for the same offence.

With great respect, I am constrained to say I think this feature of the act is unconstitutional.

* * * * *

Again, this act, *in rem*, forfeits property for the ingredients of treason without a conviction of the supposed criminal or a personal hearing given him in any proceeding. That we may not touch property lying within our reach because we cannot give personal notice to an owner who is absent endeavoring to destroy the Government, is certainly satisfactory. Still, the owner may not be thus engaged; and I think a reasonable time should be provided for such parties to appear and have personal hearings. Similar provisions are not uncommon in connection with proceedings *in rem*.

"Mr. Speaker, this was the language of the President of the United States in reference to the act of 1862, when submitted to him for his approval without the joint resolution explaining and limiting it. It is now proposed to repeal the joint resolution which induced him to approve the act, and to leave the latter in force as a law in the form in which the President declared he could not sign it because it was unconstitutional."

The report was postponed and printed, and on February 9th brought up for consideration again in the House.

Mr. Eliot said: "I do not propose at this time, Mr. Speaker, to say any thing in defence of the bill; but I am prepared and shall be glad to answer all objections that may be urged against the bill, if any shall be, in the course of any debate upon it. Congress has within a few days done all that we could do to make free all the slaves within the United States. But it will be remembered that, although that freedom was initiated by the President in his proclamation of the 1st of January, 1863, yet, up to this time, there has been no legislative action which has had in view the welfare of that class of men. We have legislated for the Treasury. We have done what we could to provide for the leasing of the abandoned lands, in view of revenue. But thus far nothing has been done in connection with the freedmen or their welfare, except a law passed on the 2d of July, I think, of the last session of Congress. That law, in one of its provisions, put into the care of the Treasury Department this whole business. I desire to refer to a few of the provisions of that law.

"By that act the agents of the Treasury Department, that is, the special supervising agents, the agents who were appointed under the act, I believe, of March, 1863, to whom was given in charge the taking possession of abandoned lands and other property, and the leasing of lands for the largest revenue that could be obtained, and the selling of property for the use of the Government; these special agents are empowered to 'take charge of and lease the abandoned lands, houses, and tenements within the rebel districts; and they shall also provide, in such leases or otherwise, for the employment and general welfare of the freedmen.' That is to say, as gentlemen will find by examining the law, these agents are now required to lease the lands, and in those leases or otherwise to provide for the employment of these freedmen; the United States being the lessors, parties going from all sections of the country being the lessees, the freedmen being the subjects of the contract."

Mr. Wilson, of Iowa, said: "I would like to know of the gentleman from Massachusetts if it is the intention of the committee that this bill, if it becomes a law, shall be operative after the reestablishment of civil authority?"

Mr. Eliot: "As soon as civil authority is reestablished, and those States are admitted into the Union, or readmitted, as gentlemen may

please, and their social and political relations resumed, there can be no doubt that those States will have the same rights as the State in which my friend lives, or the State in which I live, may have concerning all the matters which may come within the jurisdiction of such States."

Mr. Wilson: "I intended that question as a leader to another, which is, that if this law is not to be operative in those States after the reestablishment of civil authority, then what courts does the gentleman refer to when he speaks of those parties having the proper remedies in the courts of justice?"

Mr. Eliot: "I have not stated that the law would not be operative, nor would it follow from any remark I have made that such would be the case. I have said, and it is true, that each State would have a right to do all those things within its boundary that the State of Iowa or Massachusetts would have. It may be that for the passing time the operations of this bill might be continued for the care of those freedmen after that point of time should have arrived. That would perhaps depend upon the legislation of each State. When the time comes that action should be had which would terminate the charge which this bill would have, provisions would be made which would probably cover all the difficulties suggested by the gentleman from Iowa.

"I shall close by asking to have read at the Clerk's desk some passages from a communication to the President of the United States, and then I wish that the message of the President on the subject shall be read."

The Clerk read, as follows:

WASHINGTON, D. C., December 1, 1863.

SIR: We appear before you a committee of gentlemen representing the Freedman's Aid Societies in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Cincinnati, and, in general, the anxieties and sympathies of the American people in regard to the present position and future prospects of the freedmen created by your proclamation of emancipation.

It is not, Mr. President, that we are seriously in doubt as to the methods to be adopted with the freedmen, for we have not been disappointed in the schemes in their favor we have already planned and executed. It is only that these schemes are small, and must continue so, while the demand for their adoption is large, beyond even our present power to meet it, and growing with prodigious strides every hour. It is the magnitude, not the nature of the work, that appalls us, and drives us to the Government for aid and support. We have found the freedman easy to manage, beyond even our best hopes; willing and able to fight as a soldier; willing and able to work as a laborer; willing and able to learn as a pupil; docile, patient, affectionate, grateful, and although with a great tribal range of intellect from nearly infantile to nearly or quite the best white intelligence, yet with an average mental capacity above the ordinary estimates of it.

We have no doubts of the aptitude of the slave for freedom under any fair circumstances. But we see that his circumstances must inevitably be unfair under the best arrangements the Government can make, and that, independently of a great paternal care on the part of the Government, they will be so bad as to

wring cries of shame and indignation from the civilized world, dishearten the friends and advocates of emancipation at home, and give new vitality to the disloyal suggestions of the slaveholders' allies in the North and West.

Has the Government any moral right to free the slave without seeing to it that, with every chain it breaks, the best within its power is done to keep the freedman from hankering after his master and his bondage, from feeling that his liberty is a burden, his life a curse, and his domestic affections even more fatal to his peace under our flag than beneath the plantation whip? Shall he hunger and thirst, shall he go naked and cold, shall he wander houseless and die unburied, shall his aged parents and young children be scattered where he cannot find them, and in unspeakable misery lay their bones together, too old and too young to contend with their fate upon the strange and distant soil to which fear and want have driven them? While any thing remains undone within the power of the nation or the Government to do to alleviate or diminish this misery, the Christian principle and pity of our people will allow none who are responsible for it to rest in peace.

It is plain to us, with our experience, that the question is too large for anything short of Government authority, Government resources, and Government ubiquity to deal with. The plans, the means, the agencies within any volunteer control are insignificant in their adequacy to the vastness of the demand. Our relief associations have discharged their highest duty in testing many of the most doubtful questions touching the negro's ability and willingness to come under direction when direction has lost its authoritative character. They have proved the freedman's diligence, docility, and loyalty, his intelligence and value as a laborer. They have alleviated much want and misery also. But were their resources ten times what they are, and ten times what they can be made, they would be no substitute for the governmental watchfulness and provision which so numerous a race under such extraordinary circumstances requires. In our judgment the present and the future of the freedmen demand a kind and degree of study, of guidance, and of aid, which it is in the nature of things impossible the Government should give indirectly, or by means of any existing bureau or combination of bureaus.

We ask, then, your interposition with Congress, recommending the immediate creation of a bureau of emancipation, charged with the study of plans and the execution of measures for easing, guiding, and in every way judiciously and humanely aiding the passage of our emancipated and yet to be emancipated blacks from their old condition of forced labor to their new state of voluntary industry. We ask it for many reasons, but we will content ourselves with stating only two:

1. It is necessary that there should be a central office, to collect from original investigations, and to receive from investigations already made and making, the now scattered information and varied and undigested testimony respecting the condition, wants, and prospects of the freedman. The amount of knowledge now existing in private hands, or local spheres and associations, is already great; but it is nearly useless for want of being arranged and brought into systematic order. If offered to the Government, as it constantly is, it is brought to officials already overburdened with care and duties, and laid before Departments which are not yet agreed as to the precise sphere within which it falls. The honest differences of Departments as to their authority and responsibility in the case have been a chief obstruction to the methods of dealing promptly with the necessities of the freedman. Were a bureau in existence with no other duty but to attend to this vast and ever-expanding class of our fellow-creatures, countrymen, and citizens, it would at once be able to concen-

trate, and in the shortest possible time to methodize, the now diffused and disjointed testimony in the case, and from its central and commanding point of view to devise plans and measures which would satisfy the humanity and relieve the anxieties of the nation.

2. It is not merely a central office that is wanted. It must be a Government bureau. The various freedmen's associations, rich, numerous, and powerful, might unite and establish a central office at Washington, in which should converge all the light and knowledge collected at the most distant points of the circumference, and from which wise and humane plans might originate and radiate in all directions; but such a central office, disconnected from the Government, as in that case by the hypothesis it would be, without any right to official information or assistance, would lack the chief illumination now required, which is simply this: a knowledge how the existing machinery of the Government in all departments can be brought to bear on the problem of guidance, support, and relief in this temporary though not brief state of the transition of millions of bondmen from forced to free labor. This is a problem in which the vast, costly, omnipresent machinery and agencies of the Government already existing, with the least possible additions and the least possible disturbance, are to be economized and applied to the work of starting and aiding a humane process of emancipation.

But, apart from political economy, there is a moral economy to be considered. It is really a matter of small consequence whether the humane and successful exodus of the negro cost more or less. The honor, the dignity, the moral and religious character of this nation is at stake. Our duties to God and man are not to be sacrificed to any mere pecuniary considerations. We are bound by the highest spiritual obligations to make the process of emancipation for the slaves as safe and as little unhappy and obstructive to them as possible. Again, apathy, an indifference to human life—the terrible accompaniment of a state of war—is demoralizing in the extreme to civil and social order. White life is not safe when negro life is held cheap.

The neglect of the negro is self-neglect; and his abuse, or his needless decimation, is certain to produce murder, and arson, and violent crimes at home. We cannot escape the vengeance inhabiting violated laws. We are members one of another, and if one of the members suffer all the members suffer with it. It is, therefore, with an instinct of self-preservation, as well as with a fear of the righteous retribution of God, that the moralized and intelligent, the humane and Christian people of this country, cry out to their national Government that the forced and military emancipation of the negro shall be made as humane as the difficult and serious circumstances of the case will permit. The Christian heart, the moralized brain of the nation, will not suffer their Government to do less than the utmost in the ordering of this great and solemn matter.

Let not this anxiety for a bureau of emancipation, as an expression and organ of Government solicitude and care, be confounded with a disposition to overdo the care of the freedmen to come between them and the natural laws of political economy; to substitute supervision and direction for their own latent energies and self-helpfulness. The utmost extent to which the ordinary principles of free light and labor can be applied to the blacks should be insisted on; the least possible done for them, the most possible expected of them; as little difference made as can be between them and other laborers, their treatment always leaning rather to too little than too much aid and direction. It is to learn by careful inquiry the utmost extent to which this sound canon of civilization can be applied to the freedmen that the first study of the bureau of emancipation would be directed. But experience has already taught that it cannot be applied to at least a million of them further

than it is applied to our own children. If, in obedience to the general principle that all aid and direction is weakening to human beings, we are ready to cast our own offspring at a tender age upon their own resources, we may think it wise to deal with like Spartan severity with the freedmen, of whom so many are children in character when not children in years. We must lead leading strings to these babes of liberty, and, would we have them go alone, see that they do not dash out their own brains before they learn to walk.

Imploring the blessing of God on the nation, the freedman, the country's cause, and the President of the United States, we are, with profound respect, your Excellency's fellow-citizens and fellow-countrymen,

STEPHEN COLWELL, *Pres. of Joint Committee.*
 EDWARD ATKINSON,
 GEORGE CABOT WARD, } *Secretaries.*
 J. M. WALDEN.
 FRANCIS GEORGE SHAW, *President National*
Freedman's Association, of New York.
 HENRY WARD BEECHER, *of New York.*
 HENRY W. BELLOW, *of New York.*
 GEORGE CABOT WARD, *of New York.*
 C. R. ROBERT, *of New York.*
 STEPHEN COLWELL, *of Philadelphia.*
 J. WHEATON SMITH, *of Philadelphia.*
 ELLIS YARNALL, *of Philadelphia.*
 FRANCIS R. COPE, *of Philadelphia.*
 ADAM POE, *President "Western Freedman's*
Aid Committee," of Cincinnati.
 EDWARD HARWOOD, *of Cincinnati.*
 LEVI COFFIN, *of Cincinnati.*
 J. M. WALDEN, *of Cincinnati.*
 J. M. FORBES, *of Boston.*
 EDWARD ATKINSON, *of Boston.*

Mr. Eliot: "I now ask the Clerk to read the message of the President of the United States."
 The Clerk read as follows:

To the Senate and

House of Representatives of the United States.

Herewith I lay before you a letter addressed to myself by a committee of gentlemen representing the Freedman's Aid Societies in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Cincinnati. The subject of the letter, as indicated above, is one of great magnitude and importance, and one which these gentlemen, of known ability and high character, seem to have considered with great attention and care. Not having time to form a mature judgment of my own as to whether the plan they suggest is the best, I submit the whole subject to Congress, deeming that their attention thereto is almost imperatively demanded.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

December 17, 1863.

Mr. Eliot: "That letter of the President was written in December, 1863. Nearly one year before that time, in January, 1863, I offered the first bill upon this subject, establishing a Bureau of Emancipation, which was referred, as gentlemen will remember, to a select committee, at the head of which, I think, was Judge White, of Indiana. That committee was prepared to report a bill, but having the charge of the bill concerning Missouri and one or two other bills, they were prevented from doing so.

"The bill was again offered at the next session of Congress, and stands No. 1 upon the Calendar. It was referred to a committee, and reported again as House bill No. 51, and it now comes up for action from the committee of conference. Since January, 1863, we have been endeavoring to mature some legislation on this subject."

Mr. Wadsworth, of Kentucky, said: "What

is the object of the thirteenth section of the conference report?"

Mr. Eliot: "I will explain that to the gentleman. After the House had passed the confiscation act it went to the Senate for its sanction. An honorable gentleman from Tennessee, Mr. Maynard, called upon some of his friends on this side of the House and stated that there was a provision in that act which he thought would be retroactive in its operation, and desired that it should be amended. In order to amend it he offered a single explanatory resolution, providing that the part of the act to which he referred should not be retrospective. That resolution was passed by the House and sent to the Senate. While the resolution was in the Senate the confiscation act was before the President for his examination, it having passed the Senate. Before it came back from the President, for reasons which the gentleman will not perhaps want me to occupy the time of the House in detailing, it was found expedient in the Senate to amend the explanatory resolution which had gone to them from the House by adding to it the clause which is referred to in this thirteenth section; that is to say, the clause which limited the operation of the confiscation act to the life of the parties who owned it when confiscated."

Mr. Wadsworth: "I merely want to know if that limitation would be repealed if this report is adopted."

Mr. Eliot: "Most certainly. This thirteenth section repeals the last clause of that explanatory resolution, and will leave the confiscation act in the same condition in which it was when it left this House and went to the Senate."

Mr. Ganson: "I desire to ask the gentleman whether, if that repealing clause is kept in this bill, it will not insure a veto from the Executive? I understand that the Executive would not approve the original joint resolution upon the ground that it violated, in his opinion, the Constitution, and the explanatory resolution was adopted to meet his objection to the original resolution. Now, if this repealing clause is put in here, and the Executive has not changed his mind as to what the Constitution means, it will insure the veto of this bill."

Mr. Eliot: "The inquiry of the gentleman is whether in case this bill goes to the President as it is, it will not be vetoed. I think it will be signed. The gentleman from New York has progressed very greatly since July, 1862."

Mr. Ganson: "I desire to know whether the President has progressed upon this subject also."

Mr. Eliot: "The President is always progressing in the right direction. I call the previous question."

The question was put; and it was decided in the affirmative—yeas 64, nays 62, not voting, 56; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Arnold, Ashley, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Boutwell, Boyd, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Cobb, Cole, Dawes, Deming, Donnelly, Eckley, Eliot, Frank, Grinnell, Hooper,

John H. Hubbard, Hulburd, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Julian, Kasson, Kelley, Orlando Kellogg, Knox, Littlejohn, Loan, Longyear, Marvin, McBride, McClurg, McIndoe, Samuel F. Miller, Morrill, Amos Myers, Leonard Myers, Norton, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Patterson, Pike, Pomeroy, Alexander H. Rice, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, Scofield, Sloan, Spaulding, Starr, Stevens, Thayer, Upson, Van Valkenburgh, William B. Washburn, Wilder, Wilson, Windom, Woodbridge, and Worthington—64.

NAVS.—Messrs. James C. Allen, Ancona, Bailly, Augustus C. Baldwin, Brooks, William G. Brown, Chandler, Clay, Coffroth, Cox, Cravens, Thomas T. Davis, Dawson, Edgerton, Eldridge, English, Finck, Ganson, Grider, Hall, Harding, Benjamin G. Harris, Charles M. Harris, Holman, Philip Johnson, Kalbfleisch, King, Knapp, Le Blond, Long, Mallory, McAllister, McKinnery, Middleton, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Nelson, Noble, Odell, John O'Neill, Pendleton, Radford, William H. Randall, Rogers, Ross, Schenck, Smithers, John B. Steele, William G. Steele, Stiles, Strouse, Sweat, Townsend, Tracy, Wadsworth, Ward, Elihu B. Washburne, Webster, Whaley, Wheeler, Joseph W. White, and Winfield—62.

NOT VOTING.—Messrs. William J. Allen, Alley, Anderson, Blaine, Blair, Bliss, Blow, Brandegee, James S. Brown, Freeman Clarke, Cresswell, Henry Winter Davis, Denison, Dixon, Driggs, Dumont, Eden, Farnsworth, Garfield, Gooch, Griswold, Hale, Harrington, Herrick, Higby, Hotchkiss, Asahel W. Hubbard, Hutchins, William Johnson, Francis W. Kellogg, Kernan, Law, Lazear, Marcy, McDowell, Moorhead, Daniel Morris, Morrison, Perham, Perry, Price, Pruyn, Samuel J. Randall, Robinson, James S. Rollins, Scott, Shannon, Smith, Stuart, Thomas, Voorhees, Chilton A. White, Benjamin Wood, Fernando Wood, and Yeaman—56.

So the report was agreed to.

The report of the Committee of Conference was taken up in the Senate on February 21st.

Mr. Grimes, of Iowa, said: "The first objection that I have to it is that it creates an independent department, which was not contemplated by either branch of Congress that passed the original bills that were sent to the Committee of Conference from whom this report comes.

"Now, why not put it at once under the Secretary of War? If we are to have this bureau, why not allow it to be connected with the War Department and make the officers immediately responsible to the military authorities? In what an anomalous position will these officers be whom it is authorized to select from the army who are to be commissioners and supervising agents under this bill! Are they to be civil officers from the time they are thus appointed, or are they to be military? Is there any greater degree of responsibility that is to attach to them than would attach if they were selected from civil life?

"Another objection that I have to this bill is that it only applies to the rebel States. Is it not known that there are at least twelve thousand colored refugees in this city at this moment who are in the utmost distress? Is it not just as desirable that this Government should take care of and protect those refugees as it is of those that are within the rebel lines, or in the States in hostility to us? I want the Secretary of War authorized to do by some act what I know he is doing at this moment, furnishing the proper provisions, and clothing, and fuel,

for the protection of these people; and I want them to be placed upon the same footing as they would be if they were across the river in the State of Virginia.

"The fifth section of this bill gives to the commissioners who are to be appointed under the act the right to bestow all the lands within the rebel States upon these colored refugees or freedmen. Now I suppose it is known to all the members of this body that we have in some of those Southern States, as Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, and Arkansas, immense tracts of public land. Under the provisions of this fifth section all of these public lands will fall to the colored men, and there is no provision for that very destitute class of Union white men of whom we have heard so much, and of whom I am happy to believe there are many in each of those Southern States, who are left, by this war, in just as unfortunate and helpless a condition as that in which the colored men are left. I am not prepared to say by the passage of this bill that all the lands and all the abandoned plantations in that country are to be given, under an act of Congress, simply to the colored people, and that the white refugees and the white people residing there, who are in exactly as destitute a condition as these colored men, shall not have any advantages.

"But, Mr. President, the principal objection I have to this bill is embraced in the ninth section, which provides—

That whenever the commissioner cannot otherwise employ any of the freedmen who may come under his care, he shall, as far as practicable, make provision for them with humane and suitable persons at a just compensation for their services.

"When the amendment out of which this section has sprung was before the Senate, which was proposed by the Senator from West Virginia (Mr. Willey), I voted for it. It then provided that these commissioners might provide homes for these freedmen, and authorized the commissioners to open negotiations or correspondence with the Governors and municipal authorities of the other States in order to accomplish that purpose; but that last clause which authorized them to open correspondence with other States has been stricken out; the word 'homes' has been stricken out, and the word 'provision' has been inserted. What is meant by the word 'provision'? The commissioner is to make provision for these colored persons, as far as practicable, 'with humane and suitable persons.' Who are to determine whether these men are humane and suitable persons? The commissioner, nobody else. There is no appeal from the commissioner. He shall make provision, for what? Evidently, for the labor of these freedmen; because the next clause says, 'at a just compensation for their services.'"

Mr. Grimes moved a postponement.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, opposed the motion, saying: "I am pained by this opposition. It is out of season. I am pained by it especially from the Senator from Iowa. I do

not judge him. But he will pardon me if I say that from the beginning he has shown a strange insensibility to this cause. He is for liberty, but he will not help us assure it to those who have for generations been despoiled of it. Sir, I am in earnest. Seriously, religiously, I accept emancipation as proclaimed by the President, and now, by the votes of both Houses of Congress, placed under the sanctions of constitutional law. But even emancipation is not enough. You must see to it that it is not evaded or nullified, and you must see to it especially that the new-made freedmen are protected in those rights which are now assured to them, and that they are saved from the prevailing caste, which menaces slavery under some new *alias*; and this is the object of the present measure.

"Would you know the perils of freedmen ever since emancipation? Listen, then, to the words of that true patriot, General Wadsworth, who, after his visit to the valley of the Mississippi, and personal observation of the freedmen there, wrote thus:

There is one thing that must be taken into account, and that is, that there will exist a very strong disposition among the masters to control these people and keep them as a subordinate and subjected class. Undoubtedly they intend to do that. I think the tendency to establish a system of serfdom is the great danger to be guarded against. I talked with a planter in the La Fourche district, near Thibodeauxville; he said he was not in favor of secession; he avowed his hope and expectation that slavery would be restored there in some form. I said, "If we went away and left these people now, do you suppose you could reduce them again to slavery?" He laughed to scorn the idea that they could not. "What," said I, "these men who have had arms in their hands?" "Yes," he said; "we could take the arms away from them, of course."

"But this emphatic testimony is simply in harmony with accumulated testimony from other quarters. The freedmen, now rejoicing in recovered rights, must for a while be saved from the traditional harshness and cruelty to which, for generations, they have been exposed. Call it protection; call it what you will. The power of the Government must be to them a shield. And yet you hesitate.

"The Senator from Iowa renews now the objections which he made at an earlier stage of this legislation. It will not be forgotten that he most earnestly protested against the bill as giving to persons a control of the freedman. It was then shown, I think, to demonstration, that he was mistaken. But out of deference to his sensibilities, and that nothing might seem to be wanting to the protection of the freedman, other safeguards were introduced, as amendments on his motion, or in pursuance of his suggestions. But all this is not enough to secure his favor. He objects again.

"Very well. So far as I understand his objection then and now, it is twofold: first, that the freedman is placed under constraint, and that he is not a free man; and, secondly, that he is treated too much as an infant or a pupil.

Now, I undertake to say that the objection is both these forms is absolutely inapplicable."

The motion to postpone was lost—yeas, 13; nays, 16.

Mr. Hale, of New Hampshire, in opposition, said: "Now, sir, the report of this Committee of Conference goes upon the supposition that the negro is wholly incompetent to take care of himself. The reasons assigned for slavery by slave-masters for the last fifty years has been that these people are helpless, utterly unable to take care of themselves; that they have been under the guardianship of their masters so long that you cannot trust them with their own interests. As long as you keep them under the guardianship either of their masters, or of overseers to be appointed under this bill, so long will they be helpless and unable to take care of themselves. As long as you hold them up they will never stand alone; but the very moment you make them freemen and secure their rights in the courts of justice, I believe they will be fully competent to take care of themselves. This proposition of the committee of conference only proposes a change of masters, under the provisions of the ninth section. You appoint commissioners who have a right to take possession of the farms, lease them to whomsoever they please, and then they may hire out these negroes at any price they shall agree upon between themselves and the lessees of the lands. That is what I understand to be the provisions of the bill; and under such provisions, it would introduce, in my opinion, a system of fraud and swindling unheard of in the history of the world. You give these poor creatures to the kind protection of broken-down politicians and adventurers, and decayed ministers of the gospel, and make them overseers to make fortunes out of these poor creatures; and they will treat the negroes, in my opinion, under this bill, far more cruelly than their masters under the old slave system did. I am opposed to the theory of a Freedman's Bureau. I would make them free under the law; I would protect them in the courts of justice; if necessary, I would give them the right of suffrage, and let loyal slaves vote their rebel masters down and reconstruct the seceded States; but I wish to have no system of guardianship and pupillage and overseership over these negroes.

"If this objection were not insuperable with me, the constitutional objection to placing under the Rules and Articles of War persons who have never belonged to the naval and military service would be sufficient; and if that reason did not stand in the way, there is another reason: this bill comes here in a questionable shape. The House of Representatives passed one bill upon the subject of freedmen, the Senate passed another; they differed in their provisions; and the Committee of Conference instead of, under parliamentary law, taking into consideration the disagreeing votes of the two Houses, over which alone they had any jurisdiction, come in and report a substitute essentially dif-

ferent from either the provisions of the House bill or of the Senate bill. In my opinion they had no earthly power to do so. Is not the whole character of the bill changed? The bill as it passed the Senate provided simply for a Bureau of Freedmen; this provides for all the machinery of a great national Department of the Government, looking to no temporary duration or consequences, but a permanent system by which four million freed Africans are to be billeted upon the Treasury for all time to come. We make them free upon the theory that they deserve freedom, that they can take care of themselves. If I had believed these four million people were as helpless and as unable to take care of themselves as the Senator from Massachusetts seems to believe by his proposition, I should have cared little about their emancipation from one master to place them in the hands of another task-master under the forms of law."

The Senate refused to concur in the report of the Conference Committee by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Brown, Chandler, Foot, Howard, Morgan, Morrill, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Wade, and Wilson—14.

NAYS—Messrs. Buckalew, Carlile, Cowan, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Grimes, Hale, Harlan, Harris, Henderson, Howe, Johnson, Lane of Indiana, McDougall, Nesmith, Powell, Richardson, Riddle, Ten Eyck, Trambull, Van Winkle, Willey, and Wright—24.

ABSENT—Messrs. Clark, Collamer, Conness, Farwell, Foster, Harding, Hendricks, Lane of Kansas, Nye, Saulsbury, Sherman, and Wilkinson—12.

A new Committee of Conference was then appointed, consisting of Messrs. Wilson, Harlan, and Willey.

In the Senate, on February 28, Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, made another report from the Conference Committee, on the bill to establish a Bureau of Freedmen's Affairs, as follows:

The Committee of Conference on the disagreeing votes of the two Houses on the bill (H. R. No. 51) entitled "An act to establish a Bureau of Freedmen's Affairs," having met, after full and free conference have agreed to recommend to their respective Houses as follows: "That the Senate recede from their amendment to the said bill, and the committee agree to the following as a substitute":

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH A BUREAU FOR THE RELIEF OF FREEDMEN AND REFUGEES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there is hereby established in the War Department, to continue during the present war of rebellion, and for one year thereafter, a Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, to which shall be committed, as hereinafter provided, the supervision and management of all abandoned lands, and the control of all subjects relating to refugees and freedmen from rebel States, or from any district of country within the territory embraced in the operations of the army, under such rules and regulations as may be prescribed by the head of the bureau and approved by the President. The said bureau shall be under the management and control of a Commissioner, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, whose compensation shall be \$3,000 per annum, and such number of clerks as may be assigned to him by the Secretary of War, not exceeding one chief clerk, two of the fourth class, two of the third class, three of the second class, and five of the first class. And the Com-

missioner and all persons appointed under this act shall, before entering upon their duties, take the oath of office prescribed in an act entitled "An act to prescribe an oath of office, and for other purposes," approved July 2, 1862. And the Commissioner and the chief clerk shall, before entering upon their duties, give bonds to the Treasurer of the United States, the former in the sum of \$50,000 and the latter in the sum of \$10,000, conditioned for the faithful discharge of their duties respectively, with securities to be approved as sufficient by the Attorney-General, which bonds shall be filed in the office of the First Comptroller of the Treasury, to be by him put in suit for the benefit of any injured party, upon any breach of the conditions thereof.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the Secretary of War may direct such issues of provisions, clothing, and fuel as he may deem needful for the immediate and temporary shelter and supply of destitute and suffering refugees and freedmen, and their wives and children, under such rules and regulations as he may direct.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the President may, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint an assistant commissioner for each of the States declared to be in insurrection, not exceeding ten in number, who shall, under the direction of the Commissioner, aid in the execution of the provisions of this act; and he shall give a bond to the Treasurer of the United States in the sum of \$20,000, in the form and manner prescribed in the first section of this act. Each of said assistant commissioners shall receive an annual salary of \$2,500, in full compensation for all his services. And any military officer may be detailed and assigned to duty under this act without increase of pay or allowance. The Commissioner shall, before the commencement of each regular session of Congress, make full report of his proceedings, with exhibits of the state of his accounts, to the President, who shall communicate the same to Congress, and shall also make special reports whenever required to do so by the President or either House of Congress. And the assistant commissioners shall make quarterly reports of their proceedings to the Commissioner, and also such other special reports as from time to time may be required.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the Commissioner, under the direction of the President, shall have authority to set apart for the use of loyal refugees and freedmen such tracts of land within the insurrectionary States as shall have been abandoned, or to which the United States shall have acquired title by confiscation, or sale, or otherwise. And to every male citizen, whether refugee or freedman, as aforesaid, there shall be assigned not more than forty acres of such land, and the person to whom it is so assigned shall be protected in the use and enjoyment of the land for the term of three years, at an annual rent not exceeding six per cent. upon the value of said land as it was appraised by the State authorities in 1860, for the purpose of taxation; and in case no such appraisal can be found, then the rental shall be based upon the estimated value of the land in said year, to be ascertained in such manner as the Commissioner may, by regulation, prescribe. At the end of said term or at any time during said term, the occupants of any parcels so assigned may purchase the land and receive such title thereto as the United States can convey upon paying therefor the value of the land, as ascertained and fixed for the purpose of determining the annual rent as aforesaid.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That all acts and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

HENRY WILSON,	{	<i>Managers on the part of the Senate.</i>
JAMES HARLAN,		
W. T. WILLEY.		
ROBERT C. SCHENCK,	{	<i>Managers on the part of the House</i>
GEORGE S. BOUTWELL,		
JAMES S. ROLLINS,		

Mr. Powell, of Kentucky, opposed the bill, saying: "That bill will involve an expense to this Government of millions upon millions of dollars, and put these freedmen, as they are called, in a state of peonage. I do not think a more offensive bill has been presented to this Congress, or one that requires greater deliberation and more mature consideration. It will create a multitude of office-holders. It will send them upon these States as the locusts were sent upon Egypt, and they will be quite as destructive to the people there. In my judgment, this report ought to lie upon the table to enable Senators to look at it, and then, to-morrow morning, if the Senate be full and they choose to pass it, very well."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "Mr. President, I cannot vote in favor of this report of the Committee of Conference. It places this whole subject in the control and under the superintendence of the Secretary of War. It becomes a sort of appendage to the War Department; and the government, if there shall be any thing in the shape of government, established among the negro population, will be a sort of military government. For one, I am not in favor of extending that peculiar jurisdiction any further than is required by absolute necessity, and I do not think it is required by necessity to be extended among the blacks. The report is full of imperfections. It is wanting in specification of the powers and authorities given to the commissioners and other officers who are required to act under it. It is a loosely-drawn statute, one which, in my opinion, is capable of great abuse, furnishing perpetual occasion for construction and interpretation; wanting in certainty and in precision in all points; and, sir, rather than vote for such a bill as that, anxious as I am to establish a good and salutary system over the freedmen, I prefer to have none at all."

The report was agreed to in the Senate.

The House agreed to it, after having refused to lay on the table, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. James C. Allen, Ancona, Bailly, Bliss, Brooks, Coffroth, Cox, Dawson, Denison, Eden, Edgerton, Eldridge, English, Finck, Ganson, Grider, Harding, Benjamin G. Harris, Charles M. Harris, Herrick, Holman, Philip Johnson, Kalbfleisch, Kernan, Knapp, Law, Le Blond, Long, Marcy, McAllister, McKimney, William H. Miller, James R. Morris, Morrison, Nelson, Odell, John O'Neill, Pendleton, Pruyn, Samuel J. Randall, William H. Randall, Ross, Scott, John B. Steele, Stiles, Strouse, Stuart, Townsend, Voorhees, Wheeler, Chilton A. White, and Yeaman—77.

NAYS—Messrs. Alley, Allison, Ames, Arnold, Ashley, John D. Baldwin, Baxter, Beaman, Blaine, Blow, Boutwell, Brandegee, Broomall, Ambrose W. Clark, Freeman Clarke, Cobb, Cole, Henry Winter Davis, Thomas T. Davis, Dawes, Deming, Eliot, Farnsworth, Frank, Garfield, Gooch, Grinnell, Higby, Hotchkiss, Asahel W. Hubbard, John H. Hubbard, Hulburd, Ingersoll, Kasson, Kelley, Francis W. Kellogg, Orlando Kellogg, Knox, Littlejohn, Loan, Longyear, Marvin, McBride, McClurg, Moorhead, Morrill, Daniel Morris, Amos Myers, Leonard Myers, Norton, Charles O'Neill, Orth, Patterson, Perham, Pike, Price, John H. Rice, Edward H. Rollins, James S. Rollins, Schenck, Scofield, Shannon, Sloan, Spalding, Thayer,

Thomas, Tracy, Upson, Van Valkenburgh, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, Whaler, Williams, Wilder, Wilson, Windom, and Woodbridge—77.

The regular session of Congress closed on March 4th by an adjournment *sine die*. The acts respecting the National Currency, the Finances of the Government, and direct Taxation, are stated elsewhere in this volume.

In the Senate, on March 4th, at 12 M., the Vice-President, Hon. Hannibal Hamlin, and the Vice-President elect, Hon. Andrew Johnson, entered the chamber, accompanied by Mr. Doolittle, one of the committee of arrangements. Mr. Johnson was conducted to a seat to the right of the chair of the Vice-President.

For some time the Senate chamber had been crowded with those distinguished persons to whom admission was accorded as witnesses of the inauguration ceremonies. The judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, a large attendance of ambassadors from foreign governments, officers of the Army and Navy, with innumerable others, and lastly, the members of the House of Representatives, with their Speaker and Sergeant-at-Arms at their head, entered and were conducted to the seats prepared for them, the Speaker, Hon. Schuyler Colfax, being seated to the left of the Vice-President.

The Vice-President then, in a few words, addressed the Senate for the last time, and said: "Is the Vice-President elect now ready to take and subscribe the oath of office?"

The Vice-President elect (Hon. Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee), "I am. [Then turning to the Senate he said:] Senators: I am here to-day as the chosen Vice-President of the United States, and as such, by constitutional provision, I am made the presiding officer of this body. I therefore present myself here in obedience to the high behests of the American people to discharge a constitutional duty, and not presumptuously to thrust myself in a position so exalted. May I at this moment—it may not be irrelevant to the occasion—advert to the workings of our institutions under the Constitution which our fathers framed and Washington approved, as exhibited by the position in which I stand before the American Senate, in the sight of the American people! Deem me not vain or arrogant; yet I should be less than man, if, under such circumstances, I were not proud of being an American citizen, for to-day, one who claims no high descent, one who comes from the ranks of the people, stands, by the choice of a free constituency, in the second place in this Government. There may be those to whom such things are not pleasing, but those who have labored for the consummation of a free Government, will appreciate and cherish institutions which exclude none, however obscure his origin, from places of trust and distinction. The people, in short, are the source of all power. You, Senators, you who constitute the bench of the Supreme Court of the United States, are but the creatures of the American people; your exalta-

tion is from them; the power of this Government consists in its nearness and approximation to the great mass of the people. You, Mr. Secretary Seward, Mr. Secretary Stanton, the Secretary of the Navy, and the others who are your associates—you know that you have my respect and my confidence—derive not your greatness and your power alone from President Lincoln. Humble as I am, plebeian as I may be deemed, permit me, in the presence of this brilliant assemblage, to enunciate the truth that courts and cabinets, the President and his advisers, derive their power and their greatness from the people. A President could not exist here forty-eight hours if he were as far removed from the people as the autocrat of Russia is separated from his subjects. Here the popular heart sustains President and Cabinet officers; the popular will gives them all their strength. Such an assertion of the great principles of this Government may be considered out of place, and I will not consume the time of these intelligent and enlightened people much longer; but I could not be insensible to these great truths, when I, a plebeian, elected by the people the Vice-President of these United States, am here to enter upon the discharge of my duties. For those duties I claim not the aptitude of my respected predecessor. Although I have occupied a seat in both the House of Representatives and the Senate, I am not learned in parliamentary law, and I shall be dependent on the courtesy of those Senators who have become familiar with the rules which are requisite for the good order of the body and the despatch of its business. I have only studied how I may best advance the interests of my State and of my country, and not the technical rules of order; and if I err, I shall appeal to this dignified body of representatives of States for kindness and indulgence.

"Before I conclude this brief inaugural address, in the presence of this audience—and I, though a plebeian boy, am authorized by the principles of the Government under which I live to feel proudly conscious that I am a man, and grave dignitaries are but men—before the Supreme Court, the representatives of foreign governments, Senators, and the people, I desire to proclaim that Tennessee, whose representative I have been, is free. She has bent the tyrant's rod, she has broken the yoke of slavery, and to-day she stands redeemed. She waited not for the exercise of power by Congress; it was her own act, and she is now as loyal, Mr. Attorney-General, as is the State from which you come. It is the doctrine of the Federal Constitution that no State can go out of this Union; and, moreover, Congress cannot eject a State from this Union. Thank God, Tennessee has never been out of the Union! It is true the operations of her government were for a time interrupted; there was an interregnum; but she is still in the Union, and I am her representative. This day she elects her Governor and her Legislature, which will be convened on the first Monday of April, and again her Sen-

ators and Representatives will soon mingle with those of her sister States; and who shall gainsay it, for the Constitution requires that to every State shall be guaranteed a republican form of government?

"I now am prepared to take the oath of office and renew my allegiance to the Constitution of the United States."

The oaths prescribed by law were then administered to the Vice-President elect by the retiring Vice-President.

The Vice-President: "The term prescribed by the Constitution for the termination of this Congress having arrived, by virtue of the authority in me vested, I now declare it adjourned without day."

CONNECTICUT. The Democratic Convention of Connecticut assembled at Middletown on February 8th, and renominated Origen S. Seymour for Governor, and the same candidates for other State offices selected in the previous year. A series of resolutions on national questions was adopted, including the following in favor of State sovereignty and against the antislavery amendment to the Constitution of the United States:

Resolved, By the Democracy of Connecticut in convention assembled, that the corner-stone of our liberties is to be found in the great principle of State sovereignty, and therefore we solemnly reaffirm the resolves of the Democracy of this State enunciated by its several State conventions held during the present terrible civil war, and hereby assert with renewed fervor our devotion thereto, believing as we do that the Union constructed by our fathers, now menaced and endangered by the fell spirit of discord, can never be restored except by a strict and rigid adherence to the letter and spirit thereof.

Resolved, That the recent so-called amendment to the Constitution of the United States, passed by Congress and submitted to the Legislatures of the several States, is a covert attempt to overthrow and destroy the great Democratic idea of "State Rights," and was, in our judgment, designed as another step to consolidated power, an insuperable obstacle to any propositions for a peaceful adjustment of the difficulties now existing between the North and South, and as an eternal barrier to the Union.

The Republican Convention assembled at New Haven on February 15th, and renominated the following State officers, elected in the previous year: Governor, William A. Buckingham; Lieutenant-Governor, Roger Averill; Secretary of State, J. Hammond Trumbull; Treasurer, Gabriel W. Coite; Comptroller, Leman W. Cutler. Their resolutions expressed undiminished confidence in the ability, integrity, and patriotism of President Lincoln; opposed the settlement of national difficulties except upon the basis of unconditional submission by the seceded States; congratulated the people on the passage of the Constitutional amendment abolishing slavery; denounced the "doctrine of State Rights, as asserted and upheld by the rebel leaders, and adopted by the self-styled Democratic party of the State of Connecticut in its recent convention," and expressed gratitude to the soldiers and sailors engaged in the defence of the country. The election took

place on April 2d, and resulted in the choice of the Republican candidates by majorities of ten thousand and upwards. The following is the vote for Governor:

	1865.	1864.
William A. Buckingham	42,874	39,920
Origen S. Seymour	31,839	34,163
Majority for Buckingham	11,035	5,658

The following was the result of the election for members of the Legislature:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	21	161	189
Democrats.....	0	76	76
Republican majority.	21	85	106

At the same election Henry C. Deming, S. L. Warner, Augustus Brandagee, and John H. Hubbard, Republicans, were elected by large majorities, to represent the four districts of Connecticut in the Thirty-ninth Congress.

The Legislature convened at Hartford on May 3d, and was organized by the election of O. J. Hodge as President *pro tem.* of the Senate, and E. K. Foster as Speaker of the House of Representatives, both being members of the Republican party. Governor Buckingham and the other State officers elect then took the oath of office, and the annual message of the Governor was delivered.

The funded debt of Connecticut in May, 1865, was \$8,000,000, and the unfunded debt \$2,523,113.74, while the amount to the credit of the sinking fund was \$1,128,394.79. The following exhibits the disbursements of the State treasury up to the time of the meeting of the Legislature in May:

The payments during the year for ordinary expenses, as reported by the Comptroller, were	\$417,818 80
For soldiers' families.....	633,516 73
Advances to the Paymaster-General for State bounties, and payments for other purposes connected with volunteers and militia.....	3,503,350 00
Total.....	\$4,705,685 03

The valuation of real and personal property for the year was \$254,627,407, an increase of \$17,477,243 over that of the preceding year; and as an evidence of the resources of the State it may be noted that her total indebtedness is less than four and one-quarter per cent. of her last valuation, and less than two-thirds of the excess of that valuation over the previous one. The claims of Connecticut against the General Government for moneys expended in arming, raising, and equipping troops, appear in the following table, prepared in August, 1865:

Her entire claim thus far, is	\$1,872,882 84
She has received, being an advance before the first settlement was made.....	\$606,000 00
Balance on first settlement.....	612,785 71
Balance on last settlement.....	171,495 70
Leaving a difference of.....	\$1,390,281 41
	\$462,601 43

being little more than twenty-five per cent. of the amount claimed to have been expended. So much of this sum as has been suspended on account of property not properly accounted for or

not issued to troops, will be allowed on presentation of receipts of army officers showing that the property has been turned over to the General Government, or upon evidence that it has been issued to troops mustered into the United States service.

The School Fund, amounting to more than \$2,000,000, was unimpaired during the year, and yielded an income of full seven per cent., of which \$132,048.75 was expended in the education of one hundred and fourteen thousand eight hundred and twenty-four children between the ages of four and sixteen years. The scrip for one hundred and eighty thousand acres of land received from the United States, was sold for \$135,000, and that sum invested in Government bonds, bearing five per cent. interest in gold. The avails of the interest in currency were \$13,233.05, which has been paid to the Treasurer of Yale College, to be used in accordance with the provisions of the act of Congress making the grant. The average attendance during the year at the public schools was seventy per cent. of the enumeration, and a larger amount was raised by districts for school purposes than ever before. One hundred and thirty-nine pupils from sixty-eight towns attended the Normal School, and more than one hundred from that institution engaged in teaching.

The railroad interests of the State during 1864-'65 were unusually prosperous. A million more passengers were carried than during the previous year, and the gross earnings and net earnings were both largely increased. Notwithstanding almost every railroad was reported in good condition and safely managed, one hundred and nineteen accidents were reported, of which fifty-two proved fatal. The following statistics are compiled from the report of the Railroad Commissioners:

The chartered capital of the several railroads lying in the State, in whole or in part, is....	\$23,532,043 00
Of which there has been paid in.....	17,206,581 00
Total length of road constructed under charters granted, in whole or in part, by the State, is.....	7884 miles
Of which is constructed in the State.....	6914 "
The aggregate length of double track is.....	125 "
Making the entire length of track in use.....	9144 "
The total expenditure for working the road, as reported by the different companies, amounted to.....	\$4,685,769 51
For fuel, oil, and waste.....	633,738 87
For salaries, wages, etc., chargeable to passenger, freight, and miscellaneous expenses...	633,909 57
There has been expended during the year for maintenance of way.....	741,194 22
For maintenance of motive power and cars...	630,493 01
Making, for repairs and renewal, a total cost of.....	1,861,556 23
The total income of the railroads in the State during the past year has been.....	6,547,355 00
Their net earnings have been.....	2,162,583 59
Passenger and other trains have run in all.....	3,064,939 miles
carrying 4,512,518 passengers.	

By the report of the Bank Commissioners it appears that during the year ending April 1, 1865, twenty-three banks, with an aggregate capital of \$7,850,800, changed from State to national institutions. The following table shows the amount of capital invested in banking business:

On the first day of April, 1864, the banking capital of the State amounted to.....\$20,606,939
Increase of capital the past year.....817,688

Decrease of capital by the change of twenty-three banks.....\$20,924,850
.....7,850,900

Present capital.....\$18,073,850

This capital is distributed among forty-nine banks, which hold deposits amounting to \$5,-297,802.49, specie amounting to \$852,792.96, or about eleven and five-eighths per cent. of their circulation, and United States securities to the amount of \$6,881,417.63. Their circulation is \$7,305,024, and bills discounted during the year ending April 1, 1865, amounted to \$15,273,001.21. The tax paid to the State by the banks during the year was \$32,257.69; licenses and tax paid to the United States for three quarters ending April 1, 1865, \$174,-125.10; proportioned tax for the quarter ending July 1, 1865, \$58,041.70; making the whole amount of taxes \$264,424.49. The aggregate amount of deposits in savings banks January 1, 1865, was \$29,142,288.58; an increase of \$2,160,066.74. The market value of their assets was \$31,087,145.85, leaving a margin on the amount due depositors of \$1,944,857.27, a fraction over six per cent. The number of depositors January 1st was 121,682, being an increase during the year of 5,001. Total taxes paid during the year amounted to \$244,045.14, of which \$178,310.77 were paid to the State, and \$65,734.37 to the United States.

From the Adjutant-General's report it appears that on April 1, 1865, the State had a surplus of 6,089 in three years' men, without reference to its quota on the call of December, 1864, for 300,000 men. There were enlisted during the year, for organizations in the field, 2,898 men, and 3,849 substitutes for enrolled men were furnished. Of the whole number of substitutes, but 1,552 had reached the regiments in the field up to the date of last reports, at least one-half of those mustered into service having deserted before reaching the front. During the year ending April, 1865, 926 men enlisted into the United States army and Veteran Reserve Corps, and were credited to the State. The quotas assigned to Connecticut under all calls except the last, amounted to 47,622. The State having a large surplus when the call of December, 1864, was made, was never called upon to furnish a quota under that call. The number of men actually furnished by her during the war amounted to 54,468. Reducing these credits to the standard of three years, the State account stands as follows, not including the three months' men, who numbered 2,340:

	Three years' men.
5,672 nine months' men, equal to.....	1,400
539 one year " ".....	176
35 two years " ".....	16
44,142 three years' " ".....	44,142
134 four years' " ".....	84
1,504 not known " ".....	1,804

Total equivalent of three years' men... 47,572

The enrolled militia of the State at the date

of the last report numbered 41,565, of whom 1,485 were active militia.

The following table exhibits the vital statistics of the State for the year ending December 31, 1864:

Number of births.....	9,784
Loss from previous year.....	151
Marriages.....	4,171
Gain over previous year.....	1,680
Deaths.....	9,109
Gain on previous year.....	563
Excess of births over deaths.....	675

Notwithstanding the increase in the number of deaths, there was no epidemic generally prevalent, the percentage from zymotics being less than for two years preceding. The following have been the ten most fatal causes, in their order: consumption, 1,171; pneumonia, 592; diphtheria, 499; typhus and typhoid fevers, 442; old age, 405; scarlet fever, 322; dysentery, 283; cholera infantum, 234; croup, 225.

The Legislature adjourned on July 21st, after the longest regular session ever held in the State. Among the prominent bills passed were those imposing a tax of four mills on the dollar, reorganizing the militia, raising the salaries of members of the Legislature, from \$1.50 to \$3.00 per diem, forbidding railroad companies to raise the price of commutation tickets, and authorizing the treasurer to issue two millions of dollars more of State bonds at six per cent., which should be free of taxation. The following resolutions on national affairs were adopted at the close of the session:

GENERAL ASSEMBLY, May Session, A. D. 1865.

Grateful to Almighty God who has brought the American people safely through the perils of civil war, and has opened before them a prospect of peace, prosperity, and power, the General Assembly, of Connecticut, considering the present condition of public affairs, thinks fit to declare as follows:

The American people are a nation, and not a confederacy of nations.

The States have certain constitutional rights which ought to be preserved inviolable; but, as between the Nation and the States, the Nation is sovereign and the States are not.

All men within the limits of the United States ought to be absolutely free; and no permanent discrimination in rights and privileges ought to exist between different classes of free men.

Treason against a Republican government is the greatest of crimes, and ought to be treated as such. Nevertheless a humane and generous policy ought to be exercised by the national Government toward the misguided masses of the Southern people who were not primarily responsible for the late rebellion.

The public opinion of Europe, in reference to the domestic affairs of this country, must henceforth be of little value to the American people.

The Government of the United States, in settling upon its domestic policy, and especially in deciding what course it will pursue toward the leaders of the rebellion, ought not to be influenced by the wishes, the advice, the warnings, the entreaties, or the public opinion of foreign nations, but ought, on the contrary, to look with jealousy and suspicion upon all attempts from such quarters to affect its action.

The Government of the United States ought never to recognize any government which has been imposed upon any nation on this continent by the arms of any European power.

In its diplomacy, the Government of the United States ought, while courteous, to be frank. It ought

not to make pretences of friendship toward nations that have manifested hatred of this country in its late distress. But peace, with friendship toward our friends, and peace without friendship toward those who are not our friends, ought to be maintained at all times, if possible, as the true and permanent policy of the United States.

Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, by his great abilities, his undoubted patriotism, and his eminent public services, has entitled himself to the confidence of the nation; and since he is manifestly surrounded by many and great difficulties, and is compelled to adopt experimental policies without assurance of their success, he ought to be sustained in the exercise of great freedom of action, and in all his efforts to tranquillize the country, to maintain its peace and dignity, and to promote its welfare, he ought to receive a frank and generous support from the people.

His Excellency, the Governor, is hereby requested to cause a copy of these declarations to be transmitted to the President of the United States, and a like copy to each of the Senators and Representatives of this State in Congress.

At the same session an act was passed, in the Senate unanimously, and in the House by a two-thirds vote, submitting to popular ratification the following amendment to the State Constitution: "Every male citizen of the United States who shall have attained the age of twenty-one years, who shall have resided in this State for a term of one year next preceding, and in the town in which he may offer himself to be admitted to the privileges of an elector, at least six months next preceding the time at which he may so offer himself, and shall be able to read any article of the Constitution, or any section of the statutes of this State, and shall sustain a good moral character, shall, on taking such oath as may be prescribed by law, become an elector." This was intended to nullify that clause of the Constitution which denied the right of suffrage to colored persons, except those who were citizens of the State at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, in 1811. The election took place on October 2d, with the following result:

For the Amendment.....	27,217
Against the Amendment.....	33,459
Majority against Amendment.....	6,272

CORWIN, Hon. THOMAS, an eminent American statesman, born in Bourbon County, Ky., July 29, 1794, died in Washington, D. C., December 18, 1865. In 1798 his father removed to what is now Lebanon, Ohio; the son working upon the home farm till he was about twenty years old. He enjoyed very slender educational advantages; but commenced the study of law in 1815, and was admitted to the bar in 1818. His ability and eloquence as an advocate soon gained him an extensive practice. He was first chosen to the Legislature of Ohio in 1822, serving therein seven years, and was first chosen to Congress in 1830. His district (the Miami) was strongly Whig, and he in hearty sympathy with its politics, having supported Clay for President in 1824, Adams in 1828, and zealously supporting Clay again in 1832; as he did Gen. Harrison in 1836 and 1840. In the latter

year—Gen. H. having received the Whig nomination at Harrisburg—a certain militia Gen. Crary, who represented Michigan in the House, having made a speech criticizing and assailing Gen. Harrison's military career, Mr. Corwin answered it in a vein of mingled humor and sarcasm which has rarely been equalled. The extinction of the unfortunate member from Michigan was so complete, that when John Quincy Adams casually alluded in debate next day to "the late Mr. Crary," the House fairly shook with the general merriment.

In 1840 Mr. Corwin was the Whig candidate for Governor of Ohio, and canvassed the State with Gen. Harrison, addressing enormous gatherings in most of the counties. At the election, he was chosen by some 16,000 majority, Gen. Harrison receiving over 23,000 in the Presidential election that soon followed; yet, two years later, Gov. Corwin, on a reduced poll, was run out by Wilson Shannon, whom he had so heavily beaten in 1840: the vote standing—Shannon, 129,064; Corwin, 125,621; King (Abolition), 5,404.

In 1844 the Whigs, on a full poll, again carried the State, giving its electoral vote to Mr. Clay, and sending Mr. Corwin to the United States Senate, where he made in 1847 a speech against our war in Mexico, thoroughly exposing and reprobating the iniquity of that foray. He served in the Senate until Mr. Fillmore's accession to the Presidency (July, 1850), when he was called to the head of the Treasury, where he remained till the expiration of Mr. Fillmore's term, when he returned to private life and the practice of law at Lebanon, and was in 1858 returned once more a Representative in Congress by an overwhelming majority; being reelected, with but a shadow of opposition, in 1860. On Mr. Lincoln's accession to the Presidency, he was appointed Minister to Mexico, where he remained until the arrival of Maximilian, when he came home on leave of absence, and did not return; remaining in Washington and engaging in the practice of law, but taking a warm interest in public affairs, and earnestly coöperating in every effort to restore peace to our country.

His style of oratory was captivating, and his genial and kindly nature made him an almost universal favorite. His death, though occurring at a ripe age, and after some months of infirm health, was sudden and somewhat unexpected, resulting from a paralytic attack.

COSTELLO, DUDLEY, an Irish author and journalist, born in 1803, died at St. John's Wood, London, September, 1865. He was the son of a military officer, and brother of Louisa Stuart Costello, the well-known authoress. He was educated for the army at Sandhurst, and, obtaining a commission, served with his regiment on the staff in various foreign stations, and finally at Bermuda, W. I. Here strong literary tastes developed themselves, and most of his leisure time was devoted to drawing and literature. He also issued a newspaper once a

fortnight, written mostly himself in different styles and on all the topics of conversation in the island, being at this time scarcely twenty years of age. Having relinquished his commission in the army, he pursued his studies on the Continent for some years, residing in Paris with his accomplished sister. For a time he was private draughtsman and amanuensis to the famous Baron Cuvier. Afterwards he devoted himself to copying illuminated manuscripts in the "Bibliothèque Royale," and it is said that he and his sister were the first who drew public attention to copying ancient illuminations, both in Paris and at the British Museum. Returning to London in 1833, he became successively foreign editor of the "Morning Herald," and "Daily News." Besides a volume of travels, "A Tour through the Valley of the Meuse" (1845), Mr. Costello produced a number of works of fiction, among which are "Stories from a Screen" (1855), "The Joint Stock Banker" (1856), "The Millionaire" (1858), "Faint Heart Never Won Fair Lady" (1859), and "Holidays with Hobgoblins" (1860). He had also been connected with the "Examiner" newspaper since 1845, and for thirty years had contributed to many of the periodicals of the day. Mr. Costello's latest separate publication is "Italy from the Alps to the Tiber," an illustrated work in two volumes. He was, a few years since, placed on the pension list of the Royal Literary Fund on account of his literary ability.

CROCKER, NATHAN B., D.D., a clergyman of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States, and for more than sixty years rector of St. John's Church, Providence, R. I., born in

Barnstable, Mass., July 4, 1781, died at Providence, October 19, 1865. He completed his preparatory studies at the Sandwich Academy, graduated at Harvard College in 1802, and soon after commenced the study of medicine under Dr. Leonard, of Portsmouth, and subsequently with Dr. Jeffries, of Boston. Theology, however, having greater attractions for him, he took orders in 1808, and was elected rector of the church in Providence, over which he presided until his death, with the exception of an interval of a few years, during which his health obliged him to suspend preaching. In 1808 he was ordained a priest, and made a Fellow of Brown University, and Secretary of the College Corporation, and retained his connection with the University throughout his life. The ministerial life of Dr. Crocker is intimately identified with the history, growth, and progress of the Episcopal Church of that diocese. When he removed to that State it contained but four Episcopal churches, all of which were established under the auspices of the English Propagation Society, in the early part of the last century. In 1827 he received the degree of Doctor of Divinity from Geneva College, N. Y. As a preacher Dr. Crocker was simple, faithful, and evangelical, dealing but little in controversial divinity, and rarely attempting philosophical argument. He aimed to be instructive more than eloquent, was fond of reading, and his written discourses probably averaged from sixty to seventy yearly, a few of which, as well as some of his occasional addresses and lectures, were published. In person he was tall, but well formed and erect, and his manners were dignified and courteous.

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DAVIS, Hon. HENRY WINTER. An American statesman, born in Annapolis, Md., in 1817, died at Baltimore, Dec. 30, 1865. He was the son of an Episcopal clergyman and professor in St. John's College, Annapolis; was partly educated at that college, but finally graduated at Hampden Sidney College, Va., studied law and was admitted to the bar at Alexandria, Va. Here he rapidly rose to distinction. His intellect was admirably suited to his profession—keen, inventive, salient, and with that power of continuous thought which is essential to every man that has to do with affairs of the forum or of the State. After practising a few years in Alexandria, he removed to Baltimore, and first attained celebrity there in the Episcopal Convention of Maryland, by his defence of Dr. H. V. D. Johns against the accusation of Bishop Whittingham, for having violated the canon of the Episcopal Church, in consenting to officiate on one occasion in the Eutaw Methodist Episcopal Church. In 1855 he was elected a Representative from Maryland, and was reelected the two following terms, serving through all on the Committee

of Ways and Means. As a politician his unflinching integrity often assumed the appearance of audacity, and by nature self-reliant, he seldom permitted the opinions of friends to influence his own resolutions; hence by those who made expediency their cardinal doctrine, he was sometimes denounced as self-willed and impracticable. In 1859 he voted for Mr. Pennington, the Republican candidate for Speaker. The act drew down on him a storm of reproach and abuse. The Legislature of his own State passed a resolution that he had misrepresented Maryland, and forfeited the confidence of her people. In a speech made in Committee of the Whole in the House, immediately after, he told the members of the Maryland Legislature to take their message back to their masters, for only to their masters, the people, would he reply! In a still higher key he declared that he should rejoice if his duty to his country could always be made to square with the interests of his immediate constituents, but there might be occasions when it would be necessary to consider the welfare of the nation,

and disregard the wishes of those who elected him. When his State stood ready to plunge into secession, he resisted that purpose with his utmost zeal and ability. Representing a slave State and a border State, he was, nevertheless, conspicuous in Congress for his uncompromising radicalism, his early advocacy of emancipation, of arming the negroes, &c. His great speech at Chicago last summer was for negro suffrage. His Southern birth and education, his political hopes, which were always high, and his professional interests, to which he was much attached, weighed as nothing against his faith in the principles of the Declaration, of "humanity, of freedom, and of equal rights." In 1868 Mr. Davis was elected to the thirty-eighth Congress, in which he served with distinguished ability as Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs. In 1852 he published a book entitled the *War of Ormuzd and Ahriman in the Nineteenth Century*. His death was caused by typhoid pneumonia, brought on by taking a cold bath while under the influence of a heavy cold.

DELANCEY, Right Rev. WILLIAM HEATHCOTE, D. D., D. O. L., Bishop of the diocese of Western New York, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, born in Westchester County, N. Y., October 8, 1797, died at his residence in Geneva, N. Y., April 5, 1865. He was educated at Yale College, New Haven, where he graduated in 1817.

Having studied theology under Bishop Hobart, he was admitted in 1822 to the order of priests, and soon became an assistant minister in the associated parishes of Christ Church, St. Peter's, and St. James's in Philadelphia. From 1823 to 1830 he was annually chosen Secretary of the Diocesan Convention, and from 1823 to 1829 was also Secretary of the House of Bishops. In 1828 he became Provost of the University of Pennsylvania. After remaining in that office for five years, he became again an assistant minister of St. Peter's church, and on the death of Bishop White, the rector of that parish.

In 1838 he was chosen bishop of the newly constituted diocese of Western New York. His consecration to the Episcopal office took place May 9, 1839. He then removed to Geneva, the seat of the Diocesan College, where he afterwards resided. In his new position he soon proved himself one of the most energetic and efficient prelates of his Church. The visitation of his large diocese required a journey of more than four thousand miles, and during the earlier years of his administration had to be made almost entirely by the old-fashioned stage coaches, or often by a private conveyance over rough roads and through a thinly settled country; still he was enabled to make this journey annually until the introduction of railways in that section of the country relieved him of much of the fatigue incident to his visitation. Through his endeavors all the Church institutions throughout his district were placed upon a firm

basis, and ample endowments for them and for the episcopate were secured.

Bishop Delancey was one of the leaders of the High Church party in this country, and threw his whole influence in its favor. His Church sympathies, however, were broad and generous. Of late years he has been prominent from his efforts to bring about intercommunion with the Greek Church. He twice visited England, first in 1852, as one of the delegates chosen to represent the American Episcopal Church at the third jubilee of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. His fellow delegates were the Bishop of Michigan and the late Bishop Wainwright, of New York, and all three received the honorary degree of D. C. L. from the University of Oxford. Bishop Delancey's second visit to England was made in 1858. His death was partially the result of paralysis.

DELAWARE. Area, 2,120 square miles; population in 1860, 112,216. Until the commencement of the recent war a State debt was unknown in Delaware. The resources of the State had been amply sufficient to meet the ordinary expenses, and the policy to guard against indebtedness had become settled. Upon the issue of the orders of the Federal Government to draft the citizens into the military service, the Legislature determined to extend the credit of the State to aid them in relieving themselves from the operation of the draft by obtaining substitutes. For this purpose the State Treasurer was authorized to prepare and issue bonds to the amount of \$1,000,000. This amount was increased during 1865 by the addition of \$110,000, making the total \$1,110,000. A loan of bonds to the amount of \$170,000 was made to the Delaware Railroad Company by the State in 1855. As a security for this loan the State holds a mortgage of the railroad guaranteed by the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad Company—a part of the line from Philadelphia to Baltimore and Washington—and also a sinking fund by the operation of which the entire loan will be paid before the maturity of the bonds. The payment of the principal and interest of the general bonded debt was provided for by the appropriation of certain sums from time to time paid to the Treasurer for the use of the State. The amount thus paid by a tax on the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad during the eleven months ending October 31, 1865, was \$94,782, to which adding the taxes from other sources, and the aggregate was \$95,203. This sum, if the tax justly due upon carriers by steam had been paid by all, and the tax upon the railroad had yielded in the same proportion for November, would have been increased to upwards of \$160,000 for the year ending December 1, 1865—a sum sufficient to pay the annual interest on all the bonds and leave forty thousand dollars to be applied to the principal.

The annual current expenditures have hitherto been met by the income from the invest-

ments of the State, together with certain taxes, fees, fines, forfeitures, &c.

Under the act of Congress of July 30, 1864, imposing a tax of ten per cent. on the circulation of State banks, the alternative was presented to them to adopt the national system authorized by act of Congress, or to go into liquidation. The State of Delaware owned \$365,700 of the capital of the Farmers' Bank. An act was therefore passed authorizing the change to the national system.

The subject of internal improvements has for years received much attention from the people of this State. The construction and operation of the Delaware Railroad has added greatly to the wealth and convenience of the people, and especially those residing in close proximity to it. It is now being rapidly extended, by its connection with a Maryland road, through the Eastern shore of Maryland to the waters of the Chesapeake, and promises, when completed, still further to enhance the wealth and prosperity of the whole section of country through which it passes. The Delaware and Maryland Railroad is now in process of rapid construction, and the expectation of those having charge of this improvement is that it will be completed within the present year. This road will be of immense advantage to a very productive section of Kent County, greatly in need of facilities for transporting produce to market. The completion of the Junction and Breakwater Railroad from Milford, by way of Georgetown to Lewes, is greatly desired by all the citizens.

The amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which had been ratified at the close of the year, abolished slavery in the State of Delaware. The number of slaves in the State in 1860 was 1,798. During the excitement of the war this number had been greatly reduced, and but few remained to receive any benefit from the measure. The free colored population in 1860 was 19,829. In the Legislature of the State this amendment was rejected.

DENMARK, a kingdom in Europe. King, Christian IX., born April 8, 1818, succeeded on November 15, 1863, King Frederick VII., in virtue of the "London Protocol" of May 8, 1852, and the Danish law of succession of July 31, 1853. Oldest son of the king, and heir apparent to the throne, Crown Prince Frederick, born June 8, 1843. Since the cession of the Duchies Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg to Prussia and Austria, on October 30, 1864, the area of Denmark Proper consists of 15,896 square miles, containing (February 1, 1860) 1,608,095 inhabitants. The other dominions of Denmark (Faroe Islands, Iceland, Greenland, and the Island of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the West Indies) had, in 1860, a population of 124,020. The average annual increase of the population from 1855 to 1860 was 1.34 per cent. Four cities have a population above 10,000 inhabitants. Copenhagen, 155,143; Odense, 14,255; Aarhus, 11,009;

Aalborg, 10,069. On February 1, 1860, there were in Denmark only 12,907 persons not connected with the Lutheran State Church, of whom the Jews were 4,214; Roman Catholics, 1,240; Reformed, 1,761; Mormons, 2,657; Baptists, 2,270; Anglicans, 114; Apostolical Free Church, 203; and Evangelical Lutheran Free Church, 162. Since 1860 the Methodist Episcopal Church has also been established in Denmark, and in 1865 full religious liberty was granted to that body. The receipts in the budget of 1865-'66 was calculated at 9,819,682; the expenditures at 13,979,348 rix-dollars. The public debt of the Danish monarchy, inclusive of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg, was on March 31, 1864, 113,254,944 rix-dollars; the particular debt of Denmark Proper, 8,879,339 do. The share of the duchies in the public debt was fixed in the treaty of Vienna at 29,000,000 rix-dollars. The Danish army, on the peace-footing, consists of 12,000 men; during the war against Austria and Prussia it was raised to about 55,000. The fleet, in March, 1865, consisted of 29 steamers (of which 4 were iron-clads), with 376 guns, besides a number of sailing vessels.

DIALYSIS, NEW APPLICATIONS OF. *Conversion of Salt Meat into Fresh, etc.*—An article on the UTILIZATION OF BRINE will be found in the volume of this CYCLOPEDIA for 1864, the method—applied by Mr. A. A. Whitelaw, of Glasgow—being that of *dialysis*, for which see also preceding volumes. In a note in the *Jour. of the Franklin Institute* for July, 1865, it is stated that in a paper read by Dr. William Marcet before the London Chemical Society, and to be found in its journal (December, 1864), but which the writer of this has not met with, that author asserts that the material procured from brine by the dialytic process, as shown by his experiments, lacks in considerable degree the crystalloid constituents of flesh, such as the phosphates, the lactates, kreatine and kreatinine; and that it is thus in reality very poor in nutritious matter.

Another application of dialysis, however, later made by Mr. Whitelaw, that namely of a mode of freshening salted meats, appears, so far as published accounts have yet been met with, to promise a more decided practicability and success. The process, as stated by the inventor (*Chem. News*, May 28, 1864), consists essentially in placing the salt meat within a dialytic bag made of untanned skin or other suitable material, and which is further to be nearly filled with brine from the barrel; then immersing this dialyser, so charged, in a sufficient quantity of sea-water, and allowing the interchange of materials through the texture of the bag to go on for several days. As the brine becomes freed of salt, the meat gradually parts with its salt to the brine, and this portion also is in turn withdrawn by the liquid without. The process should continue until the meat is fresh enough for use—or, say, until the enclosed brine is within 1° or 2°

(Twaddell's hydrometer) of the strength of seawater. Meanwhile the piece of flesh expands like a wetted sponge, gradually acquiring at the same time a great part of the natural juice it had previously lost by salting. The brine left in the bag can, after a night's dialysis separately within fresh water, be used for soup. Salted meats so treated become, it is stated, in effect fresh; while, if without bone, they gain in juices about one-third of their weight. They may accordingly be cooked in a variety of ways not suitable for salt meats; and it is anticipated that through adoption of the process at sea, not only the palatableness of flesh foods, but also the health of those consuming them, may be improved.

In the journal last quoted (June 11, 1864), Mr. S. Johnson suggests an extension of the dialytic process, in a new manner, to the purpose of freshening and rendering edible the carcasses of animals which may have been preserved by Dr. Morgan's method—the injecting of antiseptic and preservative substances into the blood-vessels. The writer thinks that Dr. Morgan's mode of curing and preserving the flesh of animals, in applying which the carcasses must be preserved entire, must sooner or later come into quite general use, at least in certain of the British colonies, where now millions of animals are annually stripped for their hides, and left to birds and beasts of prey. He proposes that to prepare the preserved carcasses for use, when required, a current of water shall be made to circulate through the system of blood-vessels (though he does not enter into particulars as to the manner of effecting this), the vascular system of the animal thus being made to serve the purpose of Whitelaw's dialytic membrane. On shipboard, after removal of the preservative agents, the phosphates, etc., sometimes recommended for supplying the want created through lack of vegetable food, could be introduced. The writer also thinks that the objection to curing meats by creosote, or by phenic acid, owing to difficulty of afterward removing their flavor, may by the like process be obviated. A later note states that the French Government has had trial made of Dr. Morgan's method, in the preserving of entire sheep and oxen, and that the results have been found satisfactory. The flesh of animals killed and so injected was, several months later, found good.

If the processes now indicated prove to be practicable, it would appear that through a resort to them the transportation of game and of slaughtered animals to distances in the warm season could be carried on to an extent which circumstances do not now permit; and that, both for land transportation and for use at sea, a very considerable saving might be effected in the way of dispensing with the necessity of packing in ice.

Detection of Vegetable Poisons by Dialysis.—M. Grandeau has found the dialytic method highly applicable to the separation of the alkaloids from animal matters with which they

are liable to be found intermixed. He cites instances of detection of digitaline in urine containing but 0.01. gramme of that substance, and also of the separation by the method in question of morphine, brucine, and digitaline from animal matters.

In the second volume of the "Clinical Lectures and Reports" of the London Hospital, Dr. Letheby has two papers on the subject of poisons and their detection, the first entitled "On Liquid Diffusion in Relation to Physiology and Toxicology." In this, he confirms Grandeau's conclusion as to the value of dialysis as a mode of detecting the presence of organic poisons, and shows its application also in case of arsenic and tartar-emetic. While thus admitting, however, the utility of the process for discovering the presence of such poisons, he judges that dialysis is not well suited to determining their quantity.

DIMAN, Hon. BYRON, Governor of Rhode Island, 1846-'47, born in Bristol, R. I., in 1795, died at Bristol, August 1, 1865. He grew up before the era of public schools, enjoying the private tuition of the excellent Bishop Griswold, whose faithful and judicious instructions he always recalled with affectionate regard. His studies at school formed, however, but a small part of his acquisitions. Up to a late period in his life he remained a diligent reader, and few men, devoted to active business, possessed a more varied store of general information. He was particularly at home in all matters of geography and topography, and would often astonish his friends with the exactness of his knowledge of places he had never visited. There was scarcely a European city of note with the general outline of which he was not well acquainted. The most marked feature, however, in his intellectual character, was his fondness for antiquarian lore. Possessing a wonderful retentive memory for dates and persons, he delighted to discuss the days gone by, and call back the men of a former generation. With him, it may be safely affirmed, perished one of the largest funds of local history possessed by any man of his time. Nor was his knowledge limited to local traditions. He was well versed in New England history, and in the history of the mother country, especially during the Commonwealth. An ardent admirer of the Puritans, and especially of their great hero, Cromwell, he always stood firm for rational liberty in Church and State, and gave his most emphatic approval to the great measures of President Lincoln. Of English politics he also possessed a very exact knowledge. At an early age Gov. Diman entered the counting room of the late Hon. James De Wolf, who, during the war of 1812, had accumulated one of the largest estates, for that time, in New England. At the death of Mr. De Wolf, in 1837, he continued for a long time to manage much of the property. At one time he was extensively engaged in the whale fisheries, and used to show with just pride a beautiful model

of a ship completely equipped, presented to him by one of his officers upon whom he had conferred a favor. As the whale fishery declined, he turned his attention to cotton manufactures, and became treasurer and afterward president of the Bristol Steam Mill. He was also for many years president of the Bank of Bristol. He always took great interest in the affairs of the church which he attended, and at one time was president of the "Catholic Congregational Society." He was a liberal contributor toward the erection of the solid and beautiful structure, whose granite buttresses will long stand as a grateful memorial of the labors of his pastor, the venerable Dr. Shepard. For the greater part of his life he felt a deep interest in political questions, and took an active part in political contests. He was one of the convention which nominated Gen. Harrison for the Presidency in 1850, and did all in his power to effect the election of his favorite political leader, Henry Clay. For Mr. Clay he cherished that almost idolatrous enthusiasm which that eminent statesman, more than any American who has lived since Alexander Hamilton, seemed everywhere to awaken. For many years, under the old charter, Gov. Diman was either a member of the General Assembly or a Senator, and was Lieutenant-Governor for three years after the adoption of the present constitution. He was elected Governor in 1846, in the exciting canvass that attended the disruption of the famous "Law and Order" party. Since that time he felt less interest in politics, until the great issue came up which resulted in the civil war. His death was the result of a severe apoplectic attack.

DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE AND FOREIGN RELATIONS. Some important correspondence took place during the year 1865 relative to events of interest to the United States.

Recognition of the End of the War.—The following letter was addressed by Earl Russell to the Lords Commissioners of Admiralty, recognizing the close of the war in this country:

FOREIGN OFFICE, June 2d, 1865.

MY LORDS: I have the honor to state to your Lordships, that since the date of my letter of the 11th ultimo, intelligence has reached this country that the late President of the so-called Confederate States has been captured by the military forces of the United States, transported as a prisoner to Fortress Monroe, and that the armies hitherto kept in the field by the Confederate States have for the most part surrendered or dispersed. In this posture of affairs, her Majesty's Government are of the opinion that neutral nations cannot but consider the civil war in North America as at an end. In conformity with this opinion, her Majesty's Government recognize that peace has been restored within the whole territory of which the United States of North America, before the commencement of the civil war, were in undisturbed possession. As a necessary consequence of such recognition, on the part of her Majesty's Government, her Majesty's several authorities in all ports, harbors, and waters, belonging to her Majesty, whether in the United Kingdom, or beyond the seas, must henceforth refuse permission to any vessels of war carrying the Confederate flag, to enter such ports, harbors,

and waters, and must require any Confederate vessels of war, which at the time when these orders reach her Majesty's authorities in such ports, harbors, and waters, may have already entered therein, on the faith of a proclamation heretofore issued by her Majesty, and which having complied with the provisions of such proclamation, may be actually within such ports, harbors, and waters, forthwith to depart from them.

But her Majesty's Government consider that due regard for national good faith and honor require that her Majesty's authorities should be instructed as regards any such Confederate vessels so departing, that they should have the benefit of the prohibition heretofore enforced against the pursuit of them within twenty-four hours by a cruiser of the United States lying at the time within any such ports, harbors, and waters, and that such prohibition should be then and for the last time maintained in their favor. If, however, the commander of any Confederate vessel of war which may be found in any port, harbor, or waters of her Majesty's at the time these new orders are received by her Majesty's authorities, or may enter such port, harbor, or waters within a month after these new orders are received, should wish to divest his vessel of her warlike character, and after disarming her, to remain without the Confederate flag within British waters, her Majesty's authorities may allow the commander of such vessel to do so at his own risk in all respects, in which case he should be distinctly apprised he is to expect no further protection from her Majesty's Government, except such as he may be entitled to in ordinary course of administration of law in time of peace. The rule as to twenty-four hours would, of course, not be applicable to the case of such vessels.

I have addressed a similar letter to the Secretary of State for the Home, Colonial, India, and War Offices, and also to the Lords Commissioners of her Majesty's Treasury, requesting them, as I do your Lordships, to issue instructions in conformity with the decision of her Majesty's Government to the several British authorities at home or abroad who may be called upon to act in the matter.

I am, &c., RUSSELL.

Official notification having been given to the Government, that the end of the war was recognized, as stated, Mr. Seward writes to the British Minister, Sir F. W. H. Bruce, at Washington, as follows:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, June 19, 1865.

SIR: Due consideration has been given to a despatch which Earl Russell addressed to you on the 2d of June, instant, and of which, on the 14th inst., you were so kind as to leave a copy at this department. The President is gratified by the information which that paper contains, to the effect that her Majesty's Government have determined to consider the war which has lately prevailed between the United States and the insurgents of this country to have ceased *de facto*, and that her Majesty's Government now recognize the reestablishment of peace within the whole territory of which the United States were in undisturbed possession at the beginning of the civil war.

The President is also gratified to learn from Earl Russell's despatch that her Majesty's Government will forthwith send to her Majesty's authorities in all ports, harbors, and waters belonging to her Majesty, whether within the United Kingdom or beyond the seas, orders henceforth to refuse admission into any such ports, harbors, and waters of any vessel of war carrying the insurgent flag, and to require any insurgent vessels of war, which after the time that the orders may be received by her Majesty's authorities may have already entered such ports, and which having complied with the previous proclamations of the British Government, may be actually within such

ports, harbors, and waters, forthwith to depart from the same.

It is with regret, however, that I have to inform you that Earl Russell's despatch is accompanied by some reservations and explanations which are deemed unacceptable by the Government of the United States. It is hardly necessary to say that the United States do not admit what they have heretofore constantly controverted, that the original concession of belligerent privileges to the rebels by Great Britain was either necessary or just, or sanctioned by the law of nations.

The correspondence which took place between this Government and that of her Majesty at an early stage of the insurrection shows that the United States deemed the formation of a mutual engagement by Great Britain with France, that those two Powers would act in concert in regard to the said insurrection, to be an unfriendly proceeding, and that the United States therefore declined to receive from either of those powers any communication which avowed the existence of such arrangement. I have therefore now to regret that Earl Russell has thought it necessary to inform this Government that her Majesty's Government have found it expedient to consult with the Government of France upon the question whether her Majesty's Government will now recognize the restoration of peace in the United States.

It is a further source of regret that her Majesty's Government avow that they will still continue to consider that any United States cruiser, which shall hereafter be lying in a British port, harbor, or waters, shall be detained twenty-four hours, so as to afford an opportunity for an insurgent vessel, then actually being within said port, harbor, or waters, to gain the advantage of the said time for her departure from the same port, harbor, or waters.

It is a further source of regret that her Majesty's Government have deemed it proper to make the additional reservation in favor of insurgent vessels of war, that for the period of a whole month which shall elapse after the new orders now to be issued by her Majesty's Government shall have been received by the said authorities, any insurgent vessel which may be found in or which may enter any port, harbor, or waters of her Majesty's dominions, and which may desire to divest itself of its warlike character, and to assume the flag of any nation recognized by her Majesty's Government, with which her Majesty is at peace, will be allowed to do so; and further, that such vessels, after disarming themselves, will be permitted to remain in such port, harbor, or waters without an insurgent flag, although the twenty-four hours' rule will not be applicable to the cases of such vessels. Far from being able to admit the legality or justice of the instructions thus made, it is my duty to inform your Excellency that, in the first place, the United States cannot assent to an abridgment of reciprocal hospitalities between the public vessels of the United States and those of Great Britain. So long as her Majesty's Government shall insist upon enforcing the twenty-four hours' rule before mentioned, of which the United States have so long, and as they think, so justly complained, the United States must apply the same rule to public vessels of Great Britain.

Again, it is my duty further to state that the United States cannot admit, and on the contrary they controvert and protest against the decision of the British Government, which would allow vessels of war of insurgents or pirates to enter or leave British ports, whether for disarmament or otherwise, or for assuming a foreign flag, or otherwise. As to all insurgent or piratical vessels found in ports, harbors, or waters of British dominions, whether they entered into such ports, harbors, or waters before or after any new orders of her Majesty's Government may be received by any authority of her Majesty's Government established there, the Government maintains and insists that such vessels are forfeited to and ought to be de-

livered to the United States upon reasonable application in such cases made, and that if captured at sea, under whatsoever flag, by a naval force of the United States, which capture will be lawful.

Notwithstanding, however, the exceptions and reservations which have been made by her Majesty's Government, and which have been herein considered, the United States accept with pleasure the declaration by which her Majesty's Government have withdrawn their former concessions of belligerent character to the insurgents, and this Government further admits that the normal relations between the two countries being practically restored to the condition in which they stood before the civil war, the right to search British vessels has come to an end by an arrangement satisfactory in every material respect between the two nations.

It will be a source of satisfaction to this Government to know that her Majesty's Government have considered the views herein presented in a spirit favorable to the establishment of a lasting and intimate friendship between the two nations. I have, &c.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD.

On the same day Mr. Seward addressed the following note to the Secretary of the Navy:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, June 12, 1865.
Hon. Gideon Welles, Secretary of the Navy:

SIR: I have the honor to transmit for your information a correspondence between Sir Frederick W. H. Bruce and the department, upon the subject of the withdrawal of the pretended concession of belligerent rights to the insurgents.

In view of this correspondence I suggest, therefore, that you communicate to the naval officers of the United States the results following therefrom, namely:

Great Britain withdraws her concessions heretofore made of a belligerent character from the insurgents.

That the withdrawal of the twenty-four hours' rule has not been made absolute by Great Britain, and that therefore the customary courtesies are not to be paid by our vessels to those of the British navy.

The right of search of British vessels is terminated. Of course this has no bearing upon the operation of the existing slave-trade treaty.

Any insurgent or piratical vessels found on the high seas may be lawfully captured by vessels of the United States.

I have the honor to be, sir,

Your obedient servant,

WILLIAM H. SEWARD,

Secretary of State.

This was soon followed by a complete restoration of intercourse between the two countries, on the same footing as before the war. Letters also issued from the Governments of France and other nations recognizing the close of the war, but in more complete and positive terms than that of Earl Russell.

The Shenandoah.—The departure from London, under the British flag, of the steamer *Sea King*, with the view of meeting near the Island of Madeira another steamer, the *Laurel*, despatched from Liverpool under the same flag and freighted with arms, munitions of war, and supplies, and having on board officers and crew for the purpose of arming and equipping the other vessel to carry on hostilities against the United States, the meeting of the ships at the point of rendezvous, the formal transfer of the *Sea King* to emissaries of the Confederate States, her being declared a Confederate man-of-war, under the name of the *Shenandoah*, and

the transshipment of the cargo and men from the *Laurel* to the other, thus fitting out, equipping, and manning her as a rebel cruiser, in which character she was used to depredate on American commerce, afforded grounds for a continuance of the correspondence between the representatives of the two Governments upon this violation of neutrality, and the claim of the United States for indemnity for losses sustained from vessels so furnished and fitted out. Under date of October 21, 1865, Mr. Adams addressed Earl Russell as follows:

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, }
LONDON, October 21, 1865.

MR LORD: Under instructions from my Government, I have the honor to submit to your consideration copies of certain papers relative to the destruction of the whaling barque *William C. Nye* by the vessel known under the name of the *Shenandoah*.

I am further directed to state, that in view of the origin, equipment, and manning of that vessel, my Government claims to look to that of Great Britain for indemnification for this and other losses that have been occasioned by her depredations.

In order that the facts attending this particular case may be fully laid before you, I pray your Lordship's attention to the series of papers herewith transmitted, which relate to a very material portion of this vessel's career.

In the statement of this case I shall endeavor to confine myself to a recapitulation of the principal facts. To this end it will be necessary for me to recall your attention to certain portions of the correspondence which I have heretofore had the honor to hold with your Lordship.

In the letter which I was directed to address to your Lordship on the 8th of September, 1864, when I was under the painful necessity of remonstrating against the conduct of the commander of the yacht *Deerhound* in rescuing from the hands of the victor in the strife many of the crew of the *Alabama*, I received orders to submit to your consideration four propositions, two of which were in the following words:

3. That the continuance of these persons to receive from any British authorities or subjects pecuniary assistance or supplies, or the regular payment of wages, for the purpose of more effectually carrying on hostile intentions from this kingdom as a base, is a grievance against which it is my duty to remonstrate, and for which I ask a remedy in their conviction and punishment.

4. The occasion has been thought to warrant a direction to me to ask with earnestness of her Majesty's Government that it should adopt such measures as may be effective to prevent the preparation, equipment, and outfit of any further naval expedition from British shores to make war against the United States.

To these propositions your Lordship was pleased to reply on the 26th of September, by stating that the rescue of these people from the sea, and from their captors, was regarded by you as a praiseworthy act of humanity, and that after their escape into this kingdom as a refuge any attempt to restore them could be viewed by you only as a violation of hospitality. No action whatever, so far as I have had an opportunity of knowing, has followed upon either of these requests.

On the 10th of November following I took the liberty of calling your Lordship's attention to the fact, that these refugees, who had been enjoying the hospitality of a neutral kingdom, were in reality persons most of them British subjects, originally enlisted within this kingdom for an unlawful purpose, actually still engaged in the same business, and held together with a view of making a part of another enterprise of the same sort with that of the *Alabama*, conceived and executed in all its parts by agents of

the rebels residing all the time under the protection of her Majesty's neutral territory at Liverpool.

The result, as displayed in the papers now submitted, shows conclusively that the "refuge" spoken of by your Lordship has been turned into a den of robbers; and that the humanity so freely commended has in its consequences been productive of widespread suffering to many industrious and innocent men.

On the 18th of November, 1864, I had the honor to transmit to your Lordship certain evidence which went to show that on the 8th of October preceding a steamer had been despatched under the British flag from London, called the *Sea King*, with a view to meet another steamer, called the *Laurel*, likewise bearing that flag, despatched from Liverpool on the 9th of the same month, at some point near the Island of Madeira. These vessels were at the time of sailing equipped and manned by British subjects, yet they were sent out with arms, munitions of war, supplies, officers and enlisted men, for the purpose of initiating a hostile enterprise to the people of the United States, with whom Great Britain was at the time under solemn obligations to preserve the peace.

It further appears that on or about the 18th of the same month these vessels met at the place agreed upon, and there the British commander of the *Sea King* made a formal transfer of the vessel to a person of whom he then declared to the crew his knowledge that he was about to embark on an expedition of the kind described. Thus knowing its nature, he, nevertheless, went on to urge these seamen, being British subjects themselves, to enlist as members of it.

It is also clear that a transfer then took place from the British steamer *Laurel* to the *Sea King* of the arms of every kind with which she was laden for this same object; and, lastly, of a number of persons, some calling themselves officers, who had been brought from Liverpool expressly to take part in the enterprise. Of these last a considerable portion consisted of the very same persons, many of them British subjects, who had been rescued from the waves by British intervention at the moment when they had surrendered from the sinking *Alabama*, the previous history of which is but too well known to your Lordship.

Thus equipped, fitted out, and manned from Great Britain, this successor to the destroyed corsair, now assuming the name of the *Shenandoah*, though in no other respect changing its British character, addressed itself at once to the work for which it had been destined. At no time in her later career has she ever reached a port of the country which her commander has pretended to represent. At no instant has she earned any national characteristic other than that with which she started from Great Britain. She has thus far roamed over the ocean receiving her sole protection against the consequences of the most piratical acts from the gift of a nominal title which Great Britain first bestowed upon her contrivers, and then recognized as legitimizing their successful fraud.

I am not unmindful of the grounds which have been heretofore assigned by your Lordship as releasing her Majesty's Government from responsibility for the flagrant conduct of this vessel. It is urged that there is no power to prevent vessels bearing the semblance of merchant ships from leaving the ports of this kingdom and meeting each other at some place on the ocean far beyond her Majesty's jurisdiction for the execution of a purpose like that now in question. The parties to it violate no law of the land, provided they commit no offence against the neutrality of the kingdom within its territorial limits. While I cannot myself quite appreciate the force of this reasoning, so far as it may be applied to absolve one nation from its international obligations with another merely on account of the skill of its subjects in evading the local law, I am at the same time not disposed to underrate the difficulties which the best

intentioned Government may, in performing its duty, experience from that cause. Its will may certainly be sometimes baffled by the arts of desperate and profligate adventurers.

Did the merits of this case depend upon the mere fact of the escape of the vessel from a British port by eluding the vigilance of the authorities, it might, perhaps, be considered as not entailing upon her Majesty's Government so heavy a responsibility. There are other circumstances connected with that event which aggravate its nature. One of the most grave appears to be the fact that, after the escape had occurred, and the nefarious project had been consummated, her Majesty's Government, nevertheless, instead of taking prompt measures to denounce the transaction thus completed in defiance of its authority, and refusing to give it the smallest countenance in any British port, deliberately proceeded to accept the result as legitimate, and to direct that this vessel so constituted should be from that moment entitled to all the privileges which an honest belligerent might claim or any vessel of the United States would enjoy.

The consequences of what I cannot but regard as this most unfortunate construction of international law, by which success in committing the fraud was made the only test to purge it of its offensive nature, have been manifested in the manner in which the *Shenandoah* was received wherever it went in the British dependencies. The supplies there obtained, under one pretence and another, particularly in the remote ports of Australia, have enabled this vessel to keep the seas, and to continue her depredations long after she had been stripped of the last shadow of the character with which her Majesty's Government voluntarily chose to invest her at the outset. It is impossible to read the papers which have been forwarded to my Government from the Consul at Melbourne, copies of which are submitted with this note, without feeling that in no instance on record have similar concessions been made to a vessel of such a fraudulent origin, or of such offensive partiality being manifested toward it by a portion of a nation professing to style itself neutral. In consenting to receive this vessel, after the facts of its illegal origin and outfit had been satisfactorily established, I cannot resist the conviction that her Majesty's Government assumed a responsibility for all the damage which it has done, and which, down to the latest accounts, it was still doing, to the peaceful commerce of the United States on the ocean.

I pray permission to call your Lordship's attention to still another of the circumstances which appear to me among the most grave belonging to this case. This enterprise seems to have been the last of the series conceived, planned, and executed exclusively within the limits of this kingdom. It emanated from persons established here since the beginning of the war as agents of the rebel authorities, who have been more effectively employed in the direction and superintendence of hostile operations than if they had been situated in Richmond itself. In other words, so far as the naval branch of warfare is concerned, the real bureau was fixed at Liverpool, and not in the United States. The vessels were constructed or purchased, the seamen enlisted, the armament obtained, the supplies of every kind procured, the cruises projected, and the officers and men regularly paid here. In other words, all the war made on the ocean has been made from England as the starting point. I have had the honor to furnish from time to time to your Lordship evidence of the most conclusive character touching most of these points, and I have even designated the chief individuals to whom the supreme direction of the operations had been intrusted. I fail to be able to recall in history a case of more flagrant and systematic abuse of the neutrality of a country by a belligerent, kept up for an equal length of time. But what I cannot but think still more remarkable is that, notwithstanding the fact of the frequent representations and remonstrances made by myself under

the instructions of my Government, so far as I have been permitted to learn, not a single effort was ever made by her Majesty's Government either to prevent or to punish the persons known to be engaged in this most extraordinary violation of the law of the land. Prosecutions have been instituted, indeed, against a few persons who were alleged to have been acting in contravention of the provisions of the Enlistment Act. Mr. Rumble, after escaping from justice by the leniency of a jury, received a decided censure from the Government; Captain Corbett, the officer commanding the *Sea King*, though prosecuted, appears never to have been brought to trial. But these and a few minor cases were exclusively those of British subjects, who appear to have been acting merely as instruments of a power above their heads. Not a single individual directly connected with the rebellion, and sent here to conduct the operations, has ever been molested in any manner. It cannot, therefore, be at all a matter of surprise when the main-spring of the various naval enterprises, the director of the *Alabamas*, *Floridas*, *Georgias*, and *Shenandoahs*, was left wholly undisturbed, that it has been impossible to put a stop to the damage which has ensued to the people of the United States from the ravage and depredation committed upon them by the operations carried on from this kingdom. At the very time when the fortunate encounter of the *Alabama* by the United States steamer *Kearsarge* terminated in the destruction of one of these corsairs, the offspring of the violated law of this land, and when the people of the United States were congratulating themselves that one great cause of irritation between the two countries was at last laid to rest, it now appears that the directing power to which I have alluded at once turned its attention to a husbanding of the seamen saved by a trick from the hands of the victor, with a view to the immediate production of a successor to the same work. The evidence which I now have the honor to submit shows that many of the crew saved from the *Alabama* have been from the beginning, and still continue to be, a part of the crew of the *Shenandoah*. Neither does it appear from any thing within my knowledge that the smallest attention was ever paid by her Majesty's Government to the representations which I had the honor to submit at the time touching the probability of precisely such an operation.

That the principal person engaged in the direction of this bureau was an officer by the name of J. D. Bullock, expressly despatched from Richmond for the purpose of organizing it, is a fact to which I had the honor to call your Lordship's attention in many different forms during the progress of the struggle. Yet, in spite of all this evidence, Mr. Bullock appears to have been permitted to conduct his operations, and especially to shape the outfit and the entire cruise of the *Shenandoah*, without the smallest interference from any official quarter.

It may, however, be objected that, whatever may have been the nature of my remonstrances, no sufficient evidence was presented of the official character and proceedings of Mr. Bullock to sustain the initiation of any prosecution against him in the Courts. To which I am pained to be constrained to reply that my Government has reason to believe that her Majesty's Government has in one instance considered that evidence sufficient to sustain it in recognizing the authority of Mr. Bullock over the commander of the *Shenandoah* so far as to stop its career, and in consenting to furnish the medium by which to transmit his orders to that vessel. The power to prevent certainly implies the previous existence of a power to control. I beg permission to express the hope that inasmuch as the papers in which this fact appears have not come into the hands of my Government by direct communication from your Lordship I may presume them not to be genuine.

Should the fact be otherwise, however, while readily conceding that the motive for such a proceeding

may have been substantially of the most friendly nature, in accelerating the termination of the ravage committed by that vessel, I do not at the same time feel at liberty longer to disguise from your Lordship the sense of extreme surprise which the knowledge of it has caused, not less on account of the singular recognition thus incidentally made of the authority of one, long pointed out as the principal offender against the neutrality of this kingdom, and enjoying a degree of impunity difficult to be understood, than of the fact that her Majesty's Government appears to have determined thus to act without deigning any signification of its purpose to the party most directly interested in the decision.

Since the preceding was written I have had the honor to receive unofficially from your Lordship the gratifying intelligence that her Majesty's Government have decided to send orders to detain the *Shenandoah* if she comes into any of her Majesty's ports, and to capture her if she be found on the high seas. I have taken great pleasure in transmitting this to my Government. At the same time, I trust I may be pardoned if I am compelled to remark that had her Majesty's Government felt it to be consistent with its views to adopt this course at the time when it adopted that upon which it has been my painful duty to animadvert, it would have most materially contributed to allay the irritation in my own country inseparable from the later outrages committed by that vessel.

Having thus acquitted myself of the unpleasant duty with which I have been charged, I pray, &c.

CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

On the 6th of November, 1865, the *Shenandoah* arrived at Liverpool, with a crew of 133 men. She was given up by her commander to the British authorities at Liverpool, and her officers and crew suffered to depart—Earl Clarendon stating, in answer to the remonstrance of Mr. Adams, that on inquiry none known to be British subjects were on board, and that in the absence of some definite charge of an offence cognizable by British law, and supported by legal evidence, the British Government could not assume or exercise the power of keeping any of them under any kind of restraint.

On the 10th of November, the vessel with her stores, etc., was delivered up by the senior naval officer at Liverpool to the United States Consul at that point. An answer to Mr Adams' letter of October 21st, was despatched by Earl Clarendon, who had succeeded Lord Russell in the foreign office.

FOREIGN OFFICE, NOV. 13.

SIR: I have now the honor to reply to the letter which you addressed to my predecessor on the 21st of October last respecting the proceedings of the late Confederate steamer *Shenandoah* in the Pacific.

But I must in the first instance observe, that in alluding to the answer given to you by Lord Russell, on the 26th of September, 1864, respecting the conduct of the yacht *Deerhound* in rescuing from the sea a portion of the crew of the Confederate steamer *Alabama*, after her conflict with the United States cruiser *Kearsarge*, you omit to notice the principal passage in that answer, in which Lord Russell says: "In point of fact, however, her Majesty's Government have no lawful power to arrest and deliver up the persons in question" (that is, the persons rescued from the sinking *Alabama*). "They have been guilty of no offence against the laws of England, and they have committed no act which could bring them within the provisions of the treaty between Great Britain and the United States for the mutual surrender of offenders; and her Majesty's Government are, therefore, entirely without any legal means by which, even

if they wished to do so, they could comply with your above-mentioned demand" (namely, that those officers and men should now be delivered up to the Government of the United States as escaped prisoners of war).

I may add, that if beyond the limits of British territory the commander of the *Deerhound* had improperly interfered to protect the officers and crew of the *Alabama* from the belligerent rights of the United States, it was for the commander of the *Kearsarge* to use the means in his power for the prevention of such interference. Once upon British soil, they were entitled to the protection of British laws, which they had in no respect violated; and her Majesty's Government could not deprive them of that protection because of the possibility (whether afterwards realized or not) that they might again leave this country and become engaged in further hostilities with the United States. The demand for their delivery up, which was made by you in fact, was identical with one which had at various times been made by foreign Governments for the extradition or expulsion of other foreign refugees—Poles, Hungarians, and others; and to which the invariable answer had been that the laws of this country did not empower the Government to take any such measure. The answer to every such demand is found in the fundamental institutions of this country, in the law of *habeas corpus*, and of trial by jury. If any evidence had been offered to her Majesty's Government identifying any of those persons as British subjects who had unlawfully enlisted in the service of the Confederate States, or who were guilty of any other violation of our laws, they would have been duly prosecuted; but no such evidence was brought forward.

The case of the *Deerhound*, therefore, furnishes, when examined, no materials for complaint against her Majesty's Government.

The next subject of complaint preferred by you is the conduct of her Majesty's Government in not preventing the vessel called the *Sea King* from leaving the shores of England to join another vessel called the *Laurel*, which was sent to meet her near Madeira with arms and ammunition.

You do not affirm that her Majesty's Government had any power or jurisdiction over either of these vessels when beyond the limits of British territory; but, unless that assertion be made or implied, the complaint falls to the ground. For while these vessels were in British waters no information was given (much less any evidence offered) to her Majesty's Government to show that any persons concerned in their outfit or equipment were guilty of or were contemplating any infringement of the Foreign Enlistment Act, or of any other law in force in the United Kingdom, nor even that they were suspected of being engaged in any design whatever, hostile or dangerous to the United States.

Your complaint, indeed, is against the general laws of this country. The executive power of the British Crown does not, nor does the executive power (as the Act of Congress of 1813 is understood in this country) of the United States, extend to the detention and seizure of an unarmed merchant vessel, on the mere suspicion that she will or may be armed at sea in the waters of a foreign power.

Under the municipal law of this country (which goes at least as far as any obligation which may be supposed to attach to it under the law of nations) the British Government is able to detain and prosecute natural-born British subjects who may enter into the war service of a foreign power without the license of the Crown, or who within her Majesty's dominions may fit out, arm, or equip (or attempt to fit out, arm, or equip) vessels to cruise or commit hostilities against any State in amity with her Majesty. But the British laws do not and cannot effectually reach subjects of her Majesty who may go to a foreign State, and there enter into any kind of naval or military service. You are well aware that many subjects

of her Majesty have gone from this country to the United States, and have there, during the present war, entered into the military service of the United States, and fought against the armies of the Confederates, contrary to her Majesty's proclamation.

Such occurrences as these the law of England (and, her Majesty's Government believe, the law of the United States) cannot prevent, and has very rarely the power to punish. It is obvious (as you indeed admit) that the law which prohibits the equipment of vessels destined to make war on States with which her Majesty is at peace may, like most other human laws, be evaded. No human means can in all cases effectually prevent individuals from purchasing or otherwise acquiring a vessel with the secret intention of arming her beyond the territorial limits of the country, and then cruising against a State with which her Majesty is at peace, or from successfully executing that intention. It is distinctly denied that the Government of any State is, upon any recognized principle of international law, responsible for such an event.

Feeling, as it would seem, that for the equipment and armament of the Shenandoah no original responsibility can reasonably be cast on her Majesty's Government, you represent, as the main substance of this part of your complaint, that this vessel, after she had been equipped and commissioned was recognized by her Majesty's Government as a public ship of war of a lawful belligerent, and was admitted as such into British ports.

This is in truth nothing more than the often repeated objection to the course adopted by her Majesty's Government in recognizing both parties in the late war as belligerents, and (if belligerents at all) then as belligerents wherever they were found actually carrying on war, whether by sea or by land. You are of course aware that the Sea King was transferred, when beyond the territory of her Majesty, to the agents of the Confederate States, and from them (while still beyond her Majesty's territory) received a commission as a ship of war under the name of the Shenandoah. It was a necessary consequence of the principle of neutrality, and of the recognition of the state of war (by virtue of which alone the blockade was enforced with so much severity against neutrals by the United States), that the validity, for the purposes of the war, of such a commission should be recognized by the Government of this country.

The supplies given to this vessel, and the hospitality afforded to her in a British port during the continuance of the war, were merely the same which were always afforded to the vessels of war of the United States; to refuse them in such a case would have been not to vindicate, but to depart from the neutrality declared by her Majesty. If the fact were (as you suggest) that the supplies so afforded had the effect of enabling the Shenandoah to continue hostilities after the Confederate States had ceased to be belligerents, it is obvious that such an occurrence might equally take place in any other case in which a ship of war of any belligerent nation, having taken in ordinary supplies at a neutral port, might continue hostilities after the restoration of peace, either through ignorance of that fact, or from any less excusable motive.

So far, then, as your objection to the enjoyment of belligerent rights by the Shenandoah in the ports of Great Britain is founded on the allegation of her original illegal equipment, I have already sufficiently pointed out that the circumstances of her equipment were not such as in the eye of the English law, or consequently in the view of the English Government, could be regarded as illegal. She was, therefore, as long as the war subsisted, naturally treated on the same footing as any other vessel of a recognized belligerent power.

But even had the case been otherwise, and had her equipment and origin been undoubtedly illegal, I should have experienced hardly less surprise at the

claim put forward on behalf of the United States in the following sentence of your despatch:

In consenting to receive the vessel after the facts of its illegal origin and outfit had been satisfactorily established, I cannot resist the conviction that her Majesty's Government assumed a responsibility for all the damage which it has done.

If I needed (which in this case I do not) to find an answer to a claim founded upon such principles, I should have to seek no further than the records of recent American law and the practice of modern American statesmen. In that chapter of American history which has lately become familiar in these discussions, relating to the transactions which arose out of the revolt of the South American Republics, will be found a complete refutation from American authorities of the doctrine on which you now appear to insist.

As you are well aware, numerous vessels of war were fitted and refitted under the commission of the revolted States in the ports of the United States to cruise against the commerce of Spain and Portugal. These vessels started on their original voyage, manned and armed in the ports and by the subjects of the United States, and returned to the same ports over and over again after repeated cruises. Though the fact of the illegal origin and equipment of such vessels was established, not by vague surmise or *ex parte* statement, but (in several instances) by judicial proof adduced in suits instituted for the restoration of their prizes when brought within the neutral jurisdiction, the Government of the United States does not appear ever to have taken any step for the purpose of excluding any of those vessels from the full and unrestricted enjoyment, within their own ports or elsewhere, of the same rights (with the single exception of the right to retain prizes brought in) which it accorded to any other ships of war of a belligerent power.

Nevertheless, so far from admitting that by such conduct, as you now contend, they "assumed a responsibility for all the damage done" by such vessels, your Government distinctly repudiated any such responsibility when urged upon them by arguments almost identical with those on which you now rely.

While admitting that several prosecutions have been instituted by her Majesty's Government against persons amenable to British law who had been shown by probable evidence to have been guilty of violating the Foreign Enlistment Act (Capt. Corbett, of the Sea King, to whom you refer as having never been brought to trial, is awaiting his trial at the present moment), you make it, nevertheless, matter of complaint that no legal proceedings have been taken against any of the Confederate agents in this country, under whose direction and management various operations, in abuse of her Majesty's neutrality, are said to have been conducted.

But no information supported by evidence on which a prosecution could be judiciously instituted or successfully maintained has ever been had before her Majesty's Government for the purpose of showing that the laws of this country were, in fact, so violated by any of those persons.

You are well aware of the extent to which not only municipal, but also international law, permits either of two belligerents to avail themselves of the resources of a neutral country, by mercantile agencies, by loans of money, and by the purchase and shipment of every kind of munitions of war, without giving to the other belligerent any cause of complaint against the country where such operations are carried on. Full advantage has been taken of this state of international law by the United States themselves during the recent contest.

If, in addition to operations of this nature, the Confederate agents in this country superintended or directed other designs involving the violation of our laws, they were careful (as it might be expected they would be) to keep their participation in any such ill

gal acts as far as possible out of sight. The agency of Captain Bullock for the Confederate Government was, indeed, to some extent disclosed by parts of the evidence relating to ships which were the subject of actual or contemplated proceedings by her Majesty's Government, but not in such a manner nor to such an extent as to make it probable, in the judgment of her Majesty's advisers, that if proceedings had been instituted against him personally they would have been attended with a successful result.

You refer, indeed, to the recent transmission, under the orders of her Majesty's Government, of Captain Bullock's letter to the commander of the Shenandoah, directing him to cease from the further prosecution of hostilities, as proof that her Majesty's Government have, at least in one instance, considered themselves to be in possession of sufficient evidence of Captain Bullock's authority to control or prevent such hostilities. But it is not clear that proof, even of the extent and kind of authority assumed in that letter, over the Shenandoah when at sea, would have supplied the want of further evidence of any infringement alleged to have been committed by Captain Bullock of the laws of this country. Your surprise, however, on hearing of that circumstance, as well as the inference which you draw from it, of the previous possession of evidence against Captain Bullock by her Majesty's Government, will, I hope, cease when you learn that this letter was transmitted by her Majesty's Government in compliance with the request of Mr. Mason (the known and accredited agent in Europe of the Confederate States) made to Earl Russell in a letter dated the 20th of June last, after the conclusion of the war.

Whatever might have been the extent of the previous knowledge or ignorance of her Majesty's Government with respect to the acts of Captain Bullock, they were entitled to believe, on Mr. Mason's authority, that the letter sent by him for transmission would be effectual for its intended purpose; in which, being a purpose of humanity, especially beneficial to the United States, her Majesty's Government felt they might safely endeavor so far to coöperate without any risk of being misunderstood by the United States Government. I am, &c., CLARENDON.

November 18, 1865, Mr. Adams addressed a reply to a letter of Earl Russell, which was afterwards referred to as a substantial answer to the above communication of Earl Clarendon, of November 18. He says:

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, }
LONDON, November 18, 1865. }

MR LORD: I have the honor to acknowledge the reception of a note from your predecessor, the Right Hon. Earl Russell, dated the 2d instant, in reply to one which I addressed to him on the 18th of September last, on certain important questions now under consideration between her Majesty's Government and that which I have the honor to represent.

It is with the most profound regret that I am thus compelled to open my relations with your Lordship in a spirit of controversy. I can only urge in extenuation of this proceeding the great importance of the subjects under consideration—not simply as between two countries, but from their wider bearing on the future relations of all the civilized nations on the globe. Furthermore, I flatter myself that, from the contraction necessarily going on of the topics under treatment, we may, before long, arrive at some sort of termination of a discussion already on my part, I fear, rather tediously protracted.

His Lordship's note appears to be substantially confined to the consideration of two classes of facts, both of them bearing upon the establishment of one general principle of the law of nations—to wit, the obligation of a neutral country to belligerents to do every thing within its power to maintain its neutrality inviolate. This obligation his Lordship appears to

maintain to be fully acquitted by the adoption of such measures as the neutral itself may judge sufficient without regard to any remonstrances of the belligerent. And without entering into argument on the abstract question, he contents himself with vouching in the conduct of the United States in past cases in full justification of the course taken by Great Britain, and complained of by the United States in the progress of the late war. The chief of the cases relied upon by his Lordship is that in regard to certain claims for indemnity for injuries done to the commerce of Portugal by vessels illegally fitted out in the United States.

In order to define the nature of the question thus raised, it would seem to be proper first to note how far his Lordship and I are agreed. After which it may be made more clearly to appear wherein we are so unfortunate as to differ.

But consenting to cite the language and the action of the United States Government in the Portuguese case so freely as his Lordship does as a precedent to justify the latter course of her Majesty's Government now drawn into question, it is obvious that he must have given to them the high sanction of his approbation.

On my side, I have already, in a preceding note, expressed it as my opinion that the grounds taken in that case by my Government were inpregnable.

It necessarily follows that on this point we are fully agreed. Where there is no difference, it is obviously superfluous to continue an argument.

Here I would beg permission to observe that in all the previous examination of this topic I have carefully abstained from the task of affirming that a neutral Power is absolutely responsible for the injurious consequences of any and every violation of neutrality that may originate within its territorial limits, without regard to the circumstances attending each case. The proposition which I have affirmed, and still do continue to insist upon, is, that a neutral is responsible for all injuries which may so ensue to a friendly nation when it fails to exercise all the means in its power for prevention, and constitutes itself the sole judge of the extent to which it will refuse to resort to stronger ones within its reach, when the old ones are proved by the injured party to have been wholly inadequate to the emergency.

With the light shed by this explanation, I now propose very briefly to set forth those points in the respective action of the United States toward Portugal and of Great Britain toward the United States, wherein they appear to me to differ so essentially and radically as to make it impossible to bring them within a reasonable parallel:

1. The United States did not recognize the insurgents in South America as a belligerent until the fact of the presence of their armed vessels was made patent to them on the ocean. But Great Britain did erect the insurgents in the United States into a belligerent before they showed a vessel on the sea, before they organized an army on land, and before they had done a thing but declare an intention to do what they never subsequently executed.

2. Upon the first notice given to the Government of the United States that the neutrality of their ports was violated by South American insurgents making outfits in connection with their own citizens, they immediately put in force the provisions of the existing law; prosecutions were instituted against the foreign agents, as well as citizens; and decrees of restitution were obtained from the the judicial tribunals in the cases of captured property. In other words, nothing was left undone that energy could do to bring to bear existing preventive legislation against these offenders.

One particular instance of the desire to perform these obligations is worthy to be presented to your notice, more particularly inasmuch as it incidentally explains as well the public sense of the extent of the obligation of a neutral Power in similar cases, as of

the responsibility entailed from an insufficient performance of it.

It appears that some of the insurgent emissaries, in conjunction with desperate adventurers of the United States, went to the extent of seizing and occupying two different spots on the American coast, neither of them within the jurisdiction of the Union, nor yet within that of any responsible Power. Here they made bases from which to conduct their hostile operations against the commerce of Spain and Portugal, very much in the manner, but not nearly with so much success, as Liverpool in this kingdom and the port of Nassau were made basis of, against the commerce of the United States, by insurgent emissaries during the late war. These proceedings soon attracted the attention of the President, who dwelt upon the necessity of adopting prompt measures of prevention in his annual recommendations to Congress in the year 1817. The matter was referred in course to the consideration of the Committee of the House of Representatives, which made a report recommending that these establishments should be at once suppressed by force, if necessary.

Among the reasons given for resorting to this summary proceeding are the following, to which I ask a moment of your Lordship's attention:

The immediate tendency of suffering such armaments, in defiance of our laws, would have been to embroil the United States with all the nations whose commerce with our country was suffering under these depredations: and if not checked by all the means in the power of the Government, would have authorized claims from the subjects of foreign Governments for indemnities at the expense of this nation, for captures by our people in vessels fitted out in our ports, and, as could not fall of being alleged, countenanced by the very neglect of the necessary means of suppressing them.

It would be difficult to express in more forcible language the principle established by the law of nations than is done in these sentences. The action recommended was, moreover, performed so promptly, that soon afterwards the President, in a special Message, was enabled to announce that the piratical establishments at Amelia Island and at Galveston had been suppressed. The paramount necessity had been thought to justify the exercise of power even over territory not within the national jurisdiction.

But when I turn my attention to the proceedings of her Majesty's Government as they are noted in the dreary list of my representations and complaints contained in the printed Memorandum furnished to me with his Lordship's note of the 2d inst.; when I perceive real justice to have been so seldom done and so often defeated, however good the intentions may have been; when I note the omission of all reference to the endless remonstrances made by myself against the establishment of a naval bureau in Liverpool, conducted by insurgents mentioned and particularized by name; because not a single step was ever taken either to prevent their action or to punish them—I cannot but be sensible of a difference in the preventive action of the two countries in similar circumstances, which would ever forbid me from classing them together in one connection for a single moment.

8. It is not, however, denied that, in the one case as in the other, several cases of illegal outfits took place which the existing laws proved inefficient to prevent or punish.

In that of the United States the representative of the aggrieved Power made at once a direct appeal to the Government, stating the cause of the difficulty, and soliciting a new movement for the purpose of obtaining from the requisite source stronger powers of prevention; to which that Government immediately responded by recognising the justice of the complaint, and at once adopting the suggestion.

If her Majesty's Government has at any time in this struggle followed that example, it has escaped my observation. I should be glad to be corrected when I affirm that it has done the directly opposite thing.

Here I may be permitted for a moment to refer to a passage of his Lordship's note, which appears to have been called out by a hypothetical description I ventured to give of the consequences that might ensue to the world if neutral nations constituted themselves the sole judges of the degree in which they had done their duty under a code of their own making. To this phrase his Lordship is pleased to retort as follows:

Yet, as far as I can judge, your Secretaries of State always maintained that the United States, as a neutral Power, were the sole judges of the degree in which it had done its duty under a code of its own making.

To which I would beg permission to observe that his Lordship can scarcely presume me to maintain that, in the literal sense, my country does not make its own code of laws. What I did mean to do, was to distinguish by this term a country which was ready to accept suggestions from Foreign Powers, for an improvement of a code designed to give them the protection they are entitled to by treaties as well as by international law, from one which determined to abide by its own system without regard to external representations. By keeping in mind this distinction, in connection with the fact already stated of the action of my Government, it will then appear that his Lordship is in error when he declares that "our Secretaries of State" (meaning those of the United States) "made themselves the sole judges of the degree in which the country had done its duty under a code of their own making." So far was this from being true, that they admitted that the country had not done its full duty, and they proceeded to amend the code at the suggestion of a Foreign Power that claimed to be aggrieved. Hence it is that the "code" was "not of their own making."

If there be a shadow of doubt left on this point, I will proceed to disperse it by the following extracts:

On the 20th of December, 1816, M. Correa de Cerra addresses these words to the Secretary of State:

I apply, therefore, to this Government, in the present instance, not to raise alterations, or to require satisfaction which the Constitution of the United States has not perhaps enabled them to give, but because I know that the supreme Executive of this nation, all-powerful when supported by law, is constitutionally inactive when unsupported by law. What I solicit of him is the proposition to Congress of such provisions by law as will prevent such attempts for the future.

To which application Mr. Monroe, then Secretary of State, replies as follows on the 27th of December, 1816:

I have communicated your letter to the President, and have now the honor to transmit to you a copy of a message which he has addressed to Congress on the subject, with a view to obtain such an extension, by law, of the executive power, as will be necessary to preserve the strict neutrality of the United States in the existing war between Spain and the Spanish Colonies, and effectually to guard against the danger in regard to the vessels of your Sovereign which you have anticipated.

And on the 18th of March Mr. Rush, then Acting Secretary, writes to him as follows:

The act of Congress passed on the 8d of this month, to preserve more effectually the neutral relations of the United States, being upon the subject brought under consideration in your letter to this department of the 20th December last, I have the honor, by direction of the President, to transmit for your information the enclosed copy of it. The President feels sure that your Sovereign will perceive in the spirit and scope of its provisions a distinguished proof of the desire which animates this nation to maintain with his dominions and subjects the most harmonious relations.

But when I turn to the other side of the picture, and view the action which her Majesty's Government has thought it proper to take in answer to similar representations made by me on behalf of my Government; when I observe that the appeals to the existing law have been almost uniformly of a kind to prove its utter inefficiency; and when, upon my making representations as to the expediency of further legislation to enlarge the powers of the Government to an

extent adequate to the emergency, I find that proposal positively declined, it seems to me that here again the parallel sought to be made utterly fails.

I would respectfully ask whether, in the correspondence just laid before your Lordship, there be any language similar to that which his Lordship, in one of the notes which he did me the honor to address me, used to me:

Surely we are not bound to go on making new laws *ad infinitum* because new occasions arise.

Here I would respectfully submit that if his Lordship be right in his assertion that new laws *ad infinitum* are not required by new occasions, it is difficult to explain the reason for the existence of so many legislative bodies and such multiplied statute books. Surely the Government which I represent, would not have so repeatedly acceded to the solicitations of her Majesty's Government as it has done, to "make new laws for new occasions," under any other plea.

But I am in candor bound to observe that, even in this doctrine, there has been during the late struggle a singular variation in the practice of her Majesty's Government, which I ask your Lordship's permission to point out.

At a very early date the exposed nature of the frontier bordering upon Canada became so much a subject of anxiety to my Government that I was instructed to bring the matter to the attention of his Lordship, with a view to the establishment of more effective preventive measures on the Canadian side than were thought to be then within reach. To that end, in the early part of December, 1863, in a conversation which I had the honor to hold with his Lordship, after explaining the reasons of my Government for the danger apprehended in this quarter, I proceeded to propose the adoption of a form of law on the part of Canada resembling that which had been enacted on our part in 1833, to meet a similar emergency then happening there. It is true that for a considerable period I had no reason to presume that this proposal had been more favorably received than any other of the same kind I had been called to make. But when, one year later, information was received of the extreme peril into which Canada had been thrown by the violent enterprise executed by some of the insurgents established in that province upon the peaceful town of St. Albans, I then had the satisfaction of learning from his Lordship that the suggestion had been adopted so far as that her Majesty's Government had recommended to the authorities of Canada to procure the enactment of the suggested law.

In this case, then, it is clear that the imminent danger of a rupture between the two countries had brought on an acknowledgment of the necessity of going on to "make a new law to meet a new occasion." But surely her Majesty's Government would not be willing to give even a color to an inference that nothing but a necessity to avoid a war would be a sufficient motive to induce it to recognize an obligation to make a new law. If the reasons for the suggestion were equally valid in all cases, I fail to perceive upon what principle the nature of the answer should be made to depend upon the merely accidental pressure of the circumstances attending the moment it was made.

Without pressing this topic further, I would then beg to observe that in any event, however the facts attending the Portuguese claim as now explained may be viewed, one thing is indisputable, and that is that there is a wide divergency in the nature of the two cases sought to be brought together. It is plain that neither in the commencement, nor in the proceedings under the existing laws, nor yet in the mode of treating the suggestion of new legislation, was there any resemblance whatever in the tone or the action of the respective Governments. Hence I am constrained to arrive at the conclusion that, whatever may be thought of the conduct of the Government

of the United States in its relation toward Portugal, there is no parallel to it in that of Great Britain toward the United States by which the latter may be tested in the way of justification. Considered as a precedent, for which alone the case seems to have been quoted by his Lordship, I must insist that the evidence entirely fails to establish its authority.

On a general review of these marked differences, considered in the light of the rule of international law laid down at the outset of this letter, it may now be said that one Government appears to have done all that it was reasonably asked to do, and all that it could do, to preserve its neutrality; while the other certainly could have done more, but deliberately refused, and accepted the responsibility of that refusal.

Hence, I must respectfully submit that before his Lordship concludes to adopt the language used by the United States in answer to Portugal, he should be prepared with proof to show that he has likewise adopted the action on which they based it.

I should here gladly close my portion of this long controversy if it were not that his Lordship has, in his note to which I now have the honor to reply, thought fit to open a new matter which I cannot decline to notice.

It has happened in the course of this extended discussion that he has, on more than one occasion, deigned to give me the fruits of his examination of various points of history in my own country. In the first instance, his Lordship was pleased to apprise me that Spain had never received any compensation for the claims of her citizens against the United States. By the aid of a little light I think I succeeded in dispersing that illusion, so that it has not been made to appear again. Again, his Lordship was pleased to inform me that the Enlistment Acts of the respective countries were in their main provisions similar and coextensive. Here I respectfully pointed out to his attention the fact that certain important provisions were contained in the one that were not to be found in the other; provisions which we, at least, regarded as having proved in practice the most efficient in the whole law.

His Lordship, in the note to which I am now replying, has been kind enough to take notice of this difference, and goes on to describe the nature of the provisions he had overlooked; but it appears to be only for the purpose of trying to convince me that in my statement of their superior efficacy I am utterly wrong. Hence, the argument appears to follow somewhat after this fashion: his Lordship having proved to his satisfaction that those provisions of the law which her Majesty's Government did not adopt were as susceptible of evasion as all the others which it did adopt, it must necessarily follow that her Majesty's Government were fully justified in declining a proposal to make any amendment whatever of its existing statute.

To which I would respectfully venture to reply that, even had the result proved to be as supposed, yet the position of her Majesty's Government, if it had consented to make the experiment, would have been, at least in my eye, infinitely stronger than it is now. It might then have replied to all complaints, as the United States replied to Portugal, that every thing in its power had been done, even to the extent desired by the complaining party. Whereas, by a refusal to recognize the justice of the request, it appears to have placed itself in the attitude of a party deliberately assuming the responsibility of declining to use those powers legitimately within its reach wherewith to fulfil its most imperative obligations.

But I am constrained to go further, and affirm that I can by no means subscribe to the opinion which his Lordship is pleased to express as to the ineffective nature of the provisions of the law to which he has referred. It is not without extreme surprise that I find him use the precise language respecting it which I beg permission here to quote:

Now, I contend, first, that for ten years these provisions

proved utterly inefficacious to prevent the fitting out of privateers at Baltimore, as shown by the fact that the complaints of the Portuguese Ministers of captures and plundering by American privateers were more frequent and extended to a larger amount of property after 1818 than they had done from 1816 to 1818.

It is difficult for me to describe the high degree of astonishment with which I have read these lines.

In opposition to this grave affirmation of facts, which I must beg leave to observe no attempt is made to sustain by any distinct evidence, I am driven to take the liberty to affirm on my own side, first, that there is not a tittle of specification to show that the fitting out of privateers continued in any appreciable sense for ten years after the year 1818; and, secondly, that no pretence of that kind is to be found in any of the official remonstrances of the representatives of Portugal to which I have had access, with one single exception, which I propose presently to notice.

In relation to the point of the efficiency of the law, I shall venture, in opposition to his Lordship's reasoning as to what it might be, to confront that which, in the mind of M. Correa de Serra, the person through whom all the transactions passed during much the largest part of the period in question, and who had every opportunity to be familiar with them, it really was.

On the 4th of February, 1819, about two years after it had gone into operation, he deliberately used the following language:

This law, so honorable to the spirit of justice of the Government that enacted it, has also been found in practice the most useful of the laws existing on this subject. Unhappily the continuance and recent aggravations of the evil it was intended to remedy seem to render it necessary that this law may still continue in force for some time. I apply, therefore, to this Government in order to obtain the continuance of this law, so necessary to the peaceful trade of the subjects of my Sovereign, and so honorable to the character of the United States, perfectly confident that my request is according to the just and friendly intentions of the Chief Magistrate and legislators of the Union, and conducive to the consolidation of good harmony between my Sovereign and the United States.

On the 4th of June, 1820, he again writes to the Secretary of State as follows, thanking him for still more effective legislation:

Permit me, sir, to profit of this occasion to offer my thanks to this Government for the law that prohibits the entrance of privateers in the most important ports of the Union, and for the other that declares piracy the landing and committing outrages ashore in foreign lands. I acknowledge the salutary influence of the Executive in obtaining these ameliorations.

Notwithstanding the very great deference with which it is my desire, as well as my habit, to bow to the judgment of his Lordship, if I find myself so unfortunate as to be constrained to express an humble opinion in this case of conflicting authority, I cannot in candor disguise my conviction that the correct view is most likely to be that of M. Correa de Serra.

But, however efficient this law may have been found to be by M. Correa de Serra at so late a date as the 4th of June, 1820, it is now gravely affirmed that it so wholly lost its efficacy for the next ten years following that more property was captured after 1818 than before, and the complaints of the Portuguese Minister for these captures and plundering were more frequent than ever.

The natural corollary, should this statement be sustained, would be that, assuming the exertions of the Government to have continued the same, instead of improving the efficacy of the old law, the addition of the new provisions must have only made it more worthless than it was before, upon which logic might doubtless be based a very good justification of her Majesty's Government for declining to try further legislation altogether. But, unfortunately, the whole argument falls to the ground when its base disappears. It is not denied that some outfits escaped from Baltimore after the year 1818. But it is denied that the complaints made for captures after that time

bore any fair proportion to those made before. It never has been pretended that any law could be made so perfect, or any vigilance could be so complete, as to put an end to the efforts of profligate and desperate men. The grave error into which his Lordship has fallen appears to have originated in an *ex parte* letter written by a Minister from Portugal to Washington thirty years after the date of the events, in which letter and the caption of a list embracing the names of vessels captured, he includes them vaguely within two distant dates of 1816 and 1828. It is, however, remarkable that in the letter itself, containing his own recapitulation of the facts, no date of a capture is given later than 1820. By turning to the original representations made by his predecessors the same fact distinctly appears. I have carefully examined those representations, to trace the dates of the claims embraced in that list, and find much the greater proportion included within the period of residence of M. Correa de Serra ending in that year. So also of the gross amount of value assigned in 1850 as an indemnity for all the damage done during the entire period, which is less than 300,000*l.*, I find a great proportion embraced in an early and more trustworthy representation made by the same person.

Such being the facts, I submit whether, with such small support as can be given by this wholly *ex parte* and vague averment, his Lordship has not a little crossed the verge of international courtesy, by venturing, without any personal experience whatever of American legislation, and in the face of the statement of M. Correa de Serra, which he must have read, to hazard an assertion, and, still more, give rise to an impression like that necessarily produced by the language already quoted. Standing as I do, the defender of the law of my country, it is with regret I am compelled to protest against it as wholly unsubstantiated by any facts adduced, and in every essential particular incorrect.

Neither were those the only cases in which the efficacy of these provisions of law have been fully tested. It is not a very long time since I had the honor of calling the attention of her Majesty's Government to an instance of the remarkable promptness with which action was had under them upon a request made by the representative of her Majesty's Government at Washington. When Mr. Crampton, on the 11th of October, 1855, directed the attention of my Government to the character of a vessel in New York then believed by him to be fitting out as a privateer, it was by virtue of the authority vested in it by one of the sections of this law that she was seized on the 19th of the same month and taken possession of by the officers of the law in such a manner as to prevent all possibility of escape. It required but four days to prosecute the investigation before her Majesty's representative was led to declare his satisfaction with the result to which it had reached, and desired the process to be stopped. When I compare the celerity of this effective proceeding with the feeble nature of the process that ended in the escape of the Alabama, in defiance of the British authority, while I give due credit to her Majesty's Government for good intentions, it seems difficult to assent to the view which his Lordship has been pleased to take of the slight difference in the inefficiency of the legislation of the respective nations. In any event, I cannot but think that future harmony would have been much more certainly secured by a consent to try the experiment in season than by an endeavor, after great injury has been done, to prove that it might not, under any circumstances, have been averted.

But it would appear superfluous to pursue this investigation further in the view of the fact that whether these provisions of the American law were or were not effective, it was never any part of my instructions to urge the adoption upon her Majesty's Government. I was instructed only to suggest the expediency of having recourse to such additional measures as it

might think proper to choose to the end of making the laws of Great Britain more effective. And it was in that form only that her Majesty's Government decided to decline the proposal. The decision was not against the adoption of the law of the United States. It was against doing any thing at all.

Neither in presenting the argument which I have been called to do, in the course of my duty here, can I for a moment permit an implication that my Government has either "made a demand which aims at the diminution of British freedom, or which assumes, without warrant from any previously recognized authority or practice, the existence of an extent of obligation on the part of neutrals toward belligerents, going beyond any which the Government of a free country could have power, though acting with entire good faith, punctually to fulfil."

I feel very sure that my country is quite as jealous of the preservation of the true principles of freedom as Great Britain is, or ever has been, and, further, I fully believe that neither Government would consent to give to the term that latitude which would encourage the power of doing wrong with perfect impunity.

The suggestion which his Lordship has been pleased to make toward the close of his note of improvements in the statutes of both nations, to the end that greater security may be given to the respective nations against those who endeavor to evade its laws, though it appears to me to be in substance little more than it has been the object of my Government from the outset of the war to obtain, is yet one which I cannot but receive with great respect, and which I shall transmit to my Government with pleasure. If the reasons for it are sound now, I am at a loss to perceive why they did not avail during a period when my country could have felt the benefit of them. I trust that I need not repeat how much pain it has given me heretofore to witness the evil consequences that ensue from the alienation of sentiment that has grown out of this struggle between people of the same race, and how cheerfully I welcome every appearance of a desire to bring them back to harmony. Yet, with regard to the proposition immediately before me, I cannot forbear to observe that it is predicated upon an assumption that the legislation of the two countries is now equally efficacious—which I cannot entertain for a moment. On the contrary, the necessity for some action in future seems to me to be inoperative, because that legislation as it now stands is not coextensive.

For it is hardly possible for me to imagine that the people of the United States, after the experience they have had of injuries from the imperfection of British legislation, and a refusal to amend it, would be ready cheerfully to respond to another appeal like that made in 1855 by her Majesty's Representative to the more stringent and effective protection extended to their own. The great preservative of harmony between nations is the full recognition of reciprocity in their obligations. So long as the heavy list of depredations upon American commerce, consequent upon the issue of a succession of hostile cruisers, built, fitted out, armed, manned, and navigated from British ports with perfect impunity, continues to weigh upon their minds, it would be the height of assurance in me to hold out any encouragement to the acceptance of proposals the practical consequence of which might be to place Great Britain in precisely the same degree of security in dangerous emergencies which she herself, when applied to, had deliberately refused to accord to them.

In regard to the parting words of his Lordship's note, I have already too often had occasion to express the sentiments of my Government to leave any doubt of the sense in which I accept them.

In the performance of a duty which has been too often painful, while his Lordship has been officially the person to whom it has been my lot to address my representations, I have been steadily cheered by the

conviction that he was substantially animated by the feeling that prompted those lines. I have the greatest pleasure in believing that, in assuming the duties of his post under his auspices, my country may rest satisfied that the accession of your Lordship has brought about no unfavorable change.

I pray, &c.

CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

Mexico.—Three subjects have given rise to correspondence in connection with our relations with Mexico:

1st. As to the emigration from the South to Mexico.

2d. Respecting the occupancy of Mexico by French troops.

3d. In regard to the steps taken by the so-called Emperor of Mexico, or by European Powers, to obtain from the United States a recognition of the so-called Empire of Mexico.

In reference to emigration from the South, Señor Romero had, in July, 1864, called the attention of Mr. Seward to the address of General Magruder and Governor Vidaurri's reply, claiming that they showed a perfect understanding between the French and their adherents in Mexico and the insurgents in the United States, and intimating that the French Minister to Mexico was working to that end, and that armed emigration from the Atlantic States and from California was in immediate contemplation. Under date of February 6, 1865, Señor Romero notifies Mr. Seward of the understanding that a settlement had been proposed by Napoleon, by virtue of which the Mexican States of Tamaulipas, New Leon, and Coahuila, with parts of San Luis Potosi, Zacatecas, Durango, and Chihuahua, and almost the whole of Sonora and the peninsula of Lower California were to be ceded to France; and that to make so considerable cession of Mexican territory acceptable, the Emperor would plant there a military colony, which would shelter the remainder of the country from filibustering attacks from the United States.

This arrangement, of which he cites evidences from Mexico, California, and Paris, he protests against, reminding the Secretary of a fact slightly resembling the present, when the Representatives of the French Government in Mexico protested against a treaty concluded between Mexico and the United States of much less importance than the present, only because of a vague rumor, more or less founded, that it had been concluded, and before they had official notice of its execution.

Mr. Seward replies, under date of February 25, 1865, that the protest had been placed on file as testimony to the course of Mr. Romero, and additional evidence of the zealous and patriotic discharge of his functions, and for such other purposes and uses as future events may render it necessary to apply it.

On the 20th of April Mr. Romero communicated to Mr. Seward the correspondence between the rebel Gen. Slaughter and the Mexican Gen. Mejia relative to the capture of the

Mexican steamer *Orizaba* by the rebels, under the plea that she was manned by citizens of the United States, as additional proof of the identity of the political interests which exist between the insurgents of this country and the partisans of the French cause in Mexico.

In a communication, dated July 4th, Minister Romero adduces further evidence of Mexican complicity with the rebels, and states that the commander at the post of Bagdad, a Belgian, informed Gen. Slaughter that he had secret instructions to permit the introduction of all the arms and munitions of war that might be desired, and that they should pass freely for the use of the Confederacy.

He also asserts that there was in Monterey an agent of the Confederacy accredited to the agents of the French so-called Imperial authorities, and that Gen. Mejia, the French agent in Mexico, had promised Gen. Slaughter that he would do every thing that he could in his favor. He also shows that the trade which the Confederate States were carrying on with Mexico and other countries through the ports of Mexico, was carried on with the consent of the French agents in Mexico. To all these statements Mr. Seward promises to give all the attention they are entitled to.

July 8. — Minister Romero communicates statements and letters relating to the schemes of Gwin for organizing a colony in Mexico under the protection of France, and showing that Gen. Bazaine, in command of the French forces, had authority to lend him all needed assistance. Gwin writes, after the surrender of Lee: "The startling news from the United States has made the blood of every Southern man and sympathizer run cold with horror. No one will be safe in our native country. I thank Providence my lot has been cast elsewhere, and that very soon I will have a home for my wife and children where they will be safe from oppression."

Mr. Seward writes to Minister Bigelow, July 18th, enclosing these letters, and requests him to present them to M. Drouyn de Lhuys, and frankly informs him that the sympathies of the American people are already considerably excited in favor of the Republic of Mexico, and they are disposed to regard with impatience the continued intervention of France in that country; that any favor shown to the proceedings of Dr. Gwin by the titular Emperor of Mexico or by the Imperial Government of France, with reference to those agents, will tend greatly to increase the popular impatience, because it will be regarded, perhaps justly, as importing danger to, or at least as a menace against the United States. If these statements are to be believed, Mr. Seward assumes, with the sanction of the President, that the Emperor of France has deserted his position of neutrality.

Respecting the French occupation documents are very voluminous, commencing as far back as March 25, 1865, and ending with December 4, 1865.

Mr. Seward, in a letter to Mr. Bigelow, dated September 6, 1865, says the intense popular interest which was awakened by a civil war of vast proportions during the few years past, has tended in some degree to moderate the solicitude which the situation of our foreign affairs was calculated to create; but that interest is now rapidly subsiding, and it may be reasonably anticipated that henceforth the Congress of the United States and the people in their primary assemblies will give a very large share of their attention to questions of an extraneous character, and chief among these is likely to be that of our relations toward France with regard to Mexico. Nor does it seem unwise to take into consideration the fact that the presence of the two military forces of the two nations—sometimes confronting each other across the border—has a tendency, which both of them may well regret, to produce irritation and annoyance. The French Government has not shown itself inattentive to this inconvenience hitherto, while this Government has been desirous to practise equal prudence; but the time seems to have come when both nations may well consider whether the paramount international peace and friendship do not require the exercise of thoughtful and serious attention to the political questions to which I have thus adverted.

November 6, the Secretary of State addresses Minister Bigelow, and represents that the presence and operations of the French army in Mexico, and its maintenance of an authority there, is a cause of serious concern to the United States. Nevertheless, the objection of the United States is still broader, and includes the authority itself which the French army is thus maintaining. That authority is in direct antagonism to the policy of this Government and the principles on which it is founded. Every day's experience of its operations only adds some new confirmation of the justice of the views which this Government expressed at the time the attempt to institute that authority first became known.

The United States have hitherto practised the utmost frankness on that subject. They still regard the attempt to establish permanently a foreign Imperial Government in Mexico as disallowable and impracticable. For these reasons they could not now agree to compromise the position they have assumed. They are not prepared to recognize or pledge themselves hereafter to recognize any political institutions in Mexico which are in opposition to the Republican Government with which we have so long and constantly maintained relations of amity and friendship. The Secretary says in closing: "It is hardly necessary to say we should not be dwelling so earnestly upon this branch of our political relations if it had not been our conviction that these relations at the present moment supersede those of commerce in the consideration of the American people."

Mr. Bigelow, under date of November 30

reports reading the despatch of Mr. Seward to M. Drouyn de L'huy, who thanked him, though he felt obliged to say he derived neither pleasure nor satisfaction from its contents.

Mr. Seward, in a letter to Mr. Bigelow, dated December 14, 1865, says: "I have to acknowledge the receipt of your despatch of November 26. While it is very interesting, it seems to discourage any expectation on our part of an early withdrawal of the French forces from Mexico. It is to be remembered, however, that the opinions on that subject which you have received from M. Drouyn de Lhuys were expressed by him not only without the positive sanction of the Emperor, but also in the absence of knowledge on the part of the French Government of the definitive conclusion of the President on the subject discussed. It is desirable to leave no part of those conclusions open to misapprehension, and it is equally desirable that we shall be authorized to infer that such expositions of the Imperial views as are given us in the name of the French Government are made with the Emperor's approval. I trust that both these ends will have been accomplished before you receive this despatch."

Mr. Seward, December 16, says it is the President's purpose that France should be respectfully informed upon two points: First, that the United States earnestly desire to cultivate sincere friendship with France. Second, that this policy would be brought into imminent jeopardy unless France could deem it consistent with her interests and honor to desist from the prosecution of armed intervention in Mexico—to overthrow the domestic Republican Government existing there, and to establish upon its ruins the foreign monarchy which has been attempted to be established in the capital of that country. In conclusion he says, the United States will not recognize Maximilian, even if the French troops should be withdrawn from Mexico.

The despatches include letters from the French Legation with reference to Mexican refugees in New York and Washington preparing a movement in favor of Juarez. The first one is as far back as July, 1865.

The papers submitted include a confidential letter from M. Drouyn de L'huy to Le Marquis de Montholon, dated Paris, October 18, 1865, saying that he had renewed the assurance of the French Government to withdraw its auxiliary corps as soon as circumstances would allow it. The French Government had been ready to adopt without a moment's delay the basis of an understanding with the Government at Washington. What is asked of the United States was to be assured that it is not their intention to impede the consolidation of the new order of things found in Mexico, and the best guaranty that the French Government could desire would be the recognition of the Emperor Maximilian by the Federal Government.

Mr. Seward, under date of December 6, 1865, writes: "After a review of all the facts, the

President is gratified with the assurance you give of the Emperor's good disposition. I regret, however, to be obliged to say the condition which the Emperor presents is one which seems to be impracticable."

In regard to the recognition of Maximilian's Government a communication, addressed by Señor Arroyo to Mr. Oorwin, dated March 2, 1865, expresses a desire to see Mr. Seward extra officially, and to ascertain whether the recognition of consuls can be obtained because of the embarrassments which exist in consequence of their non-inhabitation, while in Mexico the exercise of their functions has been continued without embarrassment to American consuls, and stating the government, which was that of Don Benito Juarez, does not exist either *de facto* or *de jure*.

August 1st Minister Romero informs Acting Secretary Hunter that Don Luis Arroyo assumes to act as Commercial Agent in New York without an exequatur or other recognition by the United States Government, and asks whether Government recognized the right of Maximilian to make such appointment, or whether, as he believes is the case, this Government only sees in the Republic of Mexico a war between it and France, without recognizing Maximilian even as a government *de facto*. The charge, he intimates, may seem to show that the Government of the United States tacitly recognizes French intervention in Mexico.

Mr. Seward replies, August 9th, that no law of the United States prevents a person from advertising himself as Consul, but that the Government in all its official correspondence has recognized no other Government in Mexico except that of Juarez, and assures him that such Commercial Agent can perform no Consular act relating to the affairs of his countrymen in the United States. To prohibit him from attesting invoices and manifests, says the Secretary, would be tantamount to an interdiction of trade between the United States and those Mexican ports which are not in possession of the Republican Government of that country. The Consuls of the United States in Mexico who have their exequaturs from that Government, only themselves discharge their duties as Commercial Agents in the ports which are not under the control of that Government, in all respects like those which the person Arroyo, in the same way and to the same extent, claims to do in New York, in respect to said ports.

Señor Romero, on the 12th, explains that no positive answer is given to his inquiries, and notifies Mr. Seward that he has submitted the correspondence to his Government, and will wait for his instructions. Mr. Seward makes formal acknowledgment of the receipt of this communication, without further explanation.

A memorandum by Mr. Seward notes that Marquis Montholon, on the 17th of July, called at the Department of State, saying that a special agent had arrived from Mexico, bearing a letter from Maximilian to the President of the United

States, with papers, making certain explanations relative to transactions on the Rio Grande, upon which the Government of the United States had made representations to the Imperial Government of France. The Secretary, on the 18th, after a conference with the President, returned the letter to Count Montholon, saying that the Government of the United States was in friendly communication with the Republican Government of Mexico, and therefore the President declined to receive the letter, or to hold intercourse with the agent who brought it.

Extradition.—An extradition case was argued and decided in the Court of Queen's Bench in England, early in the spring, which settled some important points in reference to the treaty providing for the rendering up of persons charged with offences; the following is a history of the case and the decision:

One Charles Windsor, of New York, made fraudulent entries in the books of the Mercantile Bank of that city, "whereby the bank was defrauded of \$200,000." He escaped arrest by flight to England. Such a fraudulent entry is punishable in the State of New York, under statute, as forgery. Forgery is one of the crimes mentioned in the extradition treaty. Mere fraud or embezzlement is not. At common law, or by the law of England, these fraudulent entries do not amount to forgery. It is of the essence of the crime that a writing should be made or uttered as the writing of somebody else than the writer. Windsor being arrested in England and held for extradition, was brought before the Court of Queen's Bench, *Habeas Corpus*, Chief Justice Cockburn, Mr. Justice Blackburn, and Mr. Justice Shee sitting. The pretension of the prisoner's counsel was that a mere local statute could not create offences, or change the name of offences, and thus bring them within the scope of a treaty if they were not contemplated or intended by both parties in using the words employed in it; that this was not forgery as intended by the Ashburton treaty, or the British statute giving effect to it, and therefore the prisoner was not properly held to extradition under it. Counsel cited the Anderson case, in which a rule had been granted virtually to set aside the ruling of the Upper Canada judges, as a case in point. Mr. Justice Blackburn, however, observed that nothing was definitely decided in that case, only a rule *nisi* granted.

On the other side, the Gerity case was cited, in which counsel urged it had been laid down that the piracy meant must be piracy under the local law, not piracy *jure gentium*, which could be tried anywhere, and therefore not properly the subject of a treaty of extradition. That was an express recognition of the creation of offences by local legislation. It was necessary, therefore, that the offence should be the same in both countries.

The prisoner was discharged on the ground most succinctly put by Mr. Justice Shee: "The offence must satisfy in all material respects the

definition of the offence by the law of both countries. The terms of the treaty must be taken as the language of both countries, and therefore must be construed as used in the same sense and in the sense common to both. In this case the false entry was not really forgery by the general or common law of either country, and therefore was clearly not within the stipulation of this country."

Claim was also made under the treaty with Great Britain, for the delivery of Young and his companions in the raid upon St. Albans, Vermont, during 1864. The matter was heard before Mr. Justice Smith, of Montreal, who discharged the prisoners; his opinion, given at length, treats of the case as follows:

That the evidence before him proved the existence of the following state of facts as constituting the leading features of the attack on St. Albans by the prisoners and others on the 19th October last.

1. That on that day the prisoner, Bennet H. Young, and about twenty other persons, suddenly appeared in the town of St. Albans, took possession of the three banks and pillaged them, at the same time set fire or attempted to set fire to several buildings; took and held a number of the citizens prisoners during the occupation of the town; seized horses, and were finally fired upon and driven out of the town by the people, exchanging shots with them to an extent which does not clearly appear by the evidence, after having been apparently in some degree in possession of the town for about half an hour. During the pillage of one of the banks a sum of money was taken under threats of violence from one Breck, who entered the bank where the prisoners were with the money in his hand, and it is in evidence that one man was shot dead in the streets of the town, though the circumstances of his death are not described. The charge of robbing Breck being the charge embodied in the information before the Court.

That on the 19th October last, Bennet H. Young was an officer in the army of the so-called Confederate States, holding the rank of first Lieutenant, under an appointment made by Mr. Davis of the 16th June, 1864, as signified to Mr. Young by Mr. Seddon, the Secretary of War; that the other prisoners were soldiers in that army acting under his orders, and that in the attack on St. Albans he and his party assumed and declared themselves to be acting as such officer and soldiers on behalf of the Confederate States, alleging that they were detailed for the purpose as a measure of retaliation for the mode in which they asserted the war had been carried on by the United States in the South.

2. That Lieutenant Young received written instructions from Secretary Seddon, bearing the same date as his appointment, authorizing him to organize in the territory of the enemy for special service a company of twenty men from among persons belonging to the Confederate service and then beyond the Confederate States. By one set of these instructions he was ordered to proceed to the British Provinces to report to Messrs. Thompson and Clay, who appear to be agents for the Confederates in this country, to execute such enterprises as should be entrusted to him, to violate no local law, and to obey implicitly their instructions. Another letter of instructions conveys similar orders to him, except that he is directed to Mr. C. C. Clay alone, instead of Messrs. Thompson and Clay.

3. That during the autumn of 1863, Young escaped from prison as a prisoner of war of the United States and reached Toronto, where he remained till the spring of 1864, during which time he attended lectures at the University. That he left Toronto in the spring, declaring his intention of going to Richmond,

that he was in Halifax in May, with the same expressed intention; that he received his appointment and three letters of instructions at Richmond in June; that he returned to Toronto with his papers in July; that he was in Chicago with a large number of Confederate soldiers in August; that he was at St. Catharines in Canada, where Mr. Clay resided, in September; that he was in Montreal about the beginning of October, at St. Johns, C. E., on the 11th of October, and at St. Albans on the 19th of the same month. That Spurr, Huntly, and Teavis were also seen in Canada; Spurr in Toronto in the winter of 1863-'64, and Spurr, Teavis, and Hutchinson at St. Johns at the same time with Young, though leaving that place separately, and that they also were at Chicago in August last.

4. That large numbers of Confederates collected at Chicago in August for the purpose of releasing the prisoners at Camp Douglas. That upon the failure of that enterprise the expedition against St. Albans was organized there by Lieutenant Young from among the Confederates, he raising his party there under instructions from his Government, which he is proved to have exhibited as his authority, and in his capacity as a commissioned officer, which is proved to have been known among the Confederates there. That he then reported the formation of his company, and his doings generally, to Mr. C. C. Clay in St. Catharines, from whom he received a memorandum approving them, and authorizing the expedition against St. Albans; which it is also proved he also then did verbally, and that Mr. Clay gave him a check for \$400 for his expenses.

That if the case rested solely upon the evidence for the prosecution, which merely established the taking of Breck's money by violence, and if as was contended by the applicants he had no right to look into the whole of the facts connected with the case, it would be his duty to commit the prisoners; but that he held that he was bound to consider the pretensions of the prisoners, namely, that they were not robbers, but soldiers and subjects of a belligerent engaged in a hostile expedition against the enemy, under the authority and on behalf of their Government; and that the act charged was a mere incident to that hostile expedition; and that though he had no power to try the case, he must necessarily so far investigate it as to ascertain whether or no the offence committed fell within the provisions of the treaty.

That a state of war existed between the Northern and Southern States, usually described as the Federal and Confederate States; that the British Government had recognized this state of war, and the contending parties as belligerents; and that as belligerents the Confederate States were entitled to all the rights incidental to that quality, and to a recognized state of war, among which must be claimed that of raising armies, and in so doing of appointing officers and levying soldiers; and also that of carrying on the war in such manner *quoad* the other belligerent as they may deem fit and proper. And that no neutral or other power had any jurisdiction or right to adjudicate between the belligerents upon the measures which either of them might choose to adopt in so doing.

That under the circumstances already shown to have been proved, the foregoing rules are applicable to the case now under consideration, and that as Lieutenant Young was a commissioned officer of one of the belligerent armies, in command of a party of the soldiers of that army, carrying out a hostile expedition planned in that capacity, and submitted to and approved by the agent of his Government, to whom he had been referred by that Government for instruction for his guidance; his acts on that expedition in the enemy's country, in so far as they have a hostile character, do not fall within the purview of ordinary criminal law, but within that branch of international law which treats of the laws of war. But that whether or no those acts were in accordance with the modern

or other usages of war, is a question to be settled between the belligerents by such means as the law of nations and the rules of war indicate, and not by a judge in a neutral country; and that the obligation of taking this view of the law is imposed upon this country and upon its judges, by the recognition by the Imperial Government of the belligerent character of the Confederate States.

That the attack on St. Albans must, therefore, be regarded as a hostile expedition, undertaken and carried out under the authority of the so-called Confederate States by one of the officers of their army.

That it was, therefore, both a belligerent act of hostility and a political offence, *quoad* the State now demanding extradition, and that the Ashburton Treaty did not contemplate, nor do the Statutes of the Province authorize the extradition of belligerents or political offenders.

That if any violation of the laws of this empire, with regard to the preservation of neutrality, was committed by the prisoners, which seems doubtful, as the expedition was organized in Chicago, and as only a portion of the party is proved to have passed through Canada, and that separately; that fact would not, in any respect, affect the question of their liability to extradition—as that must depend upon their acts in the territory of the State demanding extradition, and upon the character and intent, in and with which those acts were committed; and that such breach of neutrality, if it existed, could only be complained of and punished by our courts, at the instance of our own Government, as a violation of its law, and of its dignity and sovereignty.

That there is no proof of record that the prisoners acquired any domicile in Canada, or lost their national character by any residence here. That so far from there being *animus manendi*, the *animus revertendi* was plainly indicated; and, in fact, that under the circumstances proved, the acquisition of a domicile here would not affect the question of extradition, though the prisoners might be violating the laws of the country.

That the extraordinary change which has taken place in the United States must have an important bearing upon questions arising under the Ashburton Treaty, when acts for which extradition is sought under the treaty are only claimed to be criminal by one section of the State which was a party to the treaty, while they are approved of and regarded as meritorious by the other.

That, therefore, the prisoners should be discharged. (See BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.)

DRAYTON, Capt. PERCIVAL, U. S. N., chief of the Bureau of Navigation, born in South Carolina, August 25, 1812, died suddenly at Washington, D. C., August 4, 1865. He was a son of the Hon. William Drayton of that State, member of Congress from 1825 to 1833, and a prominent member of the Union party in opposition to nullification in 1830, and who, on account of his sentiments, removed from the State to Philadelphia, succeeding Nicholas Biddle as President of the Bank of the United States. Young Drayton was possessed with an active, untiring, and rather acute intellect, and his knowledge of languages was quite extensive. He entered the navy as midshipman in December, 1827, was promoted to lieutenant in February, 1838, and from that time to 1852 was successively attached to the Brazilian, Mediterranean, and Pacific squadrons. He was then ordered to the National Observatory in Washington, whence he was assigned to ordnance duty in New York. His promotion as

commander was made in 1855. He was in the Paraguay expedition in 1858, and in the subsequent year was ordered to the Brazilian squadron on the staff of the present Admiral Shubrick. In 1860 he was assigned to ordnance duty at the Philadelphia yard; and here it was, in the city which had been adopted as the home of his father when, thirty years before, the seeds of rebellion were sown in his native State—that the outbreak of war found Commander Drayton. The son faithfully sustained the principles of the father, rejected all proffers of place in the South, and was soon in command of the steamer *Pocahontas* in the expedition against Port Royal, under Admiral Du Pont, and on that occasion fought against his brother, Gen. T. F. Drayton (a graduate of West Point), who commanded the Confederate troops at Hilton Head. He was afterwards transferred to the *Pawnee*, in which vessel he was of great service on the Southern coast. He made repeated reconnoissances up St. Helena Sound and adjacent waters; was at the capture of Fernandina and St. Mary's, the occupation of Stono River, etc. He was promoted to captain on the 16th of July, 1862, and in the fall of that year was ordered to the monitor *Passaic*, the second of that class of vessels. In this iron-clad he bombarded Fort McAllister, and was in the first attack upon Fort Sumter, under Admiral Du Pont. After a short ordnance duty in New York, he was appointed Fleet Captain of the West Gulf squadron, under Admiral Farragut, and was with him in the Hartford at the time of the fight with and capture of the rebel fleet in Mobile Bay, August 5, 1864. It was as flag officer that Captain Drayton was particularly distinguished. Having the most refined and gentlemanly manners, and speaking with great fluency and correctness French, Spanish, and Italian, his services in that position were desired and sought for by every commanding officer with whom he sailed. He remained with Admiral Farragut until the return of that officer to New York, and perhaps no one in the navy enjoyed his confidence to a greater extent than Capt. Drayton. On the 28th of April last he was appointed chief of the Bureau of Navigation, as successor to Rear-Admiral Davis. His disease was strangulation of the bowels, and the fatal result was reached after a brief illness.

DUANE, Hon. WILLIAM J., Secretary of the United States Treasury under President Jackson, born in Clonmel, Ireland, in 1780, died at Philadelphia, September 26, 1865. His father was born in this country, but at eleven years of age was taken to Ireland to be educated for a Roman Catholic priest. At the age of nineteen he married a young Protestant lady, for which he was disinherited. Subsequently he learned the printing trade, became an editor and publisher, and in 1795 removed with his family to America, and was for some years editor of the 'Philadelphia Aurora,' then an important political paper.

William J., the subject of this sketch, like his father, learned the trade of printer, and was at one time a dealer in printing paper and printing ink. He studied law, and in 1803 was admitted to the bar. He repeatedly represented the city of Philadelphia in the Pennsylvania Legislature, and was the author, in 1821, of the resolutions against the admission of Missouri into the Union as a slave State. He also filled several minor offices in the city, his attention being principally devoted to the public schools, in which he took a deep interest, as well as in every thing pertaining to the internal improvement schemes of his State. He was the legal agent for many years of Stephen Girard, and in 1831 wrote the famous will by which Girard transmitted his vast inheritance to the city of Philadelphia. By the terms of this will Mr. Duane was made a trustee, and, subsequently, a director of Girard College, and one of the five executors of the Girard estate. Two years after this will was executed Mr. Duane abandoned his practice to accept office, and was appointed by President Jackson Secretary of the United States Treasury. It is said he accepted with reluctance. A few months subsequently, upon receiving an order from the President to remove the United States deposits from the United States Bank at Philadelphia, he felt it his duty to refuse, and in consequence was dismissed in September, 1833. His place was immediately filled by Roger B. Taney, who agreed in the financial policy of the President, and the deposits were removed. Mr. Duane retired to the practice of the law at Philadelphia, and since the death of his father, in 1835, had withdrawn from public life. He was considered remarkably well informed upon local history.

DUPIN, ANDRÉ MARIE JEAN JACQUES, a French lawyer and politician, born in Vazzy, department of the Nièvre, February 1, 1783, died in Paris, November 9, 1865. He was the oldest of three brothers, each of whom became eminent, was educated for the bar, and was admitted to practice early in the present century. In 1815 he was elected to the Legislative Chamber, and from that time was concerned in nearly every important cause, political or civil, which came before the tribunals. He was again elected to the Chamber in 1827, and then took his place among the opposition. He had previously established himself in the favor of Louis Philippe, and in 1830 he assisted at the revolution which dethroned Charles X. The new government received him as a member, and shortly afterwards rewarded his fidelity with the post of Procureur General of the Cour de Cassation. Later he became President of the Chamber, an office from which he retired after eight years' service. On the fall of Louis Philippe, M. Dupin resigned himself to fate and became President of the republican Chamber, and retained even after the *coup d'état* of 1852 his office of Procureur General. He was, however, shamed into retiring when the confiscation of

the Orleans property was decreed, but even then he did not wholly quit public life. In 1857 he again accepted the office of Procureur, justifying his doing so by the observation that he "had always belonged to France, and never to parties." For the latter portion of his life he had devoted his time mainly to an attempt to reform the present luxurious, extravagant style of dress and living. A few years since he published a pamphlet, which had an extensive sale, entitled "*Le Luxe Effréné des Femmes*," and in which he demonstrated that the present system of extravagance among women was the great cause of many of the troubles in the world and the precursor of greater ones in the future.

DU PONT, SAMUEL FRANCIS, U. S. N., a rear-admiral in the navy of the United States, born at Bergen Point, N. J., September 27, 1803, died in Philadelphia, Pa., June 23, 1865. He was of French origin on his father's side, his grandfather being P. S. Du Pont de Nemours, the intimate personal friend of Madison and Jefferson. He was appointed a midshipman in the navy by President Madison, December 19, 1815. His appointment was made from Delaware, of which State he became a resident in his boyhood. His first cruise was in the *Franklin*, seventy-four, under Commodore Stewart; from this he was transferred to the sloop-of-war *Erie*, Captain Ballard. His second cruise was on the Mediterranean station in the *Constitution*, and twice subsequently he returned to the Mediterranean for three years in the *North Carolina*, seventy-four, and in the sloop-of-war *Ontario*. He also served on the West India station and on the coast of Brazil in the frigate *Congress*, under Commodore Biddle. On the *North Carolina* he had been promoted to be sailing master, and in 1826 he was commissioned Lieutenant and ordered to the schooner *Porpoise*. From 1835 to 1838 he served as executive officer on the *Warren* and *Constellation*, and from 1838 to 1842 on the *Ohio*, the flag-ship of Commodore Hull. In 1845, having been promoted to the rank of commander, he was ordered to the Pacific in command of the frigate *Congress*, bearing the flag of Commodore Stockton, and in 1846 was transferred to the corvette *Cyane*. The outbreak of the Mexican war brought his services into request. In the *Cyane* he captured San Diego, and landed John C. Fremont. He cleared the Gulf of California of Mexican vessels, capturing and destroying thirty. He took possession of La Paz, the capital of Lower California, spiked the guns of San Blaz, and established the blockade of Mazatlan, which latter port he subsequently assisted in capturing, leading the line of boats which entered the main harbor under the orders of Commodore Shubrick in November, 1847. He was next despatched in the *Cyane* to defend Lower California against the Indians and Mexicans. He covered La Paz until it could be fortified, landed at San José with a force of one hundred marines and sailors, de-

feated and scattered a largely superior force of Mexicans, and rescued a small party under Lieut. Heywood, who were beleaguered in the Mission House. He led or took part in a number of expeditions into the interior, capturing many prisoners and cooperating with Col. Benton and Lieutenant (now Maj.-Gen.) Halleck, approaching from the north, scattered the Mexicans and Indians, and gained complete possession of the peninsula of California. In 1848 he returned to Norfolk in the *Cyane* after an absence of three years. After a service of forty years, sixteen as lieutenant and thirteen as commander, he was made a captain in 1855. In 1857 he was ordered to the command of the *Minnesota*, and sent on a special service to China, with W. B. Reed minister to that empire. After a cruise of two years, during which he visited Japan, Western India, and Arabia, he returned in June, 1859, to Boston, in the *Minnesota*. On January 1, 1861, he was appointed to the command of the Philadelphia navy-yard, relieving Commodore Stewart. Here he was stationed at the commencement of the war, and by his promptitude and experience rendered great service in securing Washington. In June, 1861, he was made president of a Board called at Washington to establish a plan of naval operations from the examination of the records of the coast survey and other data.

On the division of the Atlantic squadron into two distinct commands, in September, 1861, Capt. Du Pont was appointed to the command of the South Atlantic squadron, where he remained until his recall on the 3d of June, 1863. His first enterprise afloat with his squadron was the brilliant bombardment and capture of Forts Beauregard and Walker, at the entrance of Port Royal Harbor, S. C., and the occupation by a joint land and naval force of the islands adjacent. This was justly regarded as one of the finest and most admirably conducted naval conflicts of the war. He also rendered essential service in the establishment of a very close blockade of the coast of Carolina and Georgia; in the occupation of Tybee Roads and Tybee Island, which gave the army their base for the reduction of Fort Pulaski; in the expedition for the destruction of the batteries on the mainland at Port Royal ferry; in the capture in March, 1862, of Cumberland Island and Sound, Amelia Island, the river and town of St. Mary's, Ga., Fernandina, Florida, and Fort Clinch. The inlets along the coast were also occupied or carefully examined, the rivers ascended, Jacksonville and St. Augustine, Florida, taken, and the yacht *America*, which had been sunk, was raised. At Charleston alone the blockade was ineffective, the force at command not being sufficient to cover completely the circuit from the bay to Stono, and the demands upon the navy rendering the reinforcement of the squadron impossible. The capture of Charleston, it was hoped, would complete the blockade, and in April, 1863, a resolute attempt was made, the rear-admiral himself leading the attack to

bombard, and if possible pass Fort Sumter. It failed, one of the iron-clads being sunk and others disabled, and the brave admiral did not feel warranted in renewing the attack. The Secretary of the Navy deeming him distrustful of the iron-clads of the Monitor type, removed him from the command of the squadron, but his successor, with a larger fleet and an efficient coöperative land force, was no more successful.

On the 16th of July, 1862, while in command of the squadron, Capt. Du Pont was made a rear-admiral, ranking second in the list. After his withdrawal from the South Atlantic squadron he held no active command, but served, as occasion required, on naval commissions and courts-martial. He had been active in the gen-

eral improvement of the navy during all his period of service; had assisted in the organization of the Naval Academy, and was a member of the Light House Board; had twice aided in revising the Rules and Regulations of the Navy; was a member of the Naval Retiring Board; and had at various times contributed important papers on subjects relating to the interests of the naval service. Among these one on coast defences has been republished and widely circulated. He was a brave and accomplished sailor, a fearless and greatly beloved commander, an earnest, sincere, and consistent Christian. His death was occasioned by a sudden attack of quincy, a disease to which he had been for some years subject.

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EASTLAKE, Sir CHARLES LOCK, Knight, D.C.L., LL.D., an English painter, president of the Royal Academy, London, born in 1793, at Plymouth, England, died at Florence, Italy, December 24, 1856. He began the pursuit of his artistic studies at an early age under Fuseli at the Royal Academy, of which institution he was made president in 1850, having given evidence of great proficiency in his art by a variety of pictures, of which his "Christ Weeping over Jerusalem," "Escape of Francesco di Carrara," "Pilgrims arriving in sight of Rome," "Christ blessing little Children," "Hagar and Ishmael," and the "Raising of Jairus's Daughter," are the best. Among his early paintings may be mentioned an interesting portrait of Napoleon I., as he appeared on board the Bellerophon, and the most famous of his poetical pictures is an illustration of a passage in Byron's "Dream." Having spent several years in Italy and Greece, he exhibited, in 1828, at the Royal Gallery, views of the bridge and castle of St. Angelo, and other pictures illustrative of Italian life. In 1827 he was elected an associate of the Royal Academy, and in 1830 he attained the rank of Royal Academician. About this time he began to devote himself more especially to religious subjects. In 1841 he was appointed to the office of Secretary to the Royal Commission of Fine Arts, and in 1843 Keeper of the National Gallery. In 1855 Sir Charles Eastlake was appointed Director of the National Gallery. His appointment seems to have left him but little leisure for art, as he has produced but few pictures from his easel for some time past. He did, however, find time to cultivate the literature of the fine arts, a field of labor most congenial to his tastes, and in which his reputation will be more lasting than from his paintings. His notes to "Kugler's Handbooks of Painting," which were translated by Lady Eastlake, are very valuable. His "Contributions to the Literature of the Fine Arts," and his "Materials for a History of Oil Painting," are works of such great utility and merit

as to excite our regrets that their author had not lived to complete the comprehensive work of which they form so admirable a beginning. Like the late Count Cavour, Sir Charles fell a victim to professional prejudice in the adoption of a merciless course of blood-letting, which so completely prostrated him as to destroy the power of taking nourishment.

ECUADOR, a Republic in South America. President (1865 to 1869), Geronimo Carrion. There are three ministerial departments, two of which were, in 1865, filled by Manuel Bustamante, who was regarded as the actual ruler of Ecuador. He is a statesman of decided conservative views. Minister of the United States near the Government of Ecuador, Friedrich Hassaureck (appointed in 1861). The republic is divided into three departments: Guayaquil, Quito, and Assuay; having together an area of 240,000 square miles, and 1,040,371 inhabitants, of whom 600,000 are whites. Capital, Quito, with 76,000 inhabitants. Chief port, Guayaquil. Receipts of the Government in 1858, 991,750 piastres; expenditures, 1,000,000 piastres. The republic has neither a standing army nor a fleet. The value of the exports from the port of Guayaquil amounted, in 1864, to 2,953,649 piastres (chief article of export cocoa, 2,028,000 piastres). The number of ships entering the port of Guayaquil was, in 1864, about 220. In May, 1865, the chiefs of the Democratic party, Urbina, Franco, and Robles, made a new insurrectionary movement, and succeeded in seizing, in the port of Guayaquil, a war-steamer of the Government. They defeated the Government troops, under Col. Lara; but, in June, President Moreno seized a mail-steamer sailing under the British flag, attacked and captured the three small steamers of the insurgents, and put an end to the rebellion. Twenty of the captured rebels, among them Generals Franco, Marcos, and Robles, were shot. The people of Ecuador deeply sympathized with the republics of Chili and Peru in their struggle against Spain.

EUROPE. The only change in the territorial division of Europe which was effected in 1865, was the annexation of the duchy of Lauenburg to Prussia, in consequence of a separate treaty between Prussia and Austria. The fate of Schleswig and Holstein remained in suspense; Prussia assuming, provisionally, the government of Schleswig, and Austria that of Holstein. (*See PRUSSIA and SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.*)

The death of the king of Belgium gave rise to a report of an imminent partition of Belgium between France and Prussia, or France and Holland, but the Government of France disavowed all designs of this kind. (*See BELGIUM.*)

No war disturbed the peace of Europe during the year. There were slight disturbances in Spain and Italy, but these were suppressed without difficulty. In Ireland, considerable excitement was produced by the movements of the Fenian Brotherhood, whose avowed object was the dissolution of the union between England and Ireland, and the establishment of an Irish Republic. The arrest by the English Government of a number of the leaders, among them the Head Centre for Ireland, James Stephens, prevented any outbreak; and the Fenian excitement, after the conclusion of the trial of the prisoners, most of whom were sentenced to long imprisonment, considerably abated.

While, however, the peace of Europe itself was not disturbed, many of the European Powers carried on wars in other parts of the world. Russia continued to extend her territory in Asia; France had to fight in Mexico and against the Algerian insurgents; England had a war in India; Spain was engaged in conflicts with Peru and Chili. The relations of England and France to the United States were more amicable than in former years, and intervention and mediation in view of the approaching end of the rebellion, were no longer mentioned. After the surrender of Gen. Lee, all the Governments of Europe announced that they should no longer acknowledge any belligerent rights of the Confederates. On learning the news of the assassination of President Lincoln, all the Governments officially expressed their condolence with the loss of the United States; still it was evident that the expression of sympathy on the part of the Liberals of Europe was much more cordial than on the part of the Governments.

England, Italy, and Spain elected, in the course of the year, representatives of the people in the lower houses of the Parliaments. In England, the issue was between the Tories on the one hand, and the combined Ministerialists and Radicals, classed together under the name of Liberals, on the other. The majority of the latter during the electoral campaign advocated a reform of the electoral law, and a large extension of the suffrage, as the measure which the country most needed; while the Tories, though most of them admitted the

necessity of a partial reform, severely denounced the principles of democracy, toward which, as they charged, the Liberal party was steadily drifting. The issue of the hot contest was a decisive defeat of the Conservatives. The death of Lord Palmerston, and the accession of Earl Russell to the Premiership, greatly increased the hopes of the Liberal party for a speedy success of the reform movement. In Italy, the "Left," the most progressive of the political parties, succeeded in increasing the number of its members in the House of Deputies from fifty to over one hundred. The "Right," or "Catholic" party, although making the most strenuous efforts, was unsuccessful, counting no more than about one dozen members in the new house. The Government, as before, controlled the majority, though considerably reduced by the success of the "Left." (*See ITALY.*) In Spain, the Progressistas and the Democratic parties abstained again from taking part in the election, which resulted, therefore, in the return of an immense majority for the candidates of the Government. (*See SPAIN.*)

At the municipal elections, which, in July, were held throughout France, the Government of that country abandoned its practice of openly proposing to the people "official" candidates, although it used its influence for the success of its candidates no less vigorously than in the years before. The result of the election did not materially differ from that of the general election in the previous year. In a great majority of the towns, the Government candidates were elected, while the Opposition displayed the same strength as before in the large cities. The Opposition gained a considerable number of votes, and a few members of the Corps Legislatif, at the supplementary elections for members of this body held in 1865. The expectations of internal reform in France were totally disappointed. (*See FRANCE.*) An important victory was gained by the Progressive party of Sweden, which, with the active support of the Government, prevailed upon the Houses of Nobles and the Clergy to consent to a radical constitutional amendment, in virtue of which a legislature composed of two elective Houses, is to take the place of the former four Houses of the Nobles, the Clergy, the Burghers, and the Peasants. (*See SWEDEN.*) In Austria, the Emperor, seeing the impossibility of prevailing upon Hungary and other eastern provinces of the Empire to accept the Constitution of 1851, suspended this Constitution, in order to make an attempt to reconcile the Hungarians by far-reaching concessions. This measure, and those of a like kind that followed it, were received with great dissatisfaction in the German provinces, the Diets of which protested against the Imperial rescript as a violation of the Constitution; while most of the non-German provinces sent to the Emperor addresses of thanks for giving greater guarantees of equal rights to the non-German nationalities of the Empire than they found in

the old Constitution. (*See AUSTRIA and HUNGARY.*) In Prussia, the breach between the King and the people continued as before, without, however, leading to any practical consequence. (*See PRUSSIA.*) The Federal diet of Germany passed several resolutions contrary to the views of Austria and Prussia, but was too timid and powerless to push matters to an open rupture. (*See GERMANY.*) In Russia, the first elective provisional Diets were held. The nobility of several petitioned the Emperor to grant a Constitution of the Empire, embracing a legislature of two Houses; but the Emperor severely censured this movement. (*See RUSSIA.*)

The hope of effecting a telegraphic communication between Europe and America was again doomed to disappointment; but the Atlantic Telegraph Company at once resolved not to relinquish the object; and it has since officially announced that in June, 1866, another effort will be made to raise the old cable, and to lay a new one. The interest in a telegraphic connection of Europe with America is so great that, besides the English-American Company, several new companies have been formed in other countries, to try different routes for the same object. But all of these are likely to be forestalled by the company which has undertaken to connect Eastern Asia with the western coast of North America.

An interesting fact in the commercial history of Europe is the great difference in the movements of shipping of the several countries during the period from 1856 to 1868. Looking at the ratio of increase only, we find Norway at the head of all, having had a total addition to her mercantile navy in the period mentioned of 169,000 tons, or 6 per cent. annually. Next comes Hanover, with a total increase of 45,000 tons, or 6 per cent. annually; Prussia, with a total increase of 105,900, or 5.5 per cent. annually; Hamburg, with a total increase of 66,100 tons, or 5.5 per cent. annually; Bremen, with a total increase of 54,000 tons, or 5.1 per cent. annually; Italy, with a total increase of 153,900 tons, or 4 per cent. annually; Mecklenburg, with a total increase of 33,600 tons, or 4 per cent. annually; Oldenburg, with a total increase of 19,400 tons, or 3.3 per cent. annually; Great Britain, with a total increase of 878,000 tons, or nearly 3 per cent. (2.85 per cent.) annually; Sweden, with a total increase of 44,100 tons, or 2.4 per cent. annually; France, with a total increase of 127,000 tons, or 1.9 per cent. annually; Denmark, with a total increase 43,400 tons, or 1.8 per cent. annually; Spain, with a total increase of 40,000 tons, or 1.4 per cent. annually; Russia, with a total increase of 12,000 tons, or 0.5 per cent. annually; Lubeck, with a total increase of 500 tons, or 0.4 per cent. annually. In contrast to the rapid increase there is a perceptible diminution in the commercial shipping of other nations. The Dutch commercial fleet actually lost, in the same period, a total of 28,100 tons, or 0.7 per cent. annually; Greece lost a total of 3,600 tons, or 1.5

per cent. annually; Austria lost a total of 53,800 tons, or 2 per cent. annually; and Belgium lost a total of 14,800 tons, or 3.6 per cent. annually. By summing up and comparing these several items with each other, it will be found that while in the septennial period mentioned all Europe added 1,980,000 tonnage to the capacity of her mercantile fleet (possessing ships of 11,892,600 tons in 1868, against 9,912,000 in 1856), Prussia and the minor States of Germany augmented their commercial strength by 324,500 tons, against a corresponding increase in Great Britain by 878,000 tons; in Italy, by 153,000 tons; and in France by 127,000 tons. Thus, while the British, German, French, and Italian shipping are on the ascending scale, the Austrian is falling off, and the Russian can be hardly said to be making progress.

The strength of the crews in the various countries is by no means in proportion to the number and size of the ships. Thus England, with her 28,600 vessels, of 5,808,008 tons burden, had 213,900 sailors on board ship in 1863; while Italy, with 16,600 vessels, of 686,000 tons (inclusive of the larger class of fishing-smacks), numbered a sea-faring population of no less than 100,000 men in 1862. Again, France, in 1862, had 62,200 men on board of 15,132 vessels, of 1,044,000 tons (not reckoning 25,000 on 8,250 fishing-smacks); Spain, in 1861, required even 46,900 men to man her 9,707 ships, of 448,000 tons (not reckoning 40,000 men on 10,817 fishing-smacks); while Germany, with the 6,295 vessels, of 1,303,802 tons, she owned in 1864, had employment for 38,100 navigators. It appears from this that on board an English or German ship one man represents about three on board a Spanish. To complete this list, Russia, in 1863, had 8,333 vessels (the greater half Finnish), of 375,000 tons, with 19,400 men.

EVERETT, EDWARD, D. C. L., an American statesman, diplomatist, scholar, and author, born in Dorchester, Mass., April 11, 1794, died in Boston, Mass., January 15, 1865. His father, Rev. Oliver Everett, was a distinguished clergyman in Boston until 1792, when he resigned his pastoral charge on account of ill health, and passed the remainder of his life in the adjacent village of Dorchester. His son, the subject of this sketch, entered Harvard College in 1807, and was graduated with the highest honors, in a class of remarkable promise, at the early age of seventeen. During his academic course, he displayed the same enthusiastic love of literature, and extraordinary powers of execution, which were among the strongly marked features of his character in after life. At this time, he was the principal editor of a magazine called the "Harvard Lyceum," conducted by the under graduates, and containing numerous specimens of his classical research, playful humor, and expressive style. Among his contributions to this periodical was a burlesque on Joel Barlow's "Columbiad," which had recently been brought out in a style of typographical pretension that

was equalled only by the inflated pomp of its phraseology. The fame of the youthful student long lingered round the walls of Harvard, and his name was widely quoted as a prodigy of precocious genius. After leaving college, he was appointed to the office of tutor, which at that period was deemed not the least among the academic honors of his Alma Mater. In connection with the duties of this post, he pursued the study of theology, and in 1818 succeeded the eloquent and greatly admired Buckminster, as pastor of the Brattle Street Church in Boston. His congregation represented the most intelligent and refined circles in that city, and he immediately rose to distinction as an eloquent and impressive pulpit orator. Less than twenty years of age, his almost juvenile presence and singular youthful beauty formed a strange contrast to the maturity and wisdom of his thoughts, the classic elegance of his style, and the chaste gravity of his elocution. During the next year he published a "Defence of Christianity," in reply to a young man named English who had obtained a certain notoriety by renouncing the Christian faith while studying for the ministry, and making a profession of Judaism. The work of Mr. Everett was received with a wonder and delight which at this day it is difficult to imagine, but the tradition of which is unimpaired in the literary history of New England. It was remarkable for its prodigious array of Biblical and philological learning, its frequent use of the researches of German theologians, whose names had then scarcely been heard of in this country, and its occasional passages of tender and pathetic eloquence.

In the same year he was elected Eliot Professor of Greek literature in Harvard College, and in order to qualify himself more fully for the duties of the office, he entered upon an extended course of European travel and study. After four years' residence at some of the principal universities and capitals of Europe, during which time he had pursued an extensive range of study, embracing the ancient classics, the modern languages, the history and principles of the civil law and public law, together with the political systems of Europe, he returned to Cambridge in the year 1819. His accession to the academic staff gave an almost incredible impulse to the students of the University; his appearance was hailed as a new and splendid light in the literary horizon, "another morn risen on mid noon;" his lectures in the branch of learning to which his professorship was devoted, and his Sunday discourses in the college chapel, produced a sensation almost unprecedented in the annals of purely didactic eloquence. During the same year, he took charge of "The North American Review," which he conducted till 1824, in the summer of which year he delivered his celebrated Phi Beta Kappa oration, to an immense audience at Cambridge, including Gen. Lafayette, who was then in the midst of his triumphant progress through the United States. The subject of this oration was, "The circum-

stances favorable to the progress of Literature in America." The oration, both in its matter and the eloquence of its delivery, was well worthy of the fame of the rising orator. A writer in the "Christian Examiner" of November, 1850, thus describes the effects it produced upon the audience: "The sympathies of his audience went with him in a rushing stream as he painted in glowing hues the political, social, and literary future of our country. They drank with thirsty ears his rapid generalizations and his sparkling rhetoric. The whole assembly put on one countenance of admiration and assent. As with skilful and flying hands the orator ran over the chords of national pride and patriotic feeling, every bosom throbbed in unison to his touch; and when the fervid declamation of the concluding paragraph was terminated by the simple pathos of the personal address to Lafayette, his hearers were left in a state of emotion far too deep for tumultuous applause."

This was the first of a series of discourses pronounced by Mr. Everett on public occasions during the next forty years, embracing every variety of topic connected with our national history, character, and prospects, and which combine in an eminent degree the peculiar charm of popular oratory with those substantial merits of thought and style which do not shrink from the cold criticism of the closet.

In 1824, Mr. Everett commenced his political career as member of Congress from Middlesex, in which district he resided for many years. By several reëlections he served ten years in the national House of Representatives, and during the whole period he held the important post of member of the Committee on Foreign Affairs; and in the Twentieth Congress, though belonging to the minority in politics, he was appointed chairman of that committee by the Democratic Speaker, Mr. Stevenson, of Virginia. During nearly the whole of his Congressional course he was placed on the most important select committees, and in every instance was appointed to draw up the majority or minority report.

Among the important topics which he thus discussed in his reports, and some of which he subsequently handled with great ability in the pages of the "North American Review," were—the question of the Panama Mission, the minority report of the Retrenchment Committee, the Georgia Controversy (in which he took strong grounds in favor of the Indians), the minority report of the Bank Investigating Committee, the minority report of the Committee on Foreign Relations on the Controversy with France in the spring of 1835, two or three reports on the French Spoliation Claims, some letters to Mr. Canning in 1827, on the Colonial Trade, and a full discussion of the South Carolina doctrine of nullification. This subject was subsequently, in October, 1830, further handled with great ability in the "North American Review."

In the autumn of 1834 he declined a renomination to Congress, and was chosen Governor

of Massachusetts by a large majority at the ensuing election. He was afterwards thrice re-elected, holding the executive office for four years. In 1839 he was defeated by Mr. Morton, the Democratic candidate, by a majority of one vote.

In June, 1840, he sailed with his family for Europe, and passed the summer in France, and the following winter in Florence and its vicinity. He had intended to pass another winter in Italy, but the election of General Harrison to the Presidency, and Mr. Webster's selection as Secretary of State, led to his appointment to the post of Minister Plenipotentiary to Great Britain. Our relations with the British Government at this time were less cordial than they had been. The Northeastern Boundary question, which had long been a matter of controversy, had reached a stage in which war seemed inevitable. The recent burning of the *Caroline*, and the arrest of McLeod, had produced great irritation on both sides of the Atlantic. The case of the *Creole*, and questions connected with Oregon and Texas, were also adding bitterness to the public feeling. In addition to this, American vessels had been seized and detained by British cruisers on the coast of Africa. On all these questions, except the Northeastern boundary, which was transferred to Washington by the appointment of Lord Ashburton as special ambassador, Mr. Everett was left to negotiate with the British Foreign Secretary, without special instructions, and all of them were managed with consummate ability, the interests of his own country protected, and at the same time the respect and confidence of the English Government secured. In his discussion of the construction of the first article of the convention, between the two countries on the subject of the fisheries he obtained for American fishermen the long-disputed right to take fish in the bay of Fundy, and procured at various times, and in spite of great obstacles, the release of between sixty and seventy American citizens who had been sent to the penal colony of Van Diemen's Land on conviction of their participation in the Canadian rebellion. Notwithstanding the unpleasant state of feeling which existed when he entered upon his duties, and the gravity of the questions which he was called to discuss with the British Foreign Secretary, Mr. Everett was unquestionably the most popular minister who had ever represented the United States near the Court of St. James. His thorough culture, his accomplished manners, and his eloquence, caused him to be very generally admired. The University of Oxford conferred on him the honorary degree of D. C. L., and learned societies in great numbers enrolled him as an associate. In 1843 President Tyler offered him the post of Commissioner to China, with a view to establishing commercial relations with that vast empire, but his health and other considerations compelled him to decline. In 1845 he returned to the United States, and accepted the appointment of President of Har-

vard College. His administration of this eminent post was not attended with any considerable success. He failed to win the sympathies of the students. His manners were too formal and reserved for the taste of the "ingenuous youth" under his charge; his sensitive temperament presented a perpetual bait to the spirit of juvenile mischief; his health declined under the annoyances of the situation, and at the close of three years he retired in weariness and disgust from an office for which, it would have seemed, he possessed the most express and admirable qualifications.

Mr. Everett gave a portion of his leisure, after resigning the presidency of the college, to the preparation of a collected edition of his orations and speeches, which appeared in two volumes 8vo, in 1850. He also superintended the publication of the new edition of the works of Mr. Webster, at his special request, and prepared an elaborate memoir, which was prefixed to the first volume. Upon the death of Mr. Webster, in 1852, he was invited by President Fillmore to accept the vacant place of Secretary of State, which office he held during the last four months of Mr. Fillmore's administration, months of intense labor and of great anxiety. In these four months, aside from the ordinary duties of the department, he adjusted the perplexing affairs of the *Crescent City Steamer* and the *Lobos Islands*, prosecuted with energy the difficult negotiations pertaining to the fisheries, concluded an international copyright convention with Great Britain, and a consular convention with France, and in a diplomatic note of great ability declined the proposition of Great Britain and France to enter into a tripartite convention guaranteeing to Spain in perpetuity the exclusive possession of Cuba. In March, 1853, he took his seat in the United States Senate, to which he had been elected before leaving the Department of State, and made an able and elaborate speech on the Central American question. During the summer he replied to Lord John Russell's protest against the doctrines asserted by the United States Government, in his note declining the tripartite convention, and spoke several times in opposition to the proposed new Constitution of Massachusetts. At the opening of the regular session of Congress, Mr. Everett was in his place, and on the 8th of February made an able speech in opposition to the Nebraska-Kansas bill. His health was, however, seriously impaired, and in May, 1854, under the imperative advice of his physician, he resigned his seat in the Senate. A few months of rest and quiet restored him, and having been called to prepare for the *Encyclopædia Britannica* a life of Washington, subsequently published in one volume in this country (New York, 1860), he availed himself of the thorough and careful investigations made for that purpose to prepare an address on the character of Washington. The project of purchasing Mount Vernon for the General Government, by a private subscription, had then been

recently started, and Mr. Everett entered into it with great enthusiasm. He delivered his address on Washington in the different cities and towns of the United States, nearly one hundred and fifty times, consecrating to this object the entire proceeds of his efforts, giving his time and expenses freely for the purpose. He also turned to the same channel the proceeds of a series of articles written by him for the "New York Ledger," amounting to \$10,000. The entire amount thus raised by his exertions for this object exceeded \$100,000.

In 1857 and 1858 he donated to the Boston Provident Association and other charitable associations of Boston the proceeds of some other lectures, amounting to \$13,500; in 1858 his eulogy on Thomas Dowse, yielded to the Dowse Institute, and the Massachusetts Historical Society, about \$1,500, and his address on the "Early Days of Franklin," several times repeated, produced about \$4,000 for the Association of Franklin Medallists. He took an active interest in the establishment of the Boston City Public Library, and made to it at different times large donations of judiciously selected books, as well as money contributions.

In 1860 Mr. Everett was nominated for the Vice-Presidency on the ticket with John Bell, of Tennessee, for President, but was defeated. While peace seemed possible, and negotiation and compromise had some hope of winning the day and averting the threatened war, Mr. Everett, by constitutional as well as by personal inclination intensely conservative, sought the things that belonged to peace. But when war came, his course was such as at once to excite the grateful admiration of the friends of the Union. Forgetting his old timorousness, unseduced by the example of cherished personal friends and political associates, he did not hesitate for a moment to throw the weight of his resplendent talents, his public influence, his political learning, his captivating eloquence, on the side of our national integrity and emancipation. In spite of the deepest personal sympathies with the South, with a warm appreciation of the charm in character and manners of so many of the inhabitants of that sunny, impulsive region, and with lively recollections of their enticing hospitalities and flattering tributes to a pardonable self-love, his allegiance to the North never wavered for an instant.

Throwing his whole soul into the cause with a warmth and fervor unknown even to his younger days, he advocated it in tones of soul-stirring eloquence. In all the principal cities of the North, as well as on the heights of Gettysburg after their baptism of fire and blood, he thrilled his audiences with the flame of his own patriotism. It was as a slight token of appreciation of his manifold labors in behalf of his country, that the majority in Massachusetts placed his name in the Presidential election of 1864 at the head of their electoral ticket as an elector at large; and the depositing of his vote in the Massachusetts Electoral College for Abra-

ham Lincoln, was the closing act of his political life. It is said that he had devoted the leisure of many years to the preparation of an elaborate work on the principles of international law, but that the work was left incomplete at his death.

His death was very sudden, and preceded by no severe illness. He addressed his fellow-citizens at Faneuil Hall on Monday, January 9th, in aid of sending provisions to Savannah for the relief of the suffering inhabitants, and during the afternoon of that day was present in court, in reference to a claim for damages against the city of Charlestown, for overflowing a portion of his estate in Medford, by constructing a dam in Mystic River. On Tuesday he became affected with a very severe cold, but neither his friends nor himself deemed it serious. Saturday evening he appeared about as well as usual, and retired to bed, declining to trouble any one to remain with him. About three o'clock Sunday morning, January 15th, his housekeeper entered his room and found him sleeping naturally. An hour later she was alarmed by hearing a heavy fall in his room, and found him lying on the floor, breathing heavily. A physician was promptly summoned, but before his arrival Mr. Everett died.

On the receipt of the telegraphic despatch announcing his death, President Lincoln caused the following announcement to be published:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, Jan. 15, 1865.

The President directs the undersigned to perform the painful duty of announcing to the people of the United States, that Edward Everett, distinguished not more by learning and eloquence than by unsurpassed and disinterested labors of patriotism, at a period of political disorder, departed this life at four o'clock this morning. The several Executive Departments of the Government will cause appropriate honors to be rendered to the memory of the deceased at home and abroad, wherever the national name and authority are acknowledged.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD.

Few of our public men have filled a larger space in the world of politics, or the brotherhood of letters. Of a reserved and fastidious turn of mind, of a singularly sensitive temperament, shy, almost to coldness, in the expression of personal feeling, with the timidity which proceeds from delicacy of organization, and a spirit of excessive caution and forecast, and a constitutional aversion to extremes both in the sphere of thought and of action, he was little fitted by nature or habit for the stormier scenes of politics, the rude strife of parliamentary debate, or the adroit and ready tactics of an unscrupulous party leader. His native tastes and endowments inclined him to a life of purely intellectual and æsthetic pursuits; he was more at home in the "quiet and still air of delightful studies" than amid the throng and pressure of practical affairs; with the exception of strictly abstract and metaphysical discussions, there was no branch of literature in which his capacity would not have enabled him to become a master; and there were few, in which both his aptitudes and his attainments did not entitle him to a highly honorable distinction. In

the field of poetry, history, criticism, classical learning, popular eloquence, he possessed abilities, which if exclusively directed to a single object of ambition, would have given him a brilliant preëminence; no department of what is somewhat loosely called polite letters, was foreign to his nature; and in several of the higher spheres of intellectual activity he was probably without a rival among the ablest and most distinguished men of the past or present generation. He certainly lacked the force of character which qualifies a man to guide and mould the opinions of his fellows; with a genuine love of progress, it is no paradox to say that he combined a dread of innovation; he shrunk before the ghosts of public rumor; his trust in principle was even modified by his mistrust of consequences; with a want of the enthusiasm, the personal magnetism, the free, spontaneous abandonment to the genial impulses of the moment, which make ardent friends, he was annoyed with the perpetual fear of making enemies. He carried his kindness of manner, his spirit of conciliation, his deference to prevailing prejudices, his love of complimentary allusions, to the very verge of sincerity; it was hard for him to make up his mind to call a bad thing, or a false idea, by its right name; and even in the defence of vital public interests, he trembled before the audacious or the subtle assaults of his antagonists; he was too fond of granting concessions for the sake of peace. The great error of his life, in this respect, and one from which he never fully recovered in the esteem of many, was his memorable apology for slavery in his maiden speech on the floor of Congress, which called forth the expression of such withering scorn from Mr. Randolph, and which clung, like a plague-spot, to his garments.

In his personal habits, Mr. Everett was a model of industry, promptness, and power of easy and rapid execution. He never forgot an appointment, nor neglected a duty. In the performance of his literary tasks he was as punctual as the rising of the sun. Though essentially scholastic in his habits, no man had a clearer head or a readier hand in the routine of practical affairs. With his love of elegant retirement, he exercised a devotion to detail, which would seem marvellous to persons who are not aware how largely this element enters into the conditions of success, and even of greatness, in every department of life. His handwriting, which he formed when a school-boy, and retained to old age, was as lucid and beautiful as copper-plate. The act of composition cost him little effort at the time, although the fruit of years of thought and study, and the manual process of writing, stamped his most ornate and exquisite productions indelibly upon his memory. His manners were polished and courtly, though wanting the subtle grace of natural sympathy. He was not a man of quick or strong emotions, unless he apprehended some rude invasion of his fastidious personality. He was alert in resenting a fancied injury or insult, or even an unfavorable criticism, and the comments of hostile tongues would sometimes affect him even to tears. He loved the approval of indifferent persons too much for his own happiness, perhaps for his own dignity, although his sensitiveness to public opinion strengthened his habits of self-command, and made him, in all the relations of life, a paragon of external propriety. He will be regarded as one of the most highly gifted and admirably cultivated men of the present age, but he has left no monument which will furnish an adequate memorial of his genius to future generations.

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FENIAN BROTHERHOOD. This is the name of an organization of persons born in Ireland, which exists in the United States, the British Provinces of North America, Ireland, and elsewhere. It commenced about 1857, in an organization known as the Emmet Monument Association. The pith of the name consists in the fact that Robert Emmet, an Irish revolutionist, when about to be executed in 1803, asked of his countrymen, that no monument might be erected to his memory until his country should have become free of British thralldom. An association, therefore, which proposed to build a monument to Emmet on Irish soil, implied an effort for the overthrow of the British power in Ireland. The name of Fenian was subsequently adopted, being recognized by Irishmen as relating to the period in which their ancestors were most prosperous, happy, and independent. The most active agent, in creating the organization, was John O'Mahony,

the head, at present, of the order in the United States. Little, however, was accomplished previous to 1859, when it became developed in its present form, and began to extend both in Ireland and North America.

The organization, especially in the United States, is formed on scientific principles. Nothing better could be devised for bringing into action the highest efficiency of its members. The lowest detail consists of a Local Circle of not less than sixty members, when a commission is granted by the State Centre, which also authorizes the Circle to send a delegate to the next Fenian Congress. The Circle numbering sixty, its members elect a permanent Centre, who, if approved by the State Centre and Head Centre, will then be approved and confirmed by the latter. These Centres, on a certain day of each month, make out in duplicate full reports of all their proceedings, receipts, and disbursements, increase or decrease of members

etc. One copy is sent to the State Centre, and the other forwarded for file and comparison to the Head Centre's headquarters. Any circle failing to report for three months will be set down as "in bad standing," and will be cut off from connection unless full and satisfactory explanations are forwarded. The initiation fees of each Circle are not less than one dollar—many rich and patriotic members having volunteered as high as five hundred dollars; and the weekly dues of each member not less than ten cents—about fifty cents per month being the average actually paid in by each member. Candidates for membership must be proposed by one Fenian brother and seconded by another. Their names and evidence as to their good moral character are then submitted to the Committee of Safety of each Circle, this committee consisting of not less than three nor more than seven of the most discreet and trustworthy members of the Circle. This committee is nominated by the Centre of each Circle, but must be approved by a majority vote of all the members; and its report on each candidate for admission must be submitted, for acceptance or rejection, to a regular meeting of the Circle. If the candidate for admission be accepted, he then, if in the United States, is only asked to make the following declaration: "I solemnly pledge my sacred word of honor, as a truthful and honest man, that I will labor with earnest zeal for the liberation of Ireland from the yoke of England, and for the establishment of a free and independent government on the Irish soil; that I will implicitly obey the commands of my superior officers in the Fenian Brotherhood in all things appertaining to my duties as a member thereof; that I will faithfully discharge my duties of membership as laid down in the constitution and by-laws thereof; that I will do my utmost to promote feelings of love, harmony, and kindly forbearance among all Irishmen; and that I will foster, defend, and propagate the aforesaid Fenian Brotherhood to the utmost of my power." All political discussions as to any but Irish national affairs are peremptorily excluded from the deliberations of Circles; while religious discussions of any kind are excluded altogether. Centres of Circles correspond with State Centres; State Centres with the Head Centre. All correspondence with the brothers in Ireland, the Canadas, or elsewhere in foreign parts, has to pass through the Head Centre—the Head Centre and Central Council know the true names and addresses of the officers of the "I. R. B.," or Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood, and other brotherhoods in Ireland, the Canadas, and elsewhere. Members of the "I. R. B." coming from Ireland, must first be certified by the Head Centre, to whom they shall show their credentials as brothers in good standing when they left their native land. The names of all Fenian brothers expelled for perfidy, are sent by the Head Centre to all State Centres, these latter communicating them to all their

subordinate Centres of Circles. When brothers are about changing their localities of residence, they must procure, for a trifling fee, letters of introduction from the Centre of their late Circle to the Circle they are about joining. If these are in different States, the introduction must be avouched as correct by the State Centres as well. The decision of the Head Centre, approved by a majority of the Central Council, is absolute upon all points within the association. Each State Centre of the order is appointed and commissioned by the Head Centre, on the recommendation of a majority of the delegates from the various Circles in the State entitled to vote. The Head Centre, however, has power to reject such nominations, being responsible to the next annual Congress for his action; and with the assent of the Central Council may even remove such State Centres as may be agreed upon, and appoint other and more trustworthy men in their places. The State Centres are charged with establishing District Centres and organizing Circles in their respective States or Territories, settling all minor disputes and reporting twice a month to the Head Centre the progress, numbers, and financial condition of their charges. The chief officer of the order in the United States, as in other countries, is called the Head Centre. He is elected annually by a general Congress, composed of the various State Centres, *ex officio*, and one delegate from each Circle in good standing, containing not less than one hundred members, with one additional delegate from each.

Previous to the reorganization of the Brotherhood in the United States, in 1865, the Head Centre was assisted by a Central Council of Ten, who were nominated by himself, but must be confirmed by a Congress of the order. The same mode of appointment was adopted for the Treasurers and Secretaries. The Central Council elected its own President and other officers. It had the power to call conventions of all State Centres, or a general Congress in case of emergency. These bodies had the power to impeach or remove any officer. The Council also were required to audit and approve all financial transactions of the Brotherhood, and to report once a year to each session of the Fenian Congress.

The first Congress of the order was held in Chicago in November, 1863, and the second in Cincinnati in January, 1865. The Congress at Chicago consisted of nearly two hundred delegates. They reformed the constitution of the order, and more boldly avowed its designs, and rendered it an open organization. In January 1865, the membership had so greatly increased as to number about the following Circles: Connecticut, 8; California, 13; Delaware, 3; Indiana, 29; Illinois, 26; Iowa, 15; Kentucky, 8; Kansas, 3; Louisiana, 1; Missouri, 9; Montana Territory, 2; Maine, 3; Michigan, 9; Minnesota, 3; Massachusetts, 65; Nevada, 3; New Hampshire, 9; New York State, 41, and in District of Manhattan (New York city), 26.

New Jersey, 5; Ohio, 22; Oregon, 8; Pennsylvania, 27; Rhode Island, 10; Tennessee, 4; Vermont, 6; Wisconsin, 11; Army and Navy, 15—the Fenians of this latter naval and military class numbered about 14,620. The membership of the Circles ranged from sixty to nearly five hundred, and that of the order at that time was estimated at 80,000 in good standing. At the session of the Congress in January, standing committees were appointed on Military Affairs, on Foreign Affairs, on Ways and Means, on Government and By-laws, and on Fenians in Ireland. About the same time a Fenian Sisterhood was established, which promises to include large numbers.

Another Congress of the Brotherhood assembled in Philadelphia in September, 1865, at which a new constitution was adopted after the model of the Constitution of the United States. Its design, stated in the preamble, is to secure the blessings of liberty for the Irish race in Ireland. Its members shall consist of citizens of the United States of Irish birth and lineage, and Irishmen and friends of Ireland living on the American continent, and in the provinces of the British Empire wherever situated. No change is made in the general pledge above mentioned, by which its members are bound together. The Brotherhood is subdivided into State, District, and Social Circles as previously. The Congress consists of a Senate and House, composed of one delegate for every hundred members of a Circle, more or less, but none less than ten, and an additional delegate for every fraction above fifty. The Senate consists of fifteen members, nominated by a committee of two from each State and district, elected by the delegates of each State and district in Congress assembled. One of their number must be chosen President of their body; he then becomes Vice-President of the Brotherhood. The Senate meet in perpetual session while in office, and organize within two days after their election, and adjourn from time to time.

The Executive power is placed in the hands of a President elected annually by the Congress. He nominates, and the Senate elects, secretaries of Military Affairs, of the Treasury, of Naval Affairs, and of Civil Affairs. In the same manner an agent of the Irish Republic and Subscription agent are appointed. The President and Senate make arrangements and treaties with persons or powers friendly to the objects of the Brotherhood, and appoint envoys and ambassadors; and "the President, Vice-President, and all civil officers shall be removed from office and expelled, on impeachment for and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes or misdemeanors." The details of the organizations under the new constitution are such as have been stated above.

After the adjournment of the Congress public offices were opened by the officers of the Brotherhood in New York, and an issue of bonds commenced. A difficulty subsequently ensued between the Senate and President which pro-

duced an apparent division in the order. It was ultimately healed so far as not to interfere with the great objects in view.

While the Congress was in session at Philadelphia, an application was made to the President for the release of Mr. John Mitchell, an Irish revolutionist who had been enlisted in the cause of the Confederate States. Col. Roberts, the envoy of the Congress, thus addressed President Johnson:

MR. PRESIDENT: I have the honor of being delegated by the convention of Irish-American citizens, assembled in Philadelphia, representing large social classes in thirty States and territories, to wait upon your Excellency and express to you how deeply they feel the act restoring to freedom a man whom they love and venerate for his self-sacrificing devotion to his native land. They remember nothing of John Mitchell's American career. They can never forget that he risked all a patriot should for Ireland. I am sure, your Excellency, the American people will have no cause to regret the sympathy they feel, and the friendship we believe they entertain for their fellow-citizens of Irish birth. We, sir, are not unconscious of the fact, that we have found in America, liberty, justice, and an asylum.

President Johnson replied in substance as follows:

GENTLEMEN: I am glad to learn that the steps which have been taken in the matter referred to, have met with the approval of the gentlemen who have sent you here. As you, sir, delicately remarked, we could not remember Mr. Mitchell's American career; but we were anxious, as a mark of respect and compliment to the large section of our countrymen with whom Mr. Mitchell was previously identified, to yield to their expressed wishes in that regard.

The part of the organization existing in Ireland is known under the initials I. R. B., or Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood. It is, from the necessity of the case, secret and oath-bound, it being treason against the ruling, or British government. Its secrecy is so successfully contrived as to have defied, thus far, with success, the spies and the gold of the government; and its organization is unshaken in consequence of its inviolable secrecy. Its members in Ireland are required to be able-bodied men, who are sworn into military service and secretly drilled as soldiers, for which purpose teachers, it is supposed, have been supplied from among the Irish soldiers in the United States. The numerical strength of the Fenians in Ireland is represented as formidable, when compared with the numbers which England and Scotland could add to the British army. The military resources and the strength of numbers must be contributed by the Brotherhood in other countries. England's hour of distress is designed to be Ireland's opportunity. Of the organization in Canada, or in the other British possessions, little is publicly known. They have served to awaken apprehension and increased watchfulness among the local authorities.

The organization of such an extensive conspiracy to wrest from the British crown the third member of its kingdom, early excited the apprehensions of the government. During the year soldiers were sent into Ireland, and the con-

stabulary force increased. A state of martial law was created in some counties; suspected persons were arrested, among whom was James Stephens, the Head Centre, as it appears, not only in Ireland, but of the whole Brotherhood. Notwithstanding the vigilance of the keepers, Stephens quietly disappeared from prison, and the utmost efforts of the government have failed to discover the place of his concealment or to detect his accomplices. Searches were also made, and arms discovered and prisoners arraigned for trial, but nothing occurred during the year to change the attitude of the government and the Brotherhood. In the British Provinces some apprehensions of an invasion by Fenians from the United States, caused the militia, on two or three occasions, to be placed under arms and ordered to the place of the anticipated attacks. But the apprehensions proved groundless.

FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The current receipts and expenditures of the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1865, were partly stated and partly estimated by the Secretary of the Treasury (Mr. Fessenden) in his annual report to Congress under date of December, 1864. The actual receipts for the first quarter of that year, ending September 30, 1864, were as follows:

Receipts.

From Customs.....	\$19,271,091 96
From Lands.....	842,185 84
From Direct Tax.....	16,079 96
From Internal Revenue.....	46,562,869 92
From miscellaneous sources.....	9,020,171 44

\$75,212,889 09

Add balance in the Treasury July 1, 1864.... 18,842,568 71

Receipts from all sources except loans.....\$94,054,947 78

The expenditures during the same first quarter were as follows:

Expenditures.

For the civil service.....	\$9,712,422 51
Pensions and Indians.....	4,935,179 81
War Department.....	238,900,288 59
Navy Department.....	88,292,916 49
Interest on public debt.....	19,921,064 48

Total.....\$358,061,861 81

The estimates for the remaining three quarters of the same fiscal year, ending June 30, 1865, were as follows:

Receipts estimated.

From Customs.....	\$51,000,000 00
From Internal Revenue.....	208,000,000 00
From Lands.....	800,000 00
From miscellaneous sources.....	15,000,000 00

\$286,800,000 00

Total receipts from ordinary sources, actual and estimated, with balance on hand, July 1, 1864.....\$368,854,947 78

Expenditures estimated.

For the civil service.....	\$28,892,469 47
Pensions and Indians.....	6,516,585 73
War Department.....	677,419,854 59
Navy Department.....	109,980,644 16
Interest on public debt.....	71,839,160 70

\$692,667,274 44

Total expenditure, actual and estimated.....\$1,245,739,135 75

Expenditures brought forward.....\$1,245,739,135 75
From this amount there was deducted an unexpended balance of appropriations of former years.....\$850,000,000 00

Leaving total expenditure, actual and estimated.....\$395,729,135 75

The actual receipts and expenditures from the ordinary sources of revenue during the fiscal year, exceeded the estimates as follows:

Receipts.

Balance in the Treasury July 1, 1864, agreeably to warrants*.....	\$96,789,906 78
From Customs.....	4,925,280 60
From Lands.....	996,558 81
From Direct Tax.....	1,200,573 08
From Internal Revenue.....	209,464,215 25
From miscellaneous sources.....	82,978,284 47

Total.....\$426,907,793 89

Expenditure.

For civil service.....	\$44,766,559 12
Pensions and Indians.....	14,253,575 88
War Department.....	1,081,828,880 79
Navy Department.....	122,567,176 12
Interest on public debt.....	77,897,712 00

Total.....\$1,390,812,963 41

These were the results of the ordinary sources of revenue and expenditures during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1865. It was the estimate of the Secretary in December, 1864, that it would be necessary to provide by loans the sum of \$570,727,508.11 for the year ending July 1, 1865. The heavy expenditures of that fiscal year were the result of the gigantic scale on which the war was prosecuted during a portion of the year, and the payment of officers and men mustered out of the service.

The action of Congress providing means for the Treasury consisted in the passage of a revised act for raising internal revenue on March 3, 1865; also on the same date an act further revising the duties on imports; also on the same date the passage of an act authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to borrow any sum, in addition to the amounts previously authorized, not exceeding \$600,000,000, to be issued in Treasury notes or bonds, of which the latter were to be 5.40s, and the former convertible into bonds. The rate of interest was six per cent. in coin, or $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in currency. Previously, on January 25th, an act was passed authorizing the Secretary to issue Treasury notes for the balance of \$400,000,000 of bonds not issued, which were authorized by an act of June 30, 1864. According to the report of Secretary Fessenden, there were to be added to the resources for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1865, balances remaining from previous loans authorized; that is, on July 1, 1864, there still remained authority to borrow the following amounts:

* The actual balance in the Treasury July 1, 1864, as stated by Secretary Fessenden, was \$18,842,568.71. But in his report there was excluded from the public debt the sum of \$77,897,847.02, which amount had been paid out of the Treasury, but had not been reimbursed to the Treasurer by warrants, and was not reimbursed until after the commencement of the next fiscal year. This explains the difference between \$18,842,568.71, assumed in that report as the balance in the Treasury July 1, 1864, and \$96,789,906.78, the balance according to the warrant account.

1. Under the act of March 8, 1863, so much of \$75,000,000 advertised previously to June 30, 1864, as had not been awarded to bidders, \$32,459,700 00	
2. Under act of March 8, 1864, as had not been subscribed for and paid into the Treasury, viz:.....	127,608,590 00
3. Under the act of June 30, 1864.....	400,000,000 00
4. Amount of Treasury notes issued under former acts which had been redeemed and cancelled, and which the Secretary was authorized to replace by notes issued under the act of June 30, 1864.....	62,191,400 00
Total available resources July 1, 1864, under laws authorizing loans.....	\$622,334,625 00

These were the extraordinary resources of the Treasury existing or specially provided during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1865, and designed to defray the expenditures not only of that fiscal year but of so much of the ensuing one as elapsed previous to the meeting of Congress in December, 1865.

Under the act authorizing the issue of \$600,000,000, the Secretary issued during the month of March \$70,000,000 of notes payable three years after date, and bearing an interest payable semi-annually in currency at the rate of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum, and convertible at maturity, at the pleasure of the holders, into 5.20 gold-bearing bonds.

Upon the capture of Richmond and the surrender of the Confederate armies, it became apparent that there would be an early disbanding of the forces of the United States, and consequently heavy requisitions from the War Department for transportation and payment of the army, including bounties. As it was important that these requisitions should be promptly met, the Secretary perceived the necessity of realizing as speedily as possible the amount, \$530,000,000, still authorized to be borrowed under this act. The $7\frac{1}{2}$ notes had proved to be a popular loan; and although a security on longer time and lower interest would have been more advantageous to the Government, he considered it advisable to continue to offer these notes to the public. By the skill and energy of the agent, Jay Cooke, and the hearty coöperation of the national banks, these notes were distributed in every part of the Northern, and some parts of the Southern States, and placed within the reach of every person desiring to invest in them. No loan ever offered in the United States, notwithstanding the large amount of Government securities previously taken by the people, was so promptly subscribed for as this. Before the first of August the entire amount of \$530,000,000 had been taken, and the Secretary had the unexpected satisfaction of being able, with the receipts from customs and internal revenue, and a small increase of the temporary loan, to meet all the requisitions upon the Treasury.

On \$280,000,000 of these notes the Government has the option of paying the interest at the rate of six per cent. in coin, instead of $7\frac{1}{2}$ in currency. The Secretary says "he thought it advisable to reserve this option, because he indulged the hope that before their maturity specie payments would be restored," and be-

cause six per cent. in coin is as high a rate of interest as the Government should pay on any of its obligations.

During the fiscal year the entire receipts from extraordinary sources were as follows:

From loans applicable to expenditures.....	\$364,503,499 17
From loan applied to payment of public debt,	607,361,241 68
	\$1,472,224,740 35
From ordinary sources above stated and balance on hand.....	494,807,792 38
Total receipts of all kinds to July 1, 1865,	\$1,967,032,532 74

Besides the ordinary expenditures above stated was added a sum of \$607,361,241.68 for the redemption of that amount of public debt; thus making the total expenditures \$1,897,674,224.09, and leaving a balance in the Treasury on July 1, 1865, of \$858,309.15.

The items of the increase and decrease of the public debt for the fiscal year 1865 were as follows:

Amount of public debt June 30, 1865.....	\$2,692,599,094 38
Do. do. June 30, 1864.....	1,740,090,458 49
Total increase.....	\$941,902,537 04
Which increase was caused as follows, by—	
Bonds, 6 per cent., act July 17, 1861.....	\$29,799,500 00
Bonds, 6 per cent., act Feb. 25, 1862.....	4,000,000 00
Bonds, 6 per cent., act March 8, 1863.....	82,327,726 66
Bonds, 6 per cent., act June 30, 1864.....	91,789,000 00
	\$157,916,226 66
Bonds, 5 cent., act March 8, 1864.....	99,452,800 00
Bonds, 6 per cent., acts July 1, 1863, and July 2, 1864, issued to Central Pacific Railroad Co., interest payable in lawful money, Treasury notes, 7-30, acts June 30, 1864, and March 8, 1865, interest payable in lawful money.....	1,253,000 00
Compound interest notes, 6 per cent., act June 30, 1864, \$178,756,090 00	
Temporary loan, 6 per cent., act July 11, 1862.....	17,836,869 96
	196,142,949 96
United States notes, acts Feb. 25, 1862, July 11, 1863, and Jan. 17, 1863.....	1,500,295 16
Fractional currency, act March 3, 1863.....	7,863,096 33
Gross increase.....	\$1,135,232,930 68
From which deduct for payments—	
Bonds, 6 per cent., act July 21, 1843.....	\$1,400 00
Treasury notes, 6 per cent., acts Dec. 28, 1857, and March 3, 1861.....	153,800 00
Bonds, 5 per cent., act Sept. 9, 1850, (Texas indemnity)....	1,807,000 00
Treasury notes, 7-30, act July 17, 1861.....	80,212,800 00
Certificates of indebtedness, 6 per cent., act March 1, 1862.....	44,957,000 00
Treasury notes, 5 per cent., 1 and 3 year, act March 3, '63, 111,132,740 00	
United States notes, act July 17, 1861, and Feb. 12, 1862.....	803,896 25
Postal currency act, July 17, 1862.....	5,352,147 84
	\$198,529,759 09
Net increase.....	\$941,902,537 04
The amount of the public debt on October 31, 1865, without deducting funds in the Treasury, was.....	\$2,508,548,437 08
Do. January 1, 1866.....	2,507,816,367 09
Decrease.....	\$1,239,059 09

A part of this debt consisted of currency or United States notes used as a circulating medium and fractional currency, as follows:

United States Notes, Jan. 30, 1864.....	\$431,173,670 84
" " " " 1865.....	432,637,966 00
" " Oct. 30, 1865.....	433,190,569 00
" " Jan. 1, 1866.....	426,231,339 75

The amounts of fractional currency outstanding at the same dates were as follows:

Fractional and postal currency June 30, 1864..	\$22,994,877 25
" " " " June 30, 1865..	25,005,323 76
" " " " Oct. 30, 1865..	26,057,469 90
" " " " Jan. 1, 1866..	26,000,420 69

The fiscal year 1866, which commenced on July 1, 1865, showed the following results for the quarter ending September 30, 1865:

Balance in Treasury, agreeable to warrants, July 1, 1865.....	\$558,809 15
Receipts from loans applicable to expenditures.....	\$188,773,097 22
Receipts from loans applied to payment of public debt.....	183,406,163 35
	377,183,260 57
Receipts from customs.....	47,009,568 08
Receipts from lands.....	132,360 68
Receipts from direct tax.....	81,111 80
Receipts from internal revenue.....	96,618,335 65
Receipts from miscellaneous sources.....	13,398,729 94
	162,136,900 55
Total.....	\$440,223,770 97

Expenditures.

For the redemption of public debt.....	\$133,406,163 35
For civil service.....	10,571,460 99
For Pensions and Indians.....	6,094,341 86
For War Department.....	165,333,237 33
For Navy Department.....	16,520,669 81
For interest on public debt.....	86,178,431 50
	\$397,006,254 83

Leaving a balance in the Treasury on October 1, 1865, of.....

For the remaining three quarters of the year the Secretary presents the following estimates, which show a deficiency of over \$100,000,000 for the year. Receipts for three quarters ending June 30, 1866:

Balance in Treasury October 1, 1865.....	\$67,153,515 44
Receipts from customs.....	\$100,000,000 00
Receipts from lands.....	500,000 00
Receipts from internal revenue.....	175,000,000 00
Receipts from miscellaneous sources.....	30,000,000 00
	305,500,000 00
Total.....	\$372,653,515 44

Expenditures for the three quarters ending June 30, 1866:

For the civil service.....	\$32,994,033 83
For pensions and Indians.....	12,256,790 94
For the War Department.....	307,733,750 87
For the Navy Department.....	33,000,000 00
For interest on public debt.....	96,312,368 75
	482,333,403 64

Deficiency.....

The estimates of the Secretary for the fiscal year next following and terminating on June 30, 1867, show a surplus exceeding \$100,000,000. This is virtually recovering the \$100,000,000 deficiency for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1866, and nothing more. It will be seen that the estimates differ from those of the preceding year, chiefly by the reduction of the expenditures of the War Department. Thus upon the important expenditures of that department depends the estimated deficiency or surplus. The receipts for the year ending June 30, 1867, are estimated as follows:

From customs.....	\$100,000,000 00
From internal revenue.....	575,000,000 00
From lands.....	1,000,000 00
From miscellaneous sources.....	20,000,000 00
	\$396,000,000 00

The expenditures, according to the estimates, will be—

For the civil service.....	\$42,165,569 47
For pensions and Indians.....	17,809,640 93
For the War Department.....	39,017,416 13
For the Navy Department.....	43,982,457 50
For interest on public debt.....	141,542,063 50
	\$394,517,131 89

Leaving a surplus of estimated receipts over estimated expenditures, of.....

The deficiency estimated for the current fiscal year should be increased by the sum of \$32,536,901 of public debt to be provided for during the year. The most important subject, however, connected with the finances of the United States relates to the public debt. This has so suddenly grown to such vast proportions as to overshadow all the resources of the country. Its amount on June 30, 1865, with the nature of the various obligations, are shown in the table on the following page.

It will be noticed that the legal tender notes known as currency or circulating medium form a large item of this indebtedness. The amount of this paper circulation on October 31, 1865, was as follows:

1. United States notes and fractional currency.....	\$454,218,068 20
2. Notes of the National Banks.....	185,000,000 00
3. Notes of State Banks, including outstanding issues of State Banks converted into National Banks.....	65,000,000 00
Total.....	\$704,218,068 20

The amount of notes furnished to the national banks up to and including the 31st of October, was a little over \$205,000,000, but it was estimated that \$20,000,000 of these had not then been put into circulation. In addition to the United States notes, there were also outstanding \$32,536,900 five per cent. Treasury notes, and \$173,012,140 compound-interest notes, of which it was estimated that \$30,000,000 were in circulation as currency.

By this statement, without including $\frac{1}{10}$ notes, many of the small denominations of which were in circulation as money, the paper circulation or money of the country amounted on October 31, 1865, to the sum of \$734,218,088.20. This feature of the public debt is the first to attract attention in any consideration of the subject. The legality of these notes first presents itself to the mind of the Secretary. His views on the question were thus expressed:

The right of Congress, at all times, to borrow money and to issue obligations for loans in such form as may be convenient, is unquestionable; but their authority to issue obligations for a circulating medium as money, and to make these obligations a legal tender, can only be found in the unwritten law which sanctions whatever the representatives of the people, whose duty it is to maintain the Government against its enemies, may consider in a great emergency necessary to be done. The present legal-tender acts were war measures, and while the repeal of those provisions which made the United States notes law

STATEMENT OF THE INDEBTEDNESS OF THE UNITED STATES, JUNE 30, 1965.

TITLE	Length of Loan.	When redeemable.	Rate of Interest.	Price of emission.	Amount authorized.	Amount loaned.	Amount outstanding, June 30, 1864.
Loan of 1842.....	20 years.	After December 31, 1862.	6 per cent.	Par.	\$17,000,000	\$8,000,000	\$195,463 45
Loan of 1847.....	20 years.	After December 31, 1867.	6 per cent.	Par.	23,000,000	23,307,000	9,415,250 00
Loan of 1848.....	20 years.	After July 1, 1868.	6 per cent.	Par.	16,000,000	16,000,000	8,908,241 80
Texas indemnity.	15 years.	After December 31, 1864.	5 per cent.	Par.	10,000,000	5,000,000	842,000 00
Old funded debt...	Demand.	On demand.	8 & 6 per ct.	Par.	114,115 43
Treasury notes.....	On demand.	1 m. to 6 per cent.	Par.	104,511 64
Treasury notes.....	1 year.	1 year after date.	5 to 5½ per cent.	Par.	20,000,000	8,500 00
Loan of 1858.....	15 years.	December 31, 1873.	5 per cent.	Par.	20,000,000	20,000,000	20,000,000 00
Loan of 1860.....	10 years.	After December 31, 1870.	5 per cent.	Par.	21,000,000	7,022,000	7,022,000 00
Treasury notes.....	1 year.	1 year after date.	6 & 12 per cent.	Par.	10,000,000	10,000,000	600 00
Loan of Feb. 8, 1861.	20 years.	After June 1, 1881.	6 per cent.	Par.	25,000,000	18,415,000	13,415,000 00
Treasury notes.....	2 years.	2 years after date.	6 per cent.	Par.	22,468,100	22,468,100	5,500 00
60 days.	60 days.	60 days after date.	6 per cent.	Par.	12,596,850	12,596,850
Oregon war.	20 years.	After July 1, 1881.	6 per cent.	Par.	2,500,000	1,090,850	1,016,000 00
20-year sixes.....	20 years.	After June 30, 1881.	6 per cent.	Par.	50,000,000	50,000,000 00
7.30 notes (two issues).	8 years.	After Aug. 18, 1864.	7.30 per ct.	189,999,750	189,155,850 00
Demand notes.....	Payable on demand.	Demand.	None.	60,000,000	472,000 00
20-year sixes.....	20 years.	After June 30, 1881.	6 per cent.	Par.	Exchangeable for 7.30 treasury notes.	481,800 00
Five-twenties.....	5 or 20 years.	After April 30, 1867.	6 per cent.	Par.	515,000,000	514,780,500	514,780,500 00
United States notes, new issue.....	None.	Par.	450,000,000	433,657,946 00
Temporary loan ..	Not less than 80 days.	After 10 days' notice.	4, 5, and 6 per cent.	Par.	150,000,000	58,717,061 40
Loan of 1868.....	After June 30, 1861.	6 per cent.	Pre'm 4 1/8 p. ct.	75,000,000	75,000,000	75,000,000 00
Treasury notes.....	2 years.	2 years after date.	5 per cent.	Par.
1 year.	1 year after date.	5 per cent.	Par.
Treasury notes.....	8 years.	8 years after date.	6 per cent.	Par.	400,000,000	211,000,000	42,885,710 00
Ten-forties	10 or 40 years.	After Feb. 28, 1874.	5 per cent.	Par.	200,000,000	172,770,100	172,770,100 00
Certificates of indebtedness.....	1 year.	1 year after date.	6 per cent.	Par.	Not specified.	118,772,000 00
Postal currency.....	Par.	Not specified.	20,192,456	9,915,498 66
Fractional currency.....	Par.	50,000,000	15,000,420 10
Five-twenties	5 or 20 years.	After November 1, 1865.	6 per cent.	Par.	91,738,000	91,738,000 00
Treasury notes.....	8 years.	8 years after date.	6 per cent.	Sub'tate rec'd 5 per cent. notes.	168,661,290	173,756,068 00
Treasury notes.....	8 years.	8 years after date.	6 per cent.	10,094,790
7.30 treasury notes	8 years.	8 years after August 15, 1864.	7.30 per ct.	Par.	400,000,000	284,400,000	284,400,000 00
Central Pacific R. R. Co. bonds.....	80 years.	After January 15, 1895.	6 per cent.	Par.	1,258,000	1,258,000 00
7.5-10 treas'y notes, three issues.....	8 years.	After Aug. 14, 1867. After June 14, 1868. After July 14, 1868.	7 1/2-10 per ct.	Par.	600,000,000	487,210,400	487,210,400 00

\$2,639,768,026 66

ful money is not now recommended, the Secretary is of the opinion that they ought not to remain in force one day longer than shall be necessary to enable the people to prepare for a return to the constitutional currency. It is not supposed that it was the intention of Congress, by these acts, to introduce a standard of value, in times of peace, lower than the coin standard, much less to perpetuate the discredit which must attach to a great nation which dishonors its own obligations by unnecessarily keeping in circulation an irredeemable paper currency. It has not, in past times, been regarded as the province of Congress to furnish the people directly with money in any form. Their authority is "to coin money and fix the value thereof;" and, inasmuch as a mixed currency, consisting of paper and specie, has been found to be a commercial necessity, it would seem also to be their duty to provide, as has been done by the National Currency act, that this paper currency should be secured beyond any reasonable contingency. To go beyond this, however, and issue Government obligations, making them by statute a legal tender for all debts, public and private, is not believed to be, under ordinary circumstances, within the scope of their duties or constitutional powers.

The influence of this feature of the debt on the commercial affairs of the country in a time of peace, and the dangers that financial disaster will ensue, were looked upon with so much apprehension as to cause the Government to urge upon Congress the policy of contraction. The evidence of these dangers is drawn from the past financial history of the country. The bank note circulation of the country at various periods of highest and lowest issues prior to the war was as follows:

YEARS.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Loans.
January, 1830.....	\$61,324,000	\$55,560,000	\$200,451,000
January, 1835.....	108,692,495	88,081,000	365,168,000
January, 1836.....	140,301,638	115,104,000	457,506,000
January, 1837.....	149,185,890	127,397,000	525,115,000
January, 1843.....	58,564,000	56,168,000	254,544,000
January, 1856.....	195,747,950	212,706,000	634,188,000
January, 1857.....	214,778,822	230,351,000	684,456,000
January, 1858.....	155,208,844	155,982,000	588,165,000
January, 1869.....	207,102,000	253,802,000	691,945,000

It appears by the above that the bank note circulation of the United States increased from \$61,324,000 to \$149,185,890 between January 1, 1830, and January 1, 1837, in which latter year a great financial collapse took place. The circulation, deposits, and loans of that year compared as follows: Circulation, \$149,185,890; deposits, \$127,397,000; loans, \$525,115,000. The circulation then fell from \$149,185,890 in 1837, to \$58,564,000 in 1843, and rose to \$214,778,822 on January 1, 1857, in which year the next severe crisis occurred. The circulation, deposits, and loans at this time compared as follows: Circulation, \$214,778,822; deposits, \$230,351,000; loans, 684,456,000. The amount of specie in circulation at these periods may be estimated at \$30,000,000 for 1837, and \$50,000,000 for 1857. On the 30th of September, 1865, the deposits of the national banks alone amounted to \$544,150,194; their loans, estimating the national securities held by them as a loan to the Government, amounted to \$913,045,629; both of which items were increased during the month of October, while on

the 30th of that month the circulation, bank and national, exceeded \$700,000,000.

The years of 1837 and 1857 were ones of great inflation; and the revolution of the former not only produced great immediate embarrassment, but a prostration which continued until 1843; at the commencement of which year the bank note circulation amounted only to \$58,566,000; deposits, \$56,168,000; loans, \$254,544,000. Flour declined in New York from \$10.25 per barrel on January 1, 1837, to \$4.69 on January 1, 1843, and other articles in about the same proportion. In 1857 the evil had not been long at work, and productive industry had not been seriously diminished, yet the reaction, though sharp and destructive, was not general, nor were the embarrassments protracted which resulted from it. The effect of the present inflation of prices upon the cost of labor and of all elements entering into the production of the staple commodities, whether in agriculture, mechanics, or manufactures, has been such as to invite the direct competition of all other countries in our markets. This has made the American market the best to sell in and the worst to buy in on the part of foreigners. In the absence of an adequate export demand, which there is a tendency to diminish, it will result in stripping the country of the precious metals, and the creation of a debt abroad that will be a greater drain on the national resources than the present debt.

On a gold valuation of the imports and exports, the balance which has accrued against this country during the four years previous to June 30, 1865, including the interest on American securities held abroad and purchased within that time, and also taking into consideration the difference between the standard of American and that of foreign gold (9½ per cent.), has been \$308,000,000. In consequence of the probable falling off in the export of coin, and the increased amount of interest to be paid abroad, it is estimated that the accruing balance during the present fiscal year will amount to \$120,000,000, making a total for five years of \$428,000,000. The only resource to pay this gold balance has been, and still is, the sale of securities abroad. The amount required, if sold at an average discount of forty per cent., will be \$718,000,000, and the annual interest at six per cent. will be \$42,780,000. The discount of forty per cent. will amount to \$285,200,000; every dollar of which will be an entire loss to the country.

As contraction appeared to be a measure of safety imperatively demanded, and which required the action of Congress, the Secretary of the Treasury recommended to that body to declare that the compound-interest notes should cease to be a legal tender from the day of their maturity, and that the Secretary should be authorized, in his discretion, to sell bonds of the United States, bearing interest at a rate not exceeding six per cent., and redeemable and payable at such periods as might be conducive to the interests of the Government, for the pur-

pose of retiring not only compound-interest notes, but the United States notes. It was estimated that it would not be necessary to retire more than one, or at most, two hundred millions of United States notes, in addition to the compound notes, before the desired result would be attained. It was the immediate aim of the Secretary to establish the policy of contraction, under the belief that the business of the country would readily accommodate itself to the proposed change in the action of the Government, and that specie payments might be restored without a shock to trade, and without a diminution of the public revenues, or of protective industry.

Having adopted this general policy of contraction, it was then proposed by the financial officer of the Government, in the first place, to institute measures for funding the obligations which were soon to mature. From the changes which had taken place by October 31, 1865, in the statement for June 30th, on the preceding page, it appears that besides the compound interest, the United States, and the fractional notes, the past due debt amounted to \$1,873,920.09. The debt due in 1865 and 1866, to \$187,549,646.46. The debt in 1867 and 1868, to \$848,323,591.80.

It was proposed to Congress to authorize the selling of bonds bearing interest at a rate not exceeding six per cent., for the purpose of funding so much of this debt as was in notes, and also to meet any deficiency for the present fiscal year, to pay the certificates of indebtedness as they matured, and also any portion of the debt maturing prior to 1869, that can be advantageously retired. The effect of these suggestions, if adopted, would be to put the debt in such a form that the interest only could be demanded, until the Government might be in a condition to pay the principal. Having thus placed the indebtedness of the country in such a position that it could be easily managed, it only remains to provide for raising, in a manner the least odious and oppressive to tax-payers, the revenues necessary to pay the interest on the debt, and a certain definite amount annually for the reduction of the principal. In the opinion of the Secretary of the Treasury, without any increase of taxation, but with the labor question at the South settled on terms just to the employer and to the laborer, and with entire harmony between the different sections, the debt would be rapidly diminished in burden and amount by the growth of the country. His views of the rapidity with which the debt might be paid, are thus expressed:

The following estimate of the time which would be required to pay the national debt (if funded at five per cent. and at five and one-half per cent.) by the payment of two hundred millions of dollars annually on the interest and principal, and also of the diminution of the burden of the debt by the increase of productions, may not be without interest to Congress and to tax-payers.

The national debt, deducting moneys in the Treasury, was, on the 31st of October, 1865, \$2,740,354,750.

Without attempting a nice calculation of the amount it may reach when all our liabilities shall be accurately ascertained, it seems safe to estimate it, on the 1st of July, 1868, at three thousand millions of dollars. The exact amount of existing indebtedness yet unsettled, and the further amount that may accrue in the interval, are not now capable of exact estimation, and the revenue of the same period can be only approximately calculated, but it will be safe to assume that the debt will not exceed the sum named.

The annual interest upon three thousand millions, if funded at five and a half per cent. per annum, would be one hundred and sixty-five millions, but if funded at five per cent. it would be one hundred and fifty millions.

Now, if two hundred millions per annum should be applied, in half yearly instalments of one hundred millions each, in payment of the accruing interest and in reduction of the principal funded at the higher rate of five and a half per cent., the debt would be entirely paid in thirty-two and one-eighth years. At five per cent. per annum, it would be extinguished by the like application of one hundred millions every six months, in a little over twenty-eight years.

At the higher rate, the sum applied in the first year in reduction of the principal of the debt would be thirty-five millions of dollars; in the last, or thirty-second year, when the interest would be diminished to a little over nine millions, about one hundred and ninety-one millions of the uniform annual payment would go to the reduction of the principal.

On the assumption that the debt may be funded at five per cent., \$50,000,000 would be applicable to the reduction of the principal in the first year, and in the twenty-eighth or last year of the period—the interest falling to less than \$8,000,000—\$192,000,000 of the annual payment would go to the principal.

The annual interest accruing upon \$1,725,000,000 of the debt on the 31st of October last averages 6.63 per cent. A part of this sum is now due, another portion will be payable next year, and the balance will be due or payable, at the option of the Government, in 1867 and 1868. If these \$1,725,000,000 shall be funded or converted into five per cents by the year 1869, the average interest of the whole debt will be 5.195 per cent. In the year 1771, if the debt then maturing should be funded at the same rate, the average interest would be reduced to 5.15, and in 1881 to five per cent., excepting the bonds for \$50,000,000 to be advanced in aid of the Pacific Railroad at six per cent., which will have thirty years to run from their respective dates. The interest of these bonds, added to the supposed five per cents, would, in 1881, make the average rate of the entire debt 5.09 of one per cent. until the whole should be discharged.

In these calculations of the average rate of interest upon the funded debt, the outstanding United States notes and fractional currency are not embraced. Whatever amount of these \$454,000,000 may eventually be funded at five per cent. per annum, will proportionally reduce the average rates of interest upon the whole debt.

By the terms and conditions of some portion of the debt, the interest on the whole cannot be reduced to exactly five per cent., unless money may be borrowed, at some stage of the process, at a trifle below five per cent. A bonus of one-tenth of one per cent., paid by the bidders for five per cent. loans, would more than cover the excess, the probability of which fully warrants the calculation submitted as to the payment of the total debt at this rate.

It must be observed, also, that the assumed principal of the debt in July, 1868, must undergo some diminution before the funding in 1867, 1868, and 1869, begins. If only \$100,000,000 shall be paid off in those three years, the principal, thus reduced to \$2,900,000,000, would be extinguished by the process already stated in twenty-nine years, if funded at five and a half per cent., and, if at five per cent., in something less than twenty-seven years. And, it is well

worthy of attention, that \$100,000,000 less principal, at the commencement of the process of payment, will save \$400,000,000, in round numbers, in the end, if the rate is five and a half per cent., and \$800,000,000 if five per cent. The burden of a national debt is, of course, relative to the national resources, and these resources are not, strictly speaking, capital, but the current product of the capital and industry of the country. The annual product, however, is found to bear a certain ratio to capital, and this ratio may be conveniently and safely used in computing the probable resources which must in the future meet the national requirement for the payment of interest and extinguishment of the debt.

In the opinion of the Secretary, subsequently expressed, the annual product of the labor and capital of the country may be considered as bearing the ratio of twenty-five per cent. to the capital wealth of the country. Taking the returns of the census of 1860 as the amount of the wealth, and regarding the increase to 1870 only at one hundred and twenty-five per cent., the annual income at that period will amount to a sum twice as large as the present debt. A payment of \$200,000,000 on the public debt, out of this sum, would be only 2.9 per cent. He concludes, that no act of Congress, except for raising the necessary revenue, would be more acceptable to the people, or better calculated to strengthen the national credit, than one which should provide that \$200,000,000, commencing with the next fiscal year, shall be annually applied to the payment of the interest and principal of the national debt. These favorable views served to sustain public confidence in every department of industry. For the measures of the Government relating to revenue, see the subject of *Taxation* on a subsequent page.

Statement of the Public Debt on the 1st day of January in each of the years from 1791 to 1842, inclusive, and at various dates in subsequent years to July 1, 1865.

On the 1st day of January.....	1791	\$75,468,476 52
Do. do.	1792	71,227,924 66
Do. do.	1793	80,852,634 04
Do. do.	1794	73,427,404 77
Do. do.	1795	80,747,587 83
Do. do.	1796	88,762,173 07
Do. do.	1797	82,064,479 88
Do. do.	1798	79,228,599 12
Do. do.	1799	78,409,669 77
Do. do.	1800	82,976,284 35
Do. do.	1801	88,093,030 90
Do. do.	1802	90,712,692 25
Do. do.	1803	77,064,986 80
Do. do.	1804	86,497,120 89
Do. do.	1805	82,512,150 50
Do. do.	1806	78,722,370 66
Do. do.	1807	69,213,899 64
Do. do.	1808	60,196,817 97
Do. do.	1809	57,022,192 09
Do. do.	1810	58,173,277 52
Do. do.	1811	45,005,687 76
Do. do.	1812	45,209,707 37
Do. do.	1813	55,962,897 37
Do. do.	1814	81,487,346 24
Do. do.	1815	99,389,680 15
Do. do.	1816	127,384,968 14
Do. do.	1817	123,491,965 16
Do. do.	1818	108,466,688 88
Do. do.	1819	90,529,643 28
Do. do.	1820	91,015,566 15
Do. do.	1821	96,957,437 66
Do. do.	1822	96,546,676 93
Do. do.	1823	90,875,877 23
Do. do.	1824	92,268,777 77
Do. do.	1825	82,738,632 71
Do. do.	1826	81,024,039 99
Do. do.	1827	73,937,337 20

On the 1st day of January.....	1828	67,475,048 87
Do. do.	1829	56,481,418 67
Do. do.	1830	43,560,406 50
Do. do.	1831	36,123,191 66
Do. do.	1832	24,323,265 18
Do. do.	1833	7,001,063 88
Do. do.	1834	4,780,061 08
Do. do.	1835	801,329 05
Do. do.	1836	291,039 05
Do. do.	1837	1,878,238 55
Do. do.	1838	4,857,640 46
Do. do.	1839	11,093,737 58
Do. do.	1840	5,125,077 68
Do. do.	1841	6,737,298 00
Do. do.	1842	15,023,486 37
On the 1st day of July.....	1843	27,308,450 09
Do. do.	1844	24,748,188 23
Do. do.	1845	17,093,794 80
Do. do.	1846	16,750,286 38
Do. do.	1847	33,956,638 88
Do. do.	1848	43,526,879 37
On the 1st day of December.....	1849	64,704,008 71
Do. do.	1850	64,228,288 87
On the 20th day of November.....	1851	62,580,395 26
On the 30th day of December.....	1852	65,131,092 13
On the 1st day of July.....	1853	67,340,638 73
Do. do.	1854	47,242,206 05
On the 17th day of November.....	1855	36,969,731 05
On the 15th day of November.....	1856	80,993,909 64
On the 1st day of July.....	1857	20,000,886 90
Do. do.	1858	44,910,777 66
Do. do.	1859	58,754,669 33
Do. do.	1860	64,769,708 03
Do. do.	1861	90,867,328 66
Do. do.	1862	514,311,971 92
Do. do.	1863	1,098,793,181 87
Do. do.	1864	1,740,690,489 49
Do. do.	1865	2,692,568,026 56

Value of Real Estate and Personal Property according to the seventh Census (1850) and the eighth Census (1860), respectively; also the increase.

STATES AND TERRITORIES	REAL ESTATE AND PERSONAL PROPERTY.		INCREASE.
	1850.	1860.	
Alabama.....	\$228,294,332	\$493,237,078	267,082,746
Arkansas.....	39,541,925	219,256,473	179,415,448
California.....	22,161,872	207,574,618	185,712,741
Connecticut.....	153,707,239	444,274,114	290,566,184
Delaware.....	21,092,556	46,242,181	25,179,625
Florida.....	22,862,270	73,101,500	50,239,230
Georgia.....	335,423,714	645,395,237	310,469,523
Illinois.....	156,265,096	871,860,282	715,595,276
Indiana.....	202,650,264	528,835,971	326,185,707
Iowa.....	23,714,688	247,383,265	223,668,577
Kansas.....		81,327,895	
Kentucky.....	301,628,456	668,043,112	366,414,656
Louisiana.....	235,998,764	602,115,565	366,119,804
Maine.....	122,777,571	190,211,600	67,434,029
Maryland.....	219,217,364	876,919,344	657,702,080
Massachusetts.....	573,342,286	815,237,433	241,895,147
Michigan.....	69,787,255	267,163,958	197,376,728
Minnesota.....	Not returned.	62,294,413	
Mississippi.....	228,951,180	607,324,911	378,373,731
Missouri.....	137,247,707	501,214,898	363,966,691
N. Hampshire.....	168,672,335	156,510,869	52,658,025
New Jersey.....	200,000,000	467,915,824	267,915,824
New York.....	1,080,800,216	1,849,335,517	768,535,301
N. Carolina.....	226,800,472	358,722,899	131,922,427
Ohio.....	504,726,120	1,106,598,422	601,872,302
Oregon.....	5,063,474	25,930,637	20,867,163
Pennsylvania.....	722,426,120	1,416,501,318	694,075,198
Rhode Island.....	80,508,794	135,357,588	54,848,794
S. Carolina.....	288,257,694	648,138,754	359,881,060
Tennessee.....	201,246,636	493,908,392	292,661,756
Texas.....	92,740,473	365,200,614	272,460,141
Vermont.....	92,205,049	122,477,170	30,272,121
Virginia.....	430,701,029	793,249,681	362,548,652
Wisconsin.....	42,054,595	273,671,668	231,617,073
Dist. Columbia.....	14,015,574	41,084,945	27,069,371
Neb. Terr'ty.....		9,181,056	
New Mex. Terr.....	5,174,471	20,813,768	15,639,298
Utah Terr'ty.....	996,083	5,506,118	4,509,035
Wash. ".....		5,601,466	
	\$7,185,780,228	\$16,159,016,065	\$8,925,481,011

* Partly estimated.

The returns of the census of 1860, in the preceding table, although not a true statement of the present condition of the country, yet afford the best data in existence of its wealth and resources.

	1850.	1860.
Cash value of Farms.....	\$3,271,575,426	\$4,650,872,507
Farming implements, etc.....	151,557,688	247,027,496
Value of Live Stock.....	544,180,516	1,107,490,216

The productions of agriculture for the years ending June 30th, 1850 and 1860, were as follows:

	1850.	1860.
Wheat, bush.....	100,485,944	171,188,331
Rye, bush.....	14,188,818	20,976,956
Corn, bush.....	592,071,104	830,451,707
Oats, bush.....	146,584,179	172,554,688
Rice, lbs.....	215,813,497	187,140,173
Tobacco, lbs.....	199,752,655	429,890,771
Cotton, ginned, bales*.....	2,445,793	5,198,977
Wool, lbs.....	52,516,959	60,511,343
Peas and Beans, bush.....	9,219,901	13,188,013
Potatoes (Irish), bush.....	65,797,896	110,571,201
Potatoes (sweet), bush.....	38,363,143	41,606,302
Barley, bush.....	5,167,015	15,635,119
Buckwheat, bush.....	8,956,912	17,664,914
Orchard products.....	\$7,733,186	\$19,759,861
Market gardens.....	5,330,080	15,541,027
Wine, galls.....	221,349	1,860,008
Butter, lbs.....	818,345,306	460,509,854
Cheese, lbs.....	105,585,593	105,875,185
Hay, tons.....	18,888,643	19,129,128
Clover seed, bush.....	463,978	929,010
Grass seed, bush.....	416,881	900,386
Hemp, dew-rotted, tons.....	38,198	83,247
" water-rotted, tons.....	1,673	8,943
" other " tons.....		17,800
Hops, lbs.....	8,497,029	11,010,012
Flax, lbs.....	7,709,676	3,788,079
Flax seed, bush.....	562,312	611,927
Silk, lbs.....	10,343	6,562
Maple Sugar, lbs.....	34,258,426	38,968,384
Cane Sugar, hds t.....	237,133	302,206
Molasses, galls.....	12,700,991	16,837,080
" sorghum, galls.....		7,235,025
" maple, galls.....		1,944,594
Beeswax and Honey, lbs.....	14,854,252	26,896,355
Home Manufactures.....	\$27,498,644	\$24,858,223
Animals slaughtered....	111,708,142	212,871,638

Products, other than those of agriculture, were, in the year ending June 1st, 1860, valued as follows:

Product of the Fisheries.....	\$12,924,093
Salt, bushels, 12,190,958.....	2,265,302
Copper, Lead, Nickel and Zinc.....	8,816,516
Gold, California.....	45,221,698
Coal, tons, 15,173,409.....	19,865,765
Petroleum, 1861.....	500,000

The returns of the manufacturing industry of the country are of surprising magnitude. The total value of domestic manufactures, including fisheries, and the product of the mines, according to the census of 1850, was \$1,019,106,616. The product of the same branches, excluding fisheries and mines, for the year ending June 1st, 1860, reaches an aggregate of nineteen hundred millions of dollars (\$1,900,000,000), being an increase of more than eighty-six per cent. in ten years. The amount was partly ascertained, and the remainder carefully estimated

in taking the census. The table on the following page shows the results for 1860 in the several States and Territories.

In estimating the value of the statistics of this country, due allowance must be made for the devastation of the late war. If the recovery is rapid, they become more valuable as a criterion of future wealth, than if it should be slow and tedious.

The sales of gold coin during the year, by the Treasury Department, amounted up to November 1st, to \$27,993,216, on which a premium of \$12,310,459 was realized. These sales were made for the purpose of reducing the constant accumulation beyond the amount required to pay the interest on the public debt.

The total value of the bullion deposited at the mint and branches during the last fiscal year was \$32,248,754.97, of which \$31,065,349.74 was in gold, and \$1,183,405.23 in silver. Deducting the re-deposits, there remain the actual deposits, amounting to \$27,982,849.09.

The coinage for the year was, in gold coin, \$25,107,217.50; gold bars, \$5,578,482.45; silver coin, \$636,308.00; silver bars, \$313,910.69, including the two and three cent pieces, \$1,183,330.00; total coinage, \$32,819,248.64.

At the branch mint in San Francisco the gold deposits were \$18,808,318.49, and the silver deposits and purchases \$540,299.20 in value. The value of the gold coined was \$18,670,840.00; of silver coined, \$320,800.00; and of silver bars, \$145,235.58. Total coinage, \$19,144,875.58.

At the branch mint in Denver the total deposits were \$548,609.85, of which \$541,559.04 was in gold, and \$7,050.81 was in silver.

The premium at which gold has been held in the New York market above paper money, or Government notes, on each day subsequent to the suspension of specie payments up to December 31st, 1865, is stated on a subsequent page.

Commercial intercourse with the Southern States has been conducted through the Treasury Department during the war. An act of Congress of July 2d, 1864, authorized the purchase, by agents of the department, of the products of the insurrectionary States. This was closed by executive orders, on the east side of the Mississippi, on June 13th, and on the west, on June 24th. It is thought that the net profits of the Government by these purchases will amount to a million and a half of dollars.

Since the suspension of purchases by the Government the duties of these agents have been confined to securing the property (chiefly cotton) captured by the military forces in pursuance of the acts of March 12, 1862, and July 2, 1864, relative to captured and abandoned property. Up to the 31st of March last, there had been received at New York, Cincinnati, and St. Louis, the places designated for sales—including 38,319 bales obtained at Savannah, 4,151 bales at Charleston, and 2,331 at Mobile—about eighty thousand bales.

* A bale of 400 lbs.

† Of 1,000 lbs. each.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Number of Establishments.	Capital invested, in real and personal estate, in the business.	Value of raw material used, including fuel.	AV. NO. EMPLOYED.		Value of Annual Product.
				Male.	Female.	
Maine.....	3,582	\$22,000,000	\$20,861,452	25,000	14,710	\$36,075,498
New Hampshire.....	2,582	25,900,000	24,400,000	19,300	16,900	45,500,000
Vermont.....	1,501	9,500,000	8,110,000	8,940	1,560	16,000,000
Massachusetts.....	7,766	188,000,000	141,000,000	148,800	65,800	266,000,000
Rhode Island.....	1,160	28,800,000	23,400,000	21,300	12,000	47,500,000
Connecticut.....	2,928	45,730,000	40,140,000	44,160	21,620	88,000,000
Total in New England States.....	19,514	250,430,000	257,911,452	267,300	185,890	494,075,498
New York.....	23,286	175,449,306	909,899,890	174,059	47,422	379,622,560
Pennsylvania.....	21,100	189,000,000	145,800,000	185,141	38,000	285,500,000
New Jersey.....	4,060	40,000,000	42,600,000	114,660	18,060	81,000,000
Delaware.....	564	5,860,000	5,875,000	5,832	860	9,920,000
Maryland.....	2,930	51,800,000	51,900,000	20,800	20,100	42,574,000
District of Columbia.....	424	2,650,000	2,801,000	2,566	887	5,512,000
Total in Middle States.....	52,264	464,259,306	437,875,890	502,548	119,822	904,131,560
Ohio.....	10,710	58,000,000	70,000,000	69,800	11,400	125,000,000
Indiana.....	5,120	18,875,000	27,880,000	20,600	710	43,250,000
Michigan.....	2,580	24,000,000	19,000,000	22,860	1,200	33,300,000
Illinois.....	4,100	27,700,000	33,800,000	23,500	870	56,750,000
Wisconsin.....	3,120	16,580,000	17,250,000	16,920	770	25,500,000
Minnesota.....	5,525	2,400,000	2,060,000	2,215	15	2,600,000
Iowa.....	1,790	7,500,000	8,500,000	6,475	102	14,000,000
Missouri.....	2,800	20,500,000	24,000,000	20,180	1,200	43,500,000
Kentucky.....	3,160	20,000,000	21,880,000	20,580	1,460	36,330,000
Kansas.....	299	1,068,000	689,269	1,719		2,300,000
Nebraska.....	107	271,475	283,225	881	8	681,943
Total in Western States.....	84,301	196,918,475	234,257,494	204,530	17,795	390,411,943
Virginia.....	4,890	26,640,000	30,880,000	38,050	3,540	51,800,000
North Carolina.....	2,790	9,310,000	9,860,000	11,760	2,130	14,450,000
South Carolina.....	1,050	5,610,000	6,020,000	6,000	800	6,800,000
Georgia.....	1,724	11,160,000	10,000,000	9,910	2,180	13,700,000
Florida.....	180	6,675,000	965,000	2,310	170	2,700,000
Alabama.....	1,117	8,260,000	4,400,000	6,620	1,140	9,400,000
Louisiana.....	1,710	7,110,000	7,890,000	7,610	80	15,500,000
Texas.....	910	3,850,000	2,770,000	3,260	110	6,250,000
Mississippi.....	860	3,740,000	2,460,000	4,540	150	6,000,000
Arkansas.....	875	1,040,000	909,000	1,520	35	2,150,000
Tennessee.....	2,420	17,270,000	9,865,000	11,960	1,135	17,100,000
Total in Southern States.....	18,026	100,665,000	82,609,000	93,640	11,470	145,850,000
Utah.....	152	412,126	893,523	843	9	823,000
California.....	3,505	23,682,598	16,568,686	23,508	463	56,500,000
Oregon.....	800	1,298,000	1,452,000	996	10	3,183,000
Washington.....	52	1,296,700	505,000	886	4	1,408,000
New Mexico.....	86	2,081,900	432,000	949	80	1,166,000
Total in Pacific States.....	4,095	28,766,319	19,346,164	26,982	516	66,081,000
Aggregate in United States.....	123,800	\$1,050,000,000	\$1,012,000,000	1,100,000	285,000	\$1,900,000,000

The general rule under which agents have been acting since the surrender of the Southern forces, has been to collect and forward, as captured property, all cotton described upon the books and lists of the Confederate Government, or which there was sufficient reason to believe was owned or controlled by it, and that which belonged to companies formed for the purpose of running the blockade, in support of, if not in direct cooperation with that Government, leaving individual claimants of the property to their recourse before the Court of Claims, as provided by the third section of the act approved March 12, 1863. In the performance of their duties, the agents had great difficulties to encounter, from the unwillingness of the planters to surrender the captured property in their possession, from extensive depredations upon it after it was collected, and from powerful combinations formed to prevent, under various pretexts, the property fairly captured from

coming into the possession of the United States. In spite of all these obstacles, however, it is estimated, from data furnished by the agents, that there will be secured to the Government not less than one hundred and twenty-five thousand bales of cotton, including the eighty thousand bales already referred to. What part of the proceeds of this property will ultimately be retained by the Government will depend upon the success of the claimants before Congress and the courts. In collecting this cotton, there have been doubtless some instances of injustice to individuals who may be entitled to the consideration of the Government; but the Secretary believes that the cotton which has been taken by the agents was rightfully seized, and cannot be equitably claimed.

The following tables, showing the price of gold on each day for the last four years, are from the New York Commercial and Financial "Chronicle: "

DAILY HIGHEST AND LOWEST PRICES OF GOLD AT NEW YORK.

1882.

Day of Month.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1.....	Holiday.	108½-108½	109½-102½	101½-102	109½-102½	109½-108½	106½-109½	115½-114½	116½-117	128-123½	139½-131½	128½-131½
2.....		108½-108½	109-102½	109-102½	109½-102½	109½-108½	106½-109½	115-115½	116½-116½	129½-128	139½-131½	131-131½
3.....		108½-108½	109-102½	101½-101½	109½-102½	109½-108½	Holiday.	114½-115	117½-117½	129½-129	139½-131½	131-131½
4.....		108½-108½	109-102½	101½-102	109½-102½	109½-108½	109½-109½	114½-114½	118½-119½	129½-128	139½-131½	131½-131½
5.....	B.	108½-108½	109-102½	109-102½	109½-102½	104-104½	110-104½	114½-114½	118½-119½	129½-128	139½-131½	131½-131½
6.....		108½-108½	109-102½	109½-102½	109½-102½	104-104½	110-104½	114-114½	118½-119½	129½-128	139½-131½	131½-131½
7.....		108½-108½	109-102½	101-102½	109½-102½	104-104½	110-104½	114-114½	118½-119½	129½-128	139½-131½	131½-131½
8.....		108½-108½	109-102½	101-102½	109½-102½	104-104½	110-104½	114-114½	118½-119½	129½-128	139½-131½	131½-131½
9.....		108½-108½	109-102½	101½-101½	109½-102½	104½-104½	111½-111½	119½-114	118½-119½	129½-128	139½-131½	131½-131½
10.....		108½-108½	109-102½	101½-101½	109½-102½	104½-104½	111½-111½	119½-114	118½-119½	129½-128	139½-131½	131½-131½
11.....		108½-108½	109-102½	101½-101½	109½-102½	104½-104½	111½-111½	119½-114	118½-119½	129½-128	139½-131½	131½-131½
12.....	B.	104-104½	101½-101½	101½-102	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
13.....		104½-104½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
14.....		104½-104½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
15.....		104½-104½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
16.....		104½-104½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
17.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
18.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
19.....	B.	108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
20.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
21.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
22.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
23.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
24.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
25.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
26.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
27.....	B.	108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
28.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
29.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
30.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
31.....		108½-108½	101½-101½	101½-101½	108½-108½	104½-104½	115½-117½	119½-119½	118½-118½	127½-129	139½-131½	131½-131½
Month.....	100-108½	109½-104½	101½-109½	101½-109½	109½-104½	109½-109½	108½-110½	112½-116½	116½-124	128-138½	129-138½	128½-138½

DAILY HIGHEST AND LOWEST PRICES OF GOLD AT NEW YORK.

1898.

Day of Month.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1.....	Holiday.	B.	171½-171½	156-157½	160½-151½	146-147½	144½-145	129½-129½	136½-137½	140½-140½	B.	149½-148½
2.....	188½-189½	150½-150	171½-171½	159½-157	149½-150½	149½-147½	148½-144½	B.	137½-128	149½-148½	145½-146½	149½-148½
3.....	188½-189½	154½-155½	171½-171½	158-158½	B.	146½-146½	144-144½	137½-137½	129½-134½	149½-148½	146½-146½	151½-152½
4.....	B.	157-158½	165-168	154½-155½	149½-150	146-146½	Holiday.	128½-128½	138½-134½	B.	146-146½	152½-153½
5.....	184½-185½	156½-156½	157-158	B.	149½-151½	146-146½	B.	127½-127½	131½-131½	144-144½	146½-147½	151½-152
6.....	184-184½	157½-158½	150-154	151-152½	159½-154	145½-145½	188-139½	Thankg'g.	B.	146-147½	148-148½	B.
7.....	184-185	156½-157½	154½-155½	150-152½	154½-154½	B.	189½-188½	127-127½	138-138½	146½-146½	146½-147½	151-151½
8.....	185½-187	B.	B.	148½-147	154½-154½	148-148	181½-181½	136½-136½	132-132½	145½-146	B.	149½-149½
9.....	188-188½	159½-159½	155½-157½	146½-148	154½-154½	148-148	181½-181½	B.	138½-138½	146½-146½	146½-146½	149½-149½
10.....	186½-188½	159½-159½	155½-156½	148½-149	149-150½	148½-148½	181½-181½	136½-136½	132½-132½	146½-146½	145-145½	149½-149½
11.....	B.	159½-159½	157½-158½	150½-152½	B.	149½-149½	182½-182½	136½-136½	129½-129½	146½-146½	145½-145½	151-151½
12.....	140½-140½	154½-154½	158½-159½	B.	148½-149	141½-141½	B.	136½-136½	128½-128	149½-150½	146½-147	150½-150½
13.....	149-144	150½-156	150-161½	157-157½	149½-149½	148½-148½	181½-181½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	B.
14.....	146½-148	155½-156	157½-158½	155-155½	149½-150	B.	181½-181½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	146½-147	149½-150½
15.....	148½-148½	B.	B.	159-154	149½-150	B.	181½-181½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	146½-147	149½-150½
16.....	145½-145½	158½-157½	154½-155½	159-158½	149½-150½	147½-148½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
17.....	146½-147½	158½-159½	154½-155½	158½-158½	B.	145½-145½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
18.....	B.	160½-160	158½-158	151½-152½	149½-150	149½-144½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
19.....	147½-148½	161½-164	154½-155½	B.	149½-149	148-148½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
20.....	147½-148½	162½-168½	154½-155½	146-147	149½-150	B.	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
21.....	147½-148½	163-168½	158½-154½	146-147	149½-150	145½-145½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
22.....	147½-148½	B.	B.	146½-147	149½-149	148½-148½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
23.....	147-148	168½-171½	151-153½	146½-147	149½-149	148½-148½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
24.....	148½-150	167½-171½	145½-159	149½-150	B.	148½-148½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
25.....	B.	171½-172½	180½-141½	159-154	148½-148½	144½-144½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
26.....	148½-151½	169½-179½	180-140½	B.	148½-148	144½-145	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
27.....	150½-151½	169½-171	140-140½	150-150½	149½-149½	145-145½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
28.....	159½-164	171½-172½	149½-148½	149½-150½	149½-149½	B.	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
29.....	158-158½	171½-172½	B.	150-150½	149½-149½	B.	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
30.....	158-158½	171½-172½	144½-147½	149½-150½	149½-149½	146½-147½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
31.....	159-160½	B.	149½-150	149½-150½	149½-149½	146½-146½	182½-182½	136½-136½	128½-128	150½-150½	147-147½	149½-150½
Month.....	188½-160½	162½-172½	180-171½	145½-157½	149½-154½	140½-148½	128½-145	129½-129½	128½-143½	140½-156½	148-154	148½-154

DAILY HIGHEST AND LOWEST PRICES OF GOLD AT NEW YORK.

1864.

Day of Month.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1.....	Holiday.	157½-157½	159-160	166½-168½	B.		223-225	251-259	243-243½	190-198½	220-241½	225½-229
2.....	151½-153	157½-157½	159½-161	166½-168½	176-177½		220-220	256-258½	243½-244½	B.	229½-246	228½-230½
3.....	B.	157½-158	160½-161	B.	177-179½		B.	256½-258½	256-243½	190-191½	227½-230½	230½-231
4.....	151½-151½	158-158	160½-161½	166½-168½	179½-179½		Holiday.		B.	190-192½	221½-228½	B.
5.....	151½-151½	157½-158½	161½-161½	167½-167½	177½-179½		225-249	257½-261½	225-243½	192½-197	220-224½	227-229½
6.....	151½-151½	B.	161½-161½	170½-171	174-176½		248-261½	259½-261½	240½-248	193½-197	B.	220-224½
7.....	151½-152½	158½-159½	162½-163½	168½-170½	173½-179½		223-273	B.	240½-243½	196-204	228½-245½	228½-248
8.....	151½-152½	159½-159½	162½-163½	168½-170½	173½-179½		223-273	256½-258½	223½-241	196½-200½	245½-249½	229-245½
9.....	B.	159½-159½	167-167½	169½-171	B.		220-275	259½-265½	224½-226	B.	246-260	229½-245½
10.....	159½-159½	159½-159½	164½-164½	169½-171	169½-171		B.	264½-265½	218-228½	196-199	248-258	224½-229½
11.....	159½-159½	159½-159½	164½-164½	173½-175	168-168½		276-285	264½-265½	218-228½	196½-200½	226½-244½	B.
12.....	159½-154½	159-159½	160½-160½	173½-175	174½-174½		271-289	265½-267½	218½-225	199½-204½	249½-245	223½-227½
13.....	154½-154½	159½-159½	B.	175½-175½	170-179½		268½-273	264½-264½	217½-228	198½-200½	B.	223½-225½
14.....	154½-154½	B.	160½-160½	176-177½	179-179½		268-268	B.	228½-228	198-217½	248-248½	228½-228½
15.....	154½-154½	159½-160½	160½-160½	178½-179½	B.		244-256	265½-265½	223½-229½	213½-220	228½-244	224½-227½
16.....	154½-154½	160½-161	161½-161	171-171½	178½-179½		248½-261½	265½-265½	224½-228	B.	228½-240	228½-228½
17.....	B.	159½-160	161½-161½	B.	177-178		B.	265½-267	220½-228½	213½-225½	218½-229½	220½-221½
18.....	159½-159½	159½-160	168-168	170½-171	181-181½		254½-261½	267-268	B.	218½-225½	210-219	B.
19.....	159½-159½	158-158½	169-169	167-168	181½-181½		268½-268½	267-267½	228½-249½	207½-211½	216-220½	213½-217½
20.....	159½-158½	159½-159½	B.	167-167½	181-181		261-268½	268½-267½	228-229½	206½-211½	B.	220½-227
21.....	159½-157	B.	169-169	168½-167½	181½-181		260-260	B.	229-229	207½-209	217½-221½	223½-226
22.....	159½-157½	159-159	169-169	173½-174½	B.		260½-267½	268½-267½	216-227½	209½-218½	224-229	221-224½
23.....	156-156½	159-159	164½-165½	174½-177½	189½-189		260½-267½	267½-268½	211-217	B.	220½-229½	220½-229½
24.....	B.	157½-157½	166½-167½	B.	189½-189		B.	264½-267	Thank's.	219½-216½	Thank's.	220½-222
25.....	157½-157½	158½-158½	166½-167½	179-189½	184½-184½		265½-268½	264½-267	B.	214½-218½	216½-221½	Christmas.
26.....	158-158½	158½-158½	169½-169½	181½-184½	188-188½		267½-269½	268½-268	196-196½	219½-224½	219½-224½	Holiday.
27.....	157-157	157½-158½	B.	181-181½	186-186½		264-267½	245-248	199½-196	214½-216½	B.	216-218
28.....	157½-157½	B.	165½-165½	177½-180½	186-186		244-259	B.	196-200	215½-217½	226½-228½	216½-224
29.....	154½-157½	159-159½	165½-165½	170½-180	B.		260-260½	265½-265½	194½-200	217½-221½	226-229½	223-229½
30.....	156½-157½	B.	168½-164½	170½-180	190-190		258-258	261½-266	191-194½	B.	227½-228	226-229½
31.....	B.	157½-159	164½-164½	170½-180	190-190		B.	264-268	191-194½	221½-227½	227½-228	224½-227½
Month.....	151½-159	157½-161	159-169½	160½-184½	168-190		259-265	261½-261½	191-204½	190-227½	210-220	219½-248½

DAILY HIGHER AND LOWEST PRICES OF GOLD AT NEW YORK.

1865.

Day of Month.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1.....	S.	909½-200½	199½-201	151-152	142½-145½	Fast Day.	189½-141	149½-145½	144½-145	S.	145½-145½	148-148½
2.....	Holiday.	909½-200	196½-198	S.	140½-143½	187½-188½	S.	144½-144½	144½-144½	144½-144½	146-146½	147½-148½
3.....	226-229½	909½-200½	198½-199	145½-148	141½-141½	186½-187	189½-140½	144½-144½	S.	144½-144½	146½-147	S.
4.....	231-234½	906½-214½	199-200	146½-148½	143-143½	S.	Holiday.	148½-144½	148½-144½	144½-144½	146½-147	147½-148½
5.....	220½-223½	S.	S.	148-154½	143½-148½	185½-186½	189½-140½	149½-143½	144½-144½	144½-144½	S.	148½-148½
6.....	227-228½	919-214½	198-199½	150½-152½	143½-148½	186½-187½	189-189½	S.	144½-145	146½-147	147	148½-148
7.....	220½-227½	919½-216½	197½-199	147½-150½	S.	187-187½	189½-189½	149½-144	144½-144½	146-146½	146½-147	Thanksg.
8.....	S.	910½-218½	195½-197½	148½-150½	138½-148	187½-188	189½-140½	144½-144½	144½-144½	145½-146½	146½-146½	145½-146½
9.....	229½-237	911½-214	198½-199½	S.	138½-183½	187½-188	S.	149½-143½	144½-144½	144½-144½	146½-146½	144½-145½
10.....	229½-238½	910½-211½	196½-197½	148½-149½	131½-185½	187½-187½	189½-140½	149½-143½	144½-144½	144½-144½	146½-146½	S.
11.....	220-228½	904½-200	188½-191½	146-147	138½-181½	187½-187½	189½-140½	140½-141½	144½-144½	144½-144½	146½-146½	144½-145½
12.....	916½-219½	S.	S.	145½-146	130½-188½	188½-141	140½-143	140½-143	144½-144½	144½-144½	146½-146½	144½-145½
13.....	918½-229	905½-207	185½-191½	146-147½	129½-180½	189½-141	140½-143	S.	149½-143½	144½-144½	146½-146½	145-145½
14.....	917½-231	904½-206½	177½-185	Free assaid.	S.	141½-148	143½-143	149½-143½	149½-143½	144½-144½	147½-147½	145½-146½
15.....	S.	907½-208½	174½-178½	Holiday.	139½-180½	149½-147½	143-143½	141½-143½	149½-143½	145-145½	147½-147½	146-146½
16.....	918½-221½	908-208	170½-176½	S.	130½-181½	148½-145½	143-143½	141½-143½	149½-143½	145½-145½	146½-146½	S.
17.....	914½-217	908½-204½	160-160	149½-158	129½-181½	148½-145½	143-143½	149½-143½	149½-143½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
18.....	915-217	904-203½	168½-168½	146½-147½	129½-181	148½-145½	143-143½	149½-143½	149½-143½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
19.....	908-214½	S.	S.	Holiday.	130½-181	S.	143-143½	149½-143½	149½-143½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
20.....	901½-207½	908½-202½	160½-167½	Holiday.	130½-181	140-148½	143½-143½	149½-143½	149½-143½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
21.....	197½-206	196½-199½	154½-159½	147½-149½	S.	187½-189½	143½-143½	144½-144½	149½-144	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
22.....	S.	S.	S.	S.	130½-181	187½-189½	143½-143½	144½-144½	149½-144	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
23.....	197½-202½	198½-200½	156-149	149½-150½	130½-181½	140½-141½	143½-143½	149½-143½	149½-143½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
24.....	197½-208½	198½-200½	148½-152½	S.	135-185½	141½-142½	S.	149½-143½	149½-143½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
25.....	204½-207½	198-199½	153½-157½	Holiday.	136-188	141½-142½	143½-143½	149½-143½	149½-143½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
26.....	902-207	S.	S.	150½-159	135½-188	140-141½	143½-143½	149½-143½	149½-143½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
27.....	908½-215	199½-201½	158-155½	147½-149½	135½-186½	141½-143	143½-143½	149½-143½	149½-143½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
28.....	918-220	200½-208½	158½-154½	146½-148	S.	139½-141½	144½-146½	149½-144½	149½-144½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
29.....	S.	151-152½	146-146½	S.	136-187	138½-139½	143½-146½	149½-144½	149½-144½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
30.....	911-214½	149½-151½	149½-151½	S.	137½-188½	139-141½	143½-146½	144-144½	144-144½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
31.....	903-211	151½-151½	151½-151½	S.	136½-187½	139-141½	143½-146½	144-144½	144-144½	146-146½	146½-146½	146½-146½
Month.....	197½-231½	196½-216½	148½-201	148½-154½	135½-145½	138½-147½	138½-146½	140½-145½	145½-145	144½-149	145½-148½	144½-148½

PRICES OF GOVERNMENT PAPER AT NEW YORK, 1865.

Statement, showing the lowest and highest prices at which the leading Government securities sold at the New York Stock Exchange in each month and the year 1865.

1865.	6 PER CENTS. 1891.	6 PER CENTS. 5-20 years.	5 PER CENTS. 10-40 years.	7-30 NOTES. 1867.	ONE YEAR CER- TIFICATES.
Interest.	January and July.	May and November.	March and September.	February and August.	Maturity.
January.....	109 a 112½	107½ a 112½	100½ a 102½	99½ a 99½	96½ a 98
February.....	109½ a 111½	108½ a 111½	100½ a 102½	99 a 99½	98 a 98½
March.....	108½ a 111½	105 a 111½	99½ a 102½	99½ a 99½	96½ a 98½
April.....	108½ a 110½	105½ a 109	91½ a 97	99½ a 99½	93½ a 99½
May.....	108½ a 110½	102½ a 109	94½ a 97	99½ a 99½	99 a 99½
June.....	107 a 118½	104 a 107½	96½ a 97½	98½ a 99½	96½ a 98
July.....	106½ a 108	108½ a 106	96½ a 97½	97½ a 100	97½ a 98½
August.....	106 a 107½	105½ a 106½	96½ a 98½	98½ a 99½	97½ a 98½
September.....	107½ a 108	106½ a 108½	98½ a 94½	99 a 99½	98½ a 99
October.....	106½ a 108½	102½ a 105½	92½ a 94½	97½ a 99½	97½ a 98½
November.....	105½ a 106½	100½ a 108½	93½ a 92½	96 a 98	97½ a 97½
December.....	106½ a 107½	101½ a 104½	90½ a 98½	97½ a 98½	97½ a 98½
Year.....	108½ a 118½	100½ a 112½	89½ a 102½	96 a 100	96½ a 99½

PRICES OF SOME IMPORTANT RAILROAD SHARES DURING EACH MONTH OF THE YEAR 1865.

	N. Y. Central.	Erie Railway.	Hudson River.	Michigan South'n & North Indiana.	Illinois Central.	Chicago & R. Isl'd.	Pittsburg, Fort Wayne & Chicago.
January...	102½ a 119	66½ a 85½	95½ a 115½	61 a 74½	110 a 127	89½ a 104½	90½ a 102½
February...	103½ a 117½	69½ a 77½	102½ a 117½	68½ a 79½	113 a 121	90 a 97½	90 a 97½
March.....	89½ a 113	45 a 72	89½ a 115½	50½ a 66½	92½ a 118½	85½ a 99½	78 a 94½
April.....	85 a 108½	51½ a 84½	90 a 115½	50½ a 73½	93 a 117	83½ a 104	80½ a 102½
May.....	87½ a 101½	70½ a 80½	95½ a 113	55½ a 71	114 a 119½	91½ a 103½	91 a 100½
June.....	89½ a 94½	71½ a 78½	100½ a 109	60½ a 63	116 a 120	97½ a 103	
July.....	90½ a 96½	78½ a 95	107 a 115	62½ a 67	119 a 130	102 a 109½	95 a 100½
August.....	90 a 93½	79½ a 92½	104½ a 113½	60½ a 67	119½ a 127½	104½ a 109	92½ a 98
September...	92½ a 95	86½ a 89½	109 a 111½	65½ a 69½	123 a 129		
October.....	95½ a 103	85½ a 92½	108½ a 135½	69½ a 89½	130 a 138½		
November...	96½ a 101½	91½ a 96½	106 a 138	72 a 81½	131½ a 138		
December...	95 a 98½	91½ a 96½	107 a 109½	74 a 76½	131 a 134		

The following statement shows the amount of gold and silver deposited in each year since 1847 at the United States Mint and branches and assay offices at New York and San Francisco:

YEAR ENDING	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Dec. 31, 1848.....	\$898,005	\$12,591	\$905,596
" 1849.....	7,085,167	42,728	7,127,885
" 1850.....	86,987,145	270,522	87,257,667
" 1851.....	56,589,794	890,388	56,930,082
" 1852.....	54,506,108	404,494	54,910,602
Oct. 31, 1853 (10 mos).....	55,622,652	417,279	56,039,931
Sept. 30, 1854 (10 mos).....	57,257,839	828,199	57,586,038
June 30, 1855 (9 mos).....	49,851,467	838,058	49,684,520
" 1856.....	47,578,441	821,938	48,200,379
" 1857.....	28,279,962	127,256	28,407,218
" 1858.....	40,967,927	816,473	41,283,700
" 1859.....	27,218,557	278,167	27,486,724
" 1860.....	18,971,042	298,798	19,264,840
" 1861.....	34,216,889	610,011	34,826,900
" 1862.....	80,976,593	1,082,264	82,008,857
" 1863.....	20,622,806	1,057,549	21,680,355
" 1864.....	22,048,926	487,439	22,536,365
" 1865.....	26,110,573	621,824	26,732,402
Total since 1847...	\$610,518,975	\$7,340,874	\$617,854,849
Weight, lbs. avoird....	2,250,180	482,588	2,682,703
" tons " " " " " "	1,125	216	1,341

—the weight of the dollar being in gold 25·8 grains, and in silver 41·25 grains.

The following statement shows the source and amount of gold and silver of domestic production deposited at the United States Mint and branches and assay offices at New York and San Francisco from the first deposits to June 30, 1865:

	First Deposits.	Before 1845.	Since 1847.	Total.
GOLD.				
Virginia.....	1829	\$945,294	\$614,491	\$1,559,785
North Carolina....	1824	5,528,005	5,009,656	10,537,661
South Carolina....	1829	733,540	619,429	1,352,969
Georgia.....	1830	5,845,933	1,577,374	6,223,307
Tennessee.....	1831	62,846	15,561	78,407
Alabama.....	1834	135,107	43,468	178,575
Vermont.....	1862		614	614
Eastern States....		\$12,770,725	\$6,485,587	\$19,256,312
California.....	1848		570,051,069	570,051,069
Colorado.....	1859		11,403,321	11,403,321
Utah.....	1860		78,559	78,559
Montana.....	1865		1,767,882	1,767,882
Arizona.....	1860		61,644	61,644
New Mexico.....	1848		66,948	66,948
Oregon.....	1858		7,908,108	7,908,108
Nevada.....	1861		73,144	73,144
Dacotah.....	1866		7,909	7,909
Idaho.....	1862		7,279,840	7,279,840
Washington.....	1863		61,200	61,200
Other sources.....	1849		3,166,202	3,166,202
Western States...			601,277,167	601,277,167
Other sources.....		2,613		2,613
Parted from Silver	1862		2,754,844	2,754,844
Total—Gold.....		\$12,774,338	\$610,518,973	\$623,293,311
SILVER.				
Nevada.....	1860		2,597,199	2,597,199
Arizona.....	1860		23,722	23,722
Sonora.....	1860		1,345	1,345
North Carolina....	1859		41,888	41,888
Lake Superior.....	1858		141,913	141,913
California.....	1862		8,683	8,683
New Mexico.....	1865		26	26
Parted from Gold.	1841	52,380	4,524,198	4,576,578
Silver—all sources.		52,380	7,340,874	7,393,254
Gold and Silver.		\$12,826,718	\$17,854,849	\$30,681,567
Grand total.....				

The following are the prices of leading articles in each of the last eight years, as prepared by the "Commercial and Financial Chronicle:"

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.
Ashes, pota, 100 lbs.....	\$5 02½	\$5 19½	\$5 00	\$6 25	\$3 50	\$8 50	\$11 75	\$9 00
Peas.....	6 00	5 87½	5 00	6 25	8 25	9 75	18 00	11 00
Breadstuffs—								
Wheat Flour, State, per bbl...	4 80	4 80	5 85	5 50	6 05	7 00	10 00	8 75
Wheat, best ex. Genesee.....	7 75	7 50	7 50	7 50	8 75	11 00	15 00	14 00
Eye Flour, ".....	8 75	4 00	4 00	8 87½	5 45	6 45	9 00	6 10
Corn Meal, Jersey.....	8 40	3 90	8 15	8 00	4 00	6 45	8 80	4 25
Wheat, white Gen., bush.....	1 40	1 50	1 45	1 50	1 60	1 90	2 60	2 63
White Michigan.....	1 25	1 50	1 45	1 50	1 58	1 58	2 70	2 75
White Ohio.....	1 38	1 45	1 45	1 48	1 58	1 58	2 60	2 68
White Southern.....	1 45	1 45	1 45	1 58	1 58	1 58	2 75	2 45
Red Western.....	1 29	1 80	1 28	1 43	1 48	1 57	2 45	2 05
Chicago Spring.....			1 18	1 80	1 88	1 48	2 22	1 85
Eye, Northern, bush.....	78	99	75	68	96	1 30	1 75	1 05
Oats, State.....	58	46½	87	49	71	98	1 08	69
Corn, old Western.....	78	90	73	64	89	1 80	1 90	95
Corn, new Southern.....	75	80	79½	63	84			
Cotton, mid. upland, lb.....	19	11	12½	35½	63½	88	1 20	52
Mkt. New Orleans.....	19½	11½	12½	84	63		1 21	58
Fish, dry cod, qtl.....	4 00	4 50	3 50	8 50	4 50	6 75	9 00	9 25
Fruit, bunch Raisins, box.....	2 05	2 52	1 75	8 20	8 50	4 00	5 85	4 40
Carrants, lb.....	7½	6	4½	9	12½	15	21	15
Hay, shipping, 100 lbs.....	90	1 00	90	77½	65	1 45	1 55	75
Hops, lb.....	15	16	25	90	28	38	40	50
Iron, Scotch Pig, ton.....	25 00	24 50	21 00	28 00	23 50	45 00	68 00	59 00
English Bars.....	55 00	56 00	52 00	57 00	77 50	90 00	190 00	180 00
Laths, per M.....	2 19½	2 00	1 80	1 25	1 45	1 50	2 40	5 00
Lead, Spanish, ton.....	5 50	5 65	5 25	7 00	8 00	10 50	13 00	10 00
Galena.....	5 85	5 77½	5 50	7 19½	8 00	10 50	16 00	
Leather, hemlock, sole, lb.....	24	80	10½	90½	27	80 00	43	26
Oak.....	80	80	27	25	83	42	62	89
Lime, com. Rockland, bbl.....	75	75	75	65	65	1 35	1 15	1 10
Liquors, Brandy (cognac), gal.....	8 00	8 26	9 00	4 00	5 25			
Domestic Whiskey.....	24½	26	19½	20½	39	94	2 24	2 27½
Molasses, New Orleans, gals.....	37	58	37	58	55	70	1 48	1 15
Naval Stores—								
Crude Turpentine, bbl.....	8 68½	8 48½	9 75	10 00				9 00
Spirits Turpentine, gal.....	49	44½	35	1 47½	9 00	2 95	2 10	1 05
Common Rosin, N. C., bbl.....	1 55	1 65	1 85	6 00	10 50	30 00	28 00	6 50
Oil—Crude Whale, gal.....	55	52	51	48	88	1 10	1 48	1 60
Crude Sperm.....	1 34	1 40	1 40	1 40	1 75	1 60	2 18	2 50
Linseed.....	65	57	60	66	1 27	1 47	1 50	1 45
Provisions—								
Pork, old mess, bbls.....	17 00	16 87½	16 00	13 00	14 50	19 50	43 00	28 50
Pork, old prime.....	18 00	11 75	10 50	8 50	19 50	14 50	26 25	28 50
Beef, city mess.....	9 00	9 00	6 00	5 50	12 00	14 00	20 50	20 00
Beef, repacked Chicago.....	9 50	9 50	9 00	11 00	18 00	15 00	23 00	24 00
Beef Hams, extra.....	15 00	14 50	14 00	14 50	15 50	18 80	27 00	35 00
Hams, pickled, lb.....	9½	9½	8	6	8	11	20	16½
Shoulders, pickled.....	6½	6½	5½	4½	5½	8½	13	14
Lard.....	11½	10½	10½	8½	10	18	23	19
Butter, Ohio.....	18	16	14	15	22	24	45	30
Butter, State.....	20	20	18	19	22	29	55	43
Butter, Orange County.....	25	24	22	22	25	32	68	50
Cheese.....	9	11	10	7	12	15½	20	18½
Rice, good, 100 lbs.....	3 50	4 20	4 00	7 00	8 75	10 00	18 00	13 50
Risk, Liverpool, ground, sack.....	90	1 13	65	86	1 25	1 85	2 27	2 00
Liverpool, fine, Ashton's.....	1 88	1 95	1 60	1 70	2 15	2 80	4 75	4 10
Soda, clover, lb.....	2½	8½	8½	7½	10½	12½	27	14
Sugar, Cuba, good.....	7	7½	6½	10	10	12	19	18
Tallow.....	10	10½	9½	9½	10½	12	18	14
Whalebone, Polar.....	95	90	88	76	1 65	1 60	2 25	1 55
Wool, fleece.....	36	40	30	50	60	75	95	75

Excluding cotton, iron, rosin, and a few other articles whose fluctuations in value are partly due to other well-known causes, the general course of prices tended upwards during the increase of paper money. That increase reached its highest point in the summer of 1865, since which the paper money has been gradually diminishing, and prices have fallen also.

The following is a comparative statement of failures, their number and amount in 1865 and the previous nine years, in the Northern States:

Year.	Number.	Liabilities.	Year.	Number.	Liabilities.
1857.....	4,257	\$263,818,000	1862.....	1,652	\$23,042,800
1858.....	3,113	73,003,747	1863.....	495	7,892,000
1859.....	2,959	51,314,000	1864.....	610	8,579,700
1860.....	2,733	61,739,414	1865.....	580	17,625,000
1861.....	3,935	173,682,170	Av. from '57 to '65,		76,478,000

It will be seen by these figures that while the number of failures during 1865 has been about the same as those of the two preceding years, the liabilities are quite double. In explanation of this it may be said that nearly one-half of the failures in 1865 were confined to the leading cities, the liabilities thereof being over three-fourths of the entire amount throughout the Union. This of course is always the result in cities where a concentration of trade results in heavier obligations. Considering the enormous volume of the internal and foreign commerce of the country, the number of its traders, the exceptional condition of its finances, the burden which it bears, and the struggle from which it has emerged, these failures are surprisingly few.

FINE ARTS. Under this head it is proposed to give an annual summary of the chief events occurring in relation to art, both in Europe and America. Criticism, except of a very general character, will be avoided, as inconsistent with the scope or purpose of the article, which will record chiefly the increase, discovery, accumulation, dispersion, or destruction of works of art during the year. Incidental to this will be an account of the rise of new artists into eminence, or the decease of those already known; but in the latter case the chief information must be sought for under the appropriate biographical or obituary head.

ENGLAND.—So great has been the accumulation of works of art in England during the present century, in consequence not only of the increase of wealth but of improved taste, that London has become one of the chief European marts for the purchase or sale of this species of property, the value of which of late years has been considerably enhanced. Every spring, when the city is fullest of people of wealth and art culture, collections of various degrees of merit, but generally of native or at least modern origin, are disposed of at auction, and pass into the possession of new collectors. Whether from a capricious taste or impaired means, it often happens, however, that such works remain but a comparatively short time in the hands of the purchaser, and that a few years will find them again offered for public competition. Another, and probably a better, reason for this frequent change of ownership, is the enormous rise in the value of pictures which has taken place within a comparatively recent period, and which has made the purchase and sale of them a source of profit to expert dealers. Hence the frequent reappearance of the works of popular artists like Turner, Landseer, Stanfield, Roberts, Faed, and others, in the auction-room, indicates a less healthy growth in taste than the casual observer might suppose, but rather great activity of the commercial spirit of the country in a new channel. Whether such a result is beneficial to British art, it does not fall within our province to inquire; but that it tends to increase the number of artists and of their works is beyond question. The spring of 1865 witnessed a more than ordinary activity in the public sales of works of art, and during the months of March, April, and May thousands of oil paintings, water-color drawings, engravings, etc., were disposed of at unexampled prices by the metropolitan auctioneers. "Everybody," says the London "Athenæum," "who has a collection seems determined to dispose of it, and accident has thrown a large number of works on the art-market; but as those who have taste and means seem just as eager to buy as the collectors are to sell, the activity of the art-marts is but a natural consequence of the law of supply and demand, the natural limit having been extended in several instances by the accidental reappearance of many works twice or

three times during the season. It is always dangerous to assume the prophetic character; but it appears very improbable that, on the average, works of art will fetch higher sums than they have during the present year." This supposition will not appear unreasonable in view of the fact that, during the season in question, the productions of several British artists, who have flourished within the last quarter of a century, have realized prices varying from five hundred to nearly twenty-five hundred guineas, or many times more than these artists would have obtained for them a few years ago. The first prominent sale of the season was that of the collection of Mr. H. Wallis, comprising 180 pictures which realized an aggregate of £9,645. In March a collection of 170 oil paintings and water-color drawings, belonging to Mr. T. Blackburn, was sold for £8,768, and a miscellaneous collection of 177 oil paintings fetched over £10,000. Another collection of 78 pictures, the property of Mr. E. G. Reeves, was disposed of for £6,275. On March 24th and 25th a collection of oil pictures and water-colors, including masterpieces by Turner, Stanfield, Roberts, Creswick, Müller, and others, realized the large sum of £18,475. The productions by Turner were water-color drawings, never previously exhibited in public, and sold for almost as many guineas as the artist could originally have obtained shillings. This portion of the sale closed with Turner's famous oil painting "Palestrina," which brought 2,100 guineas. At the same sale a landscape by Stanfield, "On the Maas, near Dordt," fetched 2,110 guineas, and "Interior of St. Stephens, Vienna," by Roberts, 1,820 guineas. So large were these prices that competent critics declared their inability to comprehend on what principle the purchases were made, unless that of buying what could be most readily and profitably sold again. On April 7th and 8th, the collection of Mr. John Knowles of Manchester, rich in engravings, water-color pictures, and oil paintings, was disposed of at auction for £21,750. Three pictures realized over £4,000, viz.: "Spanish Muleteers crossing the Pyrenees," by Rosa Bonheur, 2,000 guineas; "Religious Controversy in the time of Louis XIV.," by Elmore, 1,000 guineas; and "The Errand Boy," in size only 14 inches by 19, by Sir David Wilkie, 1,050 guineas. In this sale, as at previous ones, it was noticed that the highest prices were given for pictures by no means the highest in the scale of merit, but which from certain extrinsic qualities, or on account of the popularity of the artists, were nevertheless in greater demand and were held to possess greater merit than those in which intellectual labor was combined with unquestioned artistic qualities. One of the most interesting sales in April was that of the artistic remains of John Leech, comprising sketches, drawings, and a few oil paintings, and which realized the handsome sum of £6,580. Most of the sketches were little more than first ideas of the pictures which for so many years

delighted the readers of the London "Punch," each the work of a few minutes; and yet so eagerly were these slight efforts sought after, that they sold at prices varying from 3 and 4 guineas up to 15 or 16. The celebrated series illustrating the sporting career of "Mr. Briggs," ranged from 49 to 110 guineas each; indeed, there was not a scrap of paper bearing a few scratches of the pencil of this universally popular and lamented artist that was not valued at many hundred times its weight in gold. In May the sale of the drawings, sketches, and pictures, in oils and water-colors, of another popular artist, the late David Roberts, R. A., took place, occupying six days, and realizing £16,425. Here, also, trifling efforts of the deceased artist realized large sums. On May 11th and 12th a collection of 260 works, mostly water-color drawings, belonging to Mr. Thomas Greenwood, was sold for £10,250; and on the 20th a small but valuable collection owned by Mr. Duncan Fletcher was dispersed at auction. It included "The Prize Calf," by Landseer, 1,370 guineas, and a "Landscape, with Cattle," by Callcott and Landseer, 2,000 guineas. It is worthy of notice, however, that these as well as other works originally belonging to the Bicknell collection, were sold at a considerable reduction from previous prices. On the 27th of May a collection of 200 water-color drawings by Turner, W. Hunt, D. Cox, Copley Fielding, and other distinguished artists in this department, characterized as the finest submitted for many years to public auction, was disposed of for upwards of £16,000. A number of other collections were sold during the season, to which it is impossible to refer with particularity. Probably the number of separate works equalled 3,000, and the aggregate amount realized fell but little under, if it did not exceed, £200,000. These were almost without exception the productions of modern British artists. But an insignificant number by Continental painters were sold, and by "old masters" none at all, so far as reports indicate.

Of the annual Exhibitions of the Royal Academy, the Society of British Artists, the General Exhibition of Water-Color Drawings, and other collections of new works by contemporary British artists, there is nothing especial to say. They contained individual pictures of considerable merit in each department of painting, but the greater part of such collections were, according even to local critics, distinguished rather by a "dead level of mediocrity and insipidity" than by any promise of healthful development in art. The painters seem to be more of mannerists than of creators of ideas, and overlay their works with gaudy and incongruous coloring, while conventionalism in expression, form, and composition is everywhere most unpleasantly conspicuous. So apparent were these defects in the Exhibition of the Society of British Artists that out of more than a thousand pictures which it contained, few, it is said, rose above the most common average of picture-

making, while the greater part of them fell below it. It would be unfair, however, to suppose from these annual exhibitions that the pictorial art of the country is unable to produce works of merit. Many of the best artists do not contribute to these exhibitions, and not a few of eminence and reputation have been of late years too much occupied with great public works to undertake private commissions. In this latter class may be included men like Maclise, Herbert, Watts, and Dyce, whose frescoes in the Houses of Parliament and other public buildings are creditable specimens of the first modern attempts in England to revive the practice of this branch of the art. During the year Maclise has been occupied in putting the finishing touches to his great fresco in the Palace at Westminster, representing the "Death of Nelson," which is described as a natural and emotional work, singularly free from exaggeration, sentimentality, or conventionalism. At last accounts the work was completed with the exception of the application of the coating of water glass, which is intended to fix the colors and render the whole durable as stone. With respect to the whole series of mural decorations of the Houses of Parliament, two serious obstacles have been encountered—a deficiency of light and a tendency in some of them to premature decay. Whether the latter circumstance is owing to defective processes or to the natural dampness of the building, has not yet been satisfactorily determined. In the way of restoration, nothing has been done to these works except by Mr. Herbert, who has repainted a single head in a composition illustrating a scene from "King Lear," which is probably an experiment in a direction different from that taken in the first working of the picture. The restoration of the whole work, if possible, will be commenced when the experiments of the painter are completed. The deficiency of light is an obstacle less easy to surmount. Gilding has been attempted in some instances as a means of relief, but with very moderate success; and there is reason to apprehend that the absence of direct light in many parts of the building will prove an insuperable objection to any extensive system of pictorial ornamentation.—During the summer of 1865 three pictures by Mr. F. E. Church, the American landscape painter, "Chimborazo," "Cotopaxi," and "The Aurora Borealis," were exhibited in London, and elicited high encomiums from the English art critics, one of whom described them as "works of thoroughly legitimate, refined, classical art, not perfect, it may be, but combining more of the elements of great landscape painting than any thing we have of late ourselves produced; great in conception, brilliant in execution, and with a finer perception of the beautiful, a more tender and elevated poetical feeling, than have been displayed in this branch of the art since Turner."—Among the most noticeable pictures of the year was "The Marriage of the Prince and Princess of Wales," by William P. Frith, R. A., well known

by his painting of the "Derby Day." The scene is the Royal Chapel at Windsor, and the rather commonplace and conventional details of the work, which cannot claim to rise higher than an elaborate portrait piece, are said to be managed with masterly effect. In particular, the distribution of the lights is very happily rendered.—At last accounts the embellishments of the interior of St. Paul's Cathedral, London, were temporarily suspended for want of funds. The metropolitan journals evince their mortification at this fact, while stating that some of the recent provincial restorations have cost a much larger sum than that required for the cathedral of the richest city in the world. It is said that Mr. Watts has undertaken to make designs for mosaics to represent the four evangelists in as many pendentives of the Church, exclusive of one by the same artist already executed; also that Mr. Stevens is engaged to furnish designs for mosaics of three prophets of the Old Testament, in addition to that of Ezekiel, now in its place.—The Cathedral of St. Patrick's, Dublin, restored at an immense expense by the munificence of Mr. B. L. Guinness, was early in the year again opened for divine service.

In the department of plastic art the greatest activity seems to be now exhibited in the erection of statues or monuments to public men. The number of those in honor of the late Prince Consort is limited only by that of the chief towns in the United Kingdom, and affords a touching illustration of the affection with which his memory is regarded. In several of the remote colonies of Great Britain memorials of the same kind are in process of erection. The National Memorial to the Prince, to be erected in London, is still under way, and judging from its great size and multiplicity of details, a long time must elapse before it is completed. The model of the statue of the Prince, to be designed by Baron Marochetti, is not yet sufficiently advanced for the purposes of description; but the four large compositions representing Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, which have been intrusted respectively to Messrs. McDowell, Foley, Theed, and Bell, are making satisfactory progress. These are intended to occupy pedestals removed from the main structure, with which they will be connected by marble projections, containing on each side flights of steps. More immediately connected with the base of the principal erection are four other groups, Industry, Agriculture, Commerce, and Engineering, to be executed by Weeks, Marshall, Thornycroft, and Lawlor; while the four sides of the pedestal supporting the statue of the Prince will be ornamented with subjects representing Painting, Sculpture, Music, Architecture, etc., by Armistead and Phillip. The completed work, which will be one of the most considerable of its class in Europe, will thus present specimens of the art of the best living British sculptors, and, in spite of a want of congruity in idea and treatment, will illustrate the present condition and development of sculpture in the United

Kingdom. The predilection for colossal statues in England is somewhat remarkable at present, and the number of such works now executing for London, the provinces, and the colonies, is described as beyond all precedent. It is satisfactory to know also that these works exhibit in general an improvement upon recent productions of their class, which have not the credit of being even questionable as to their degree of merit. The money which the latter have cost, however, is not considered to have been entirely thrown away, as they have subserved a useful purpose in instructing sculptors what to avoid. These are all private or subscription commissions, and do not include the series of statues of English Kings ordered by Government for the new Houses of Parliament, which is rapidly approaching completion.—In March the statues of Professor John Wilson ("Christopher North") and Allan Ramsay, both by John Steell, were unveiled in Edinburgh with much ceremony in the presence of the municipal authorities and a large assembly of spectators. A design for an Equestrian statue of the Prince Consort for Edinburgh, by the same sculptor, is said to have been approved by the Queen. Among other testimonials to distinguished men in progress are a statue of Sir Joseph Paxton, for the Crystal Palace grounds; a bust of Thackeray, by Baron Marochetti, to be placed in Westminster Abbey, between the monuments of Addison and Macaulay; a statue of Burke, by Foley, for Trinity College, Dublin; and a statue of Macaulay, by Woolner, for the University of Cambridge. A monument to Shakespeare, from penny subscriptions, it is in contemplation to erect on Primrose Hill, near London. Any thing like a complete enumeration of the works in marble or bronze now in progress would be inconsistent with our plan. It may be sufficient to say that the art of sculpture is practised by considerably over one hundred persons, the best of whom receive more commissions than they can execute.

The British Museum, the repository of so much that is precious, in certain respects perhaps priceless, in art material, has received during the last year some valuable examples of ancient sculpture purchased from the ex-king of Naples, and which formed part of the famous Farnese collection. They comprise an equestrian statue of the Roman emperor Caligula, one of the only four known ancient marble equestrian groups existing; an Apollo, apparently of the Athenian school; a Mercury, identical with one in the Vatican; a group of Mercury and Hersè; the famous Diadumenes of Polyclitus; an heroic figure; a Satyr, and a colossal bust. It was mainly through the intervention of Mr. W. W. Story, the American sculptor, residing in Rome, that these treasures were secured to the museum. From the Pouthès sale in Paris the same institution also procured some fine specimens of antique art, including the bust known as the "Guistinian Apollo;" a seated Jupiter in bronze but eighteen

inches high, but as grand in treatment and effect as if it measured as many feet; a fine bronze Venus of the Roman era; and a variety of vases and miscellaneous articles. Of late years a formidable rival to the British Museum has come into existence at Brompton, near London, under the name of the South Kensington Museum. Established originally as a Ceramic Museum in connection with the Schools of Design, it was intended to contain a collection which should be simply one of reference for the workman. But according to a writer in the London "Art Journal," "the interests of the genuine workman have been neglected in the formation of the museum, that a gorgeous display might be made of expensive and showy china, enamels, bronzes, etc., that attract other classes, and secure the votes of dilettanti members of the House of Commons." Being a new institution, unfettered by custom or precedent, and under the control of an enthusiastic and somewhat ambitious board of management, it has actually thrown down the gage to its venerable rival in South Russell Street, and competes with it for public favor as well as parliamentary appropriations. In both efforts it seems likely to be successful. Thanks to a large portion of the national collection of pictures recently transferred to its commodious galleries, and to its accessibility day and evening to all classes, it has become one of the most popular and agreeable resorts of the metropolis, and seems rather a gigantic curiosity shop than a museum of industrial art, as originally intended. Of late, however, public attention has been directed to the purchase by its trustees, at extravagant prices, of numerous trivial articles, interesting to the mere curiosity-hunter, but of no possible use in developing national taste; and it is now seriously debated whether such articles ought not to be transferred to the British Museum, where they more properly belong, and the Kensington institution, restricted to its legitimate purposes, viz.: the collection of "ornamental art in connection with manufactures." That some arrangement of this nature will soon be made, seems not improbable. Among other art treasures which the South Kensington Museum has lately absorbed is the series of Cartoons by Raphael, which have for so many years proved the principal attraction of Hampton Court Palace. They have been removed, against the earnest protest of the inhabitants of the adjoining parishes, on the score of inadequate accommodation, the dust and dampness of Hampton Court, it is said, having seriously injured their surfaces.—The Royal Academy, now rapidly approaching the hundredth year of its existence, closed its exhibition for 1865 in August. The monetary produce of the exhibition greatly exceeded that of any previous year, amounting to upward of £13,000, and the sale of pictures was larger than usual. In consequence of its great wealth and prestige, it continues to be a power in the British art world, but its influence in forming public taste and developing national art

has not been felt to the extent anticipated by its founders. The sculptor John Gibson, one of its members, has intimated his intention to add to the great resources of the academy by a bequest of £32,000, the sole condition being that a part of its gallery shall contain casts of his works, to be supplied by the sculptor. Engraving on metal and on wood is somewhat unequally pursued in England at present, the former process seeming in danger of becoming eventually a lost art, while the latter is cultivated at a constantly increasing rate and with surprising results.—During the year, Mr. G. T. Doo's large line engraving from Sebastian del Piombo's "Raising of Lazarus," in the National Gallery, by far the most important works of its class produced for many years, was completed. In drawing, texture, and masterly rendering of chiaro-scuro, it is said to recall the efforts of the best era of line engraving. Of the numerous specimens of excellent wood engraving produced during the year we can only refer to the illustrations from the old masters and the mediæval illuminators in the edition of the New Testament published by the Messrs. Longman, of London. Nothing yet produced in the art excels, if indeed it approaches, the delicacy and beauty of these impressions, which are more effective for their size than engravings on steel or copper.—A patent has been taken by Mr. Emery, of Cobridge, for a new method of decorating pottery, by which the art becomes so simplified as to be within the reach of any one capable of tracing a passable outline with the crayon. The design is drawn in color, on earthenware or porcelain, so as to resemble at once the ordinary results of drawing or enamelling, and subsequently submitted, as enamels are, to the heat of the kiln. It is proposed as an amusement for young persons, but will doubtless soon subserve a much higher purpose.—During the year British art lost two distinguished representatives, Sir Charles Eastlake, President of the Royal Academy, and Mr. J. F. Herring, the animal painter. The latter was well known in the United States through prints of his works. Notices of each will be found elsewhere.

FRANCE.—The rage for buying works of art, noted as so prevalent in England in 1865, found its counterpart on the other side of the channel, and Paris fairly rivalled London in the number and value of the collections offered to public competition at auction. In the latter part of February was commenced the sale of the celebrated collection of the Count de Pourtales-Gorgier, who died about ten years previous, leaving directions that the dispersal of his art treasures should not commence until 1865. Whether this was a mere whim on the part of the owner, or an instance of sagacious foresight, cannot be ascertained; but it is certain that the result has been exceedingly satisfactory to his heirs. The collection comprised pictures, sculptures, medals, bronzes, antique gems, almost every variety of pottery, ivory carvings, etc., and was by many degrees the most complete

and valuable which has of late years been put into the market. The catalogue of the objects offered for sale filled 500 pages; and the sale, which lasted more than a month, was attended by the representatives of every considerable museum and collector in Europe. The following list will give some idea of the quality of the pictures sold, which numbered upward of 400, by both old and modern masters, and the prices fetched by them:

ARTIST.	SUBJECT.	PRICE. Francs.
P. Delaroche.....	Cardinal Richelieu, sick, in a barge on the Rhone.....	80,000
	Death of Richelieu.....	
Grenze.....	Innocence.....	100,200
P. de Champagne.....	Marriage of the Virgin.....	43,500
".....	Portrait of his Daughter.....	29,100
F. Hals.....	Portrait of a Man.....	51,000
Rembrandt.....	A Burgomaster.....	24,500
".....	A Veteran Soldier.....	27,000
Murillo.....	Triumph of the Eucharist.....	67,500
Velasquez.....	Dead Body of an Armed Man.....	37,000
Antonella di Messina.....	Portrait of a Man.....	111,250
Sebastian del Piombo.....	Portrait of a Duke of Urbino.....	23,000
Bronzino.....	Portrait of one of the Medici.....	53,000
Leonardo da Vinci.....	Virgin and Child.....	53,500
Claude.....	Landscape.....	24,500
Francis.....	The Virgin.....	21,500

As an illustration of the prodigious rise which has taken place in this species of property, it may be mentioned that the picture by Antonella di Messina, which brought 111,250 francs, was originally purchased in Florence by Pourtalès, for 1,500 francs, and was appraised in his inventory in 1855 at 20,000 francs. The sixteen pictures above cited realized an average of nearly 55,000 francs each, which would be more than \$11,000, computed on a specie basis. No other department of the collection realized so much money as the pictures, although the prices obtained were high. The bronzes and terra cottas fetched 150,000 francs, the gems and glass-ware 45,743 francs, the coins and medals 18,430 francs, and the sculptures in wood and ivory, the renaissance bronzes, armor, etc., over 500,000 francs. Some small specimens of the "Henri II. Ware," were sold at prices ranging from 20,000 to 30,000 francs each, which were nevertheless considered by competent judges rather low. The total proceeds of the sale amounted to nearly 3,000,000 francs, which, considering the interest of the sums expended in forming the collection as money lost, gave a profit on the outlay of a million and a half of francs, or nearly a hundred per cent. The collection of the Marquis de Lambertye, consisting principally of modern pictures, was sold in March, but such was the prevailing mania for works by old masters, as exemplified by the Pourtalès sale, that the prices obtained were comparatively low. Baron de Grootelindt's gallery, containing some masterpieces of the Dutch and Flemish schools, was sold in May, and realized a large sum; but the great picture sale of the season was that of the Duc de Morny's collection numbering one hundred and twenty-eight works, for which nearly 1,700,000 francs were obtained. A small *genre* picture by Grenze, brought 90,000 francs, a landscape by Hobbima,

81,000 francs, and a portrait by Rembrandt, 155,000 francs. Upwards of a dozen other works, principally by Dutch and Flemish masters, some of which are well known in the history of art, realized from 20,000 to 30,000 francs each. These statistics show that, whereas in London the demand was almost exclusively for modern pictures, in Paris the old masters were rather in the ascendant.—The first portion of a series of mural pictures round the principal court of the Hotel des Invalides has been completed by Benedict Masson. The subjects are taken from the early history of France, and embrace a period from the time of the Druids to the invasion of France by the Normans. Of the same class of works is a series of four pictures representing memorable events in the history of Paris, which Yvon, a battle-painter of reputation, is executing for the Hotel de Ville in Paris. In addition to the usual exhibitions of pictures in Paris during the season, one of water-color drawings was opened in September, which contained no fewer than three hundred works by Hildebrandt, a German artist of considerable repute in this department.—Among the architectural improvements in the French metropolis may be mentioned the restoration of the Cathedral of Notre Dame, and the completion of the new chapel of the Palais de l'Elysée. The former is now beginning for the first time in several centuries to appear to advantage; the latter is an unusually successful attempt to revive the Byzantine style, and is rich in marbles and in mosaics of saints and sacred personages.—The principal contribution to plastic art during the year was the monument of Napoleon Bonaparte and his family, erected in the town of Ajaccio. It consists of an equestrian statue, ten feet high, of the emperor, surrounded by statues, seven feet high, of his four brothers, all cast in bronze furnished from cannon taken in the Italian campaigns of 1859. The general arrangements were made by M. Viollet le Duc, and the sculptures are the work respectively of MM. Barye, sen., Thomas, J. Pettit, Maillet, and Dubray. A statue of Dr. Jenner by Eugène Paul has been erected at Boulogne, and one of Arago at Estragel, near Perpignan, his birthplace.—The most remarkable and widely known effort of French art produced during the year, was Gustave Doré's series of designs for the illustrated edition of the Bible, published by M. Mame, at an outlay of 600,000 francs. Of this sum 91,900 francs were paid to the artist for his designs, two hundred and twenty-eight in number. The latter, though somewhat unequal in merit, are as a whole wonderfully effective, and exhibit a fertility of invention which, considering the rapidity with which they were prepared, has perhaps never been excelled. The engraving of each plate cost from 1,000 to 1,400 francs. The work was edited by M. Mame from pure love of art, without the least expectation of realizing any profit therefrom, and with the hope only of recovering the money expended

It has nevertheless proved a substantial success, from two to three thousand copies having been sold by the close of the year, a number of which were orders from England and America.

GERMANY.—The extensive series of frescoes commenced years ago by Kaulbach, in the New Museum at Berlin, is rapidly approaching completion. One of the smaller pictures gives a curious illustration of the kind of humor in which this artist occasionally indulges. It represents Germany absorbed in reading Humboldt's "Cosmos," and letting the imperial crown fall off her head in the abstraction caused by her studies. Underneath, the various small States that compose the Confederation are stretching out their heads as far as possible, to escape from under a hat which is coming down upon them—an allusion to the popular phrase of uniting the whole of Germany "under one hat." A new National Museum is to be erected in the rear of the building which contains these works.—A monument has been erected at Harlaching, near Nuremberg, in honor of Claude Lorraine, who passed some time there. Statues of the deceased architects Von Gärtner and Von Kleuze are to be erected in Munich, at the cost of the ex-king Ludwig; and a mausoleum for the body of the late king Maximilian, to be executed by the architect Riedel, is to be placed in the church of the Theatines. An important report has been made by a commission appointed by the king of Bavaria to test the process proposed by Professor Pettenkofer for cleaning pictures, and which consists simply in exposing the canvas to the vapor of alcohol. The defects noticed in old oil paintings, it is now known, are due to the loss of molecular cohesion; and the fumes of the alcohol, by causing the molecules to reunite, restore the optical effect of the original. The result is that the cracked and broken surface of the varnish is replaced by a continuous one. The commissioners recommend the process, which they tried upon more than fifty pictures, "as the rational groundwork of the future means of regeneration and conservation of the Bavarian State pictures," and as a help to the restorer's art, rather than a substitute for it. An equestrian statue of Gen. "Stonewall" Jackson is in progress at Nuremberg, by a young sculptor of that place, named Volk, who was in the rebel service as draughtsman during the late civil war in America, and took a cast from the face of Jackson after death.—The destruction by fire of the ducal palace at Brunswick, with all its magnificent furniture and a large number of valuable pictures and other works of art, involved also the loss of Rietschel's noble bronze group of "Brunonia," the patron goddess of the place, and a present from the people of Brunswick to their sovereign. It consisted of a colossal figure in a car drawn by four colossal horses, and was completed only a few months before its destruction.—A statue of the late Prince Albert was dedicated at Coburg on August 27th, his birthday, in presence of Queen Victoria and the

principal personages of the royal houses of England and Saxe-Coburg. The work was cast in bronze at Nuremberg, from a design by Theed.

BELGIUM.—Some of the principal Belgian artists are now engaged in executing important public commissions. De Keyser, President of the Antwerp Academy of Arts, is engaged upon a series of pictures for the vestibule of that institution; Baron Leys is decorating one of the apartments of the Hotel de Ville at Antwerp; and Slingeneer is at work on a series for a public edifice in Brussels. In the latter city a monument to Counts Egmont and Horn is to be erected, to include four figures, the two nobles and two soldiers. A statue of Teniers, by Ducaju, is to be erected in one of the squares of Antwerp, by command of the late King Leopold.

ITALY.—Among the great works in sculpture in progress at Rome during 1865, was Tenerani's monument to the memory of Pius VIII., which, by the close of the year, was nearly completed; and the colossal group, consisting of the Saviour and the two chief apostles, with the Pope kneeling in front, will shortly be placed above the door, in the church of St. Peter's, leading from one of the aisles to the sacristy. Another example of sculpture lately erected in St. Peter's, is a colossal statue of St. Angela Merice, founder of the Ursuline nuns; a venerable and dignified figure, affording a striking contrast to a young girl standing near her. This group is by Galli. Rome still continues to be the headquarters of many foreign sculptors, prominent among whom are W. W. Story, Miss Harriet Hosmer, and others from the United States. One of the chief commissions with which Story is now occupied, is a statue of Edward Everett, to be cast in bronze, for several gentlemen in Boston. A colossal bronze-gilt statue of Hercules, lately exhumed, it has been finally decided by the Roman Pontifical Archaeological Academy shall be designated the "Mastai Hercules," in honor of the family name of Pope Pius IX., and be placed in the Vatican. It is supposed to be identical with a famous statue of Hercules, known as the Great Protector of the Flaminian Circus, and to which oracular powers were assigned. In respect of execution it is said to be superior to any thing yet discovered in Rome. Even the Apollo Belvidere and the bas-reliefs of the Pantheon, though of a purer style, lack the incomparable finish of this statue. Another recent discovery is that of the foundations of a temple of Jupiter in the garden of the Caffarelli Palace. The Sciarra Palace was recently partially destroyed by fire, but its fine gallery, containing masterpieces by Raphael, Titian, Leonardo da Vinci, Caravaggio, etc., escaped injury.—In Mantua, a celebrated picture by Raphael, the "Madonna di Loreto," which has long been missing, has been accidentally discovered in a broker's shop. It measures three feet by four, and when found was covered with a thick coat of paint, apparently put on designedly. After

the removal of this, the picture presented indubitable evidence of being a work in Raphael's best manner.—At Florence sculpture is successfully practised by a number of American artists, some of whom have been long resident in the city. Of these the oldest is Hiram Powers, who is much employed in executing copies of his chief works, and who is now engaged upon a new ideal bust of "Clytie." W. T. Hart, of Kentucky, known by his statue of Henry Clay, at New Orleans, has been modelling an ideal group representing the triumph of Virtue over Love, and has nearly finished in marble a copy of his Henry Clay, for the city of Louisville. Thomas Ball, of Boston, has been engaged upon a statue of Edwin Forrest, of heroic size, as he appeared in the part of "Coriolanus;" and also upon a statuette, three feet high, of President Lincoln freeing the slave; and a head for a colossal statue of Edward Everett, to be eight and a half feet in height and in an attitude of oratory. J. A. Jackson is engaged in reproducing in marble his group of "Eve and Abel;" and Colonel Henry, of Kentucky, who served as a cavalry officer during three years of the American civil war, and suffered nearly a year's imprisonment in Richmond, has produced a successful bust of President Lincoln, and an ideal piece representing "A Libby Prisoner listening to Kilpatrick's Guns." He is now engaged on a bas-relief of a "Soldier's Dream in the Libby Prison." The inauguration of the monument raised in Florence in honor of Dante, took place on May 14th, the six hundredth anniversary of his birth, in the presence of King Victor Emanuel and deputies from every province, town, academy, society, and important institution in the kingdom.—Early in the year reports were extensively circulated of important excavations and discoveries in Pompeii, which proved to be unfounded. During the greater part of the year, in consequence of a want of funds, no excavations of importance were undertaken; but the slight amount of work done served to discover a life-size equestrian statue, in bronze, pronounced to be a representation of the Emperor Nero, and which is soon to be set up in the Naples Museum. The face and general attitude of the figure resemble the well-known statue of Marcus Aurelius in Rome, which, however, is upward of a century later in date.—During some excavations in the little town of Civita Lavinia, built on the ruins of Lanuvium, a colossal statue of the Emperor Claudius was discovered. The figure is upright, resting on the right leg, and is draped with a great cloak, which, falling over the left shoulder, leaves the breast naked. Its dignified position well suits the type of Jove, under whose attributes the emperor is represented, with a crown of oak leaves on his head and the eagle at his feet. The hands, which, with the arms, a portion of the drapery, and the upper part of the eagle, are unfortunately missing, undoubtedly held some emblems of the power of the father of the gods. The statue appears to

have been anciently restored, but it was never completely finished behind, from which circumstance it is to be inferred that it originally occupied a niche, as the front parts are worked to perfection. The features especially are transcribed with marvellous accuracy and fidelity, and serve by their expression to confirm all that ancient historians have transmitted to us respecting the stupidity of the Emperor Claudius, of whom a more faithful portrait cannot be found in any of the sculpture galleries of Rome.

UNITED STATES.—During the recent war the Fine Arts witnessed a very considerable development in the United States, the result in part of the intellectual activity which the contest promoted, and in a very considerable degree also of the abundance and wide diffusion of paper money. Contrary to general expectation, painters and sculptors found a ready market for their productions, and at one period the mania for collecting became so prevalent that large numbers of pictures by modern European artists were imported into the country, and sold at what seemed enormous prices even in the inflated currency which formed the circulating medium. During the latter part of 1863 and the first six months of 1864, upwards of thirty collections of pictures were disposed of at auction, in the city of New York, realizing, probably, not less than half a million of dollars, and at an advance of from fifty to one hundred per cent. on the original cost. The most important of these sales was that of Mr. John Wolfe's gallery, comprising principally excellent specimens of the best modern French, German, and Belgian painters, which realized \$114,000 in currency—equivalent, at the commencement of 1864, to about \$75,000 in specie. The success of this sale was a great incentive to other collectors to dispose of their works; but the sums realized by the Wolfe gallery, even when reduced to a specie basis, were too high to become a recognized standard of value; and gradually, as the market became overstocked, prices declined to their normal rate.

The succeeding year witnessed comparatively few public sales in the chief art emporiums, and a much lower scale of prices. In consequence, however, of the demand so prevalent in 1864, large numbers of foreign pictures continued to be imported, which were sold at prices affording a fair remuneration to the dealers. These works were confined almost exclusively to the modern German, French, and Belgian schools, the prominent painters of which are already so well known in the United States that no considerable collection is without specimens by one or more of them. Notwithstanding the intimate commercial relations between the United States and Great Britain, the demand for pictures by British painters is so slight that probably not more than one of them is imported into the country where twenty of the productions of Continental schools

are received. There was no time during 1865 when the exhibition rooms of the picture dealers in New York, Boston, or Philadelphia, did not contain a fair proportion of the latter. The rise in value has not been confined to foreign importations, but native artists have asked and obtained much higher prices than ever before; and in many cases, notwithstanding the influx of European works, have received commissions beyond their ability to execute immediately. Thus, contrary to general expectation, but not contrary to the experience of other nations under similar conditions, art flourished during a civil war of unexampled magnitude to a degree never before witnessed in the country; and to the list of reputable artists who were before the public in 1861, the names of not a few of considerable promise had been added at the close of 1865. At the commencement of the war American painting was practised almost exclusively in three departments, landscape, portraiture, and *genre*, the first named being cultivated much more extensively than the other two; and the close of the struggle found the practice relatively the same. The year 1865 proved no exception in this respect, and to the surprise of most persons, who looked for some new development of aim, or some higher influence imparted by the war, pictures identical in character with those of the last decade continued to be produced, the only difference being that the number was increased and the quality considerably improved. Scarcely a picture of the large, historic type familiar to European galleries has issued from the studio of an American painter; and of the few battle pieces or pictures illustrating the dramatic episodes of the war which have been painted, nearly all were the work of foreign artists residing in the country. Humorous incidents, however, and subjects suggested by the camp, the bivouac, or the march, have found some capable illustrators. The tragic or pathetic element, except as developed in the numerous clever designs for the illustrated newspapers, seems to be that with which the artistic mind of the country is unable or unwilling to grapple. In the most exciting periods of the war, when public attention was absorbed with grave events, American artists seemed most occupied in reproducing on the canvas the beautiful scenery of their country; and even the young members of the profession, just coming upon the stage, who might be supposed to be influenced more strongly than their older brethren by the ideas and feelings to which the epoch has given birth, were content to follow in the beaten path marked out by their predecessors. Of the causes which have contributed to produce this result two only need be mentioned here: 1. The time is not yet ripe for the intellectual fruits, whether in the domain of art or of literature, of which the great rebellion has sown the seeds. 2. The art genius of the nation has been so exclusively developed in the department of landscape painting that

it cannot be immediately diverted into other channels.

As the commercial centre and metropolis of the country, the city of New York has, of late years, become the chief market for the disposal of foreign as well as domestic works of art, and is the residence of a larger body of artists, and the receptacle probably of a greater number of art treasures than can be found elsewhere. The value of the collections made by several of its private citizens already forms a large item in estimating the wealth of the city, and to these collections very considerable additions were made in 1865. A fresh impulse was also given to the development of native talent by the opening, on April 27th, of the new building recently erected by the National Academy of Design, at the corner of Twenty-third Street and Fourth Avenue, on the occasion of the fortieth annual exhibition of that institution. The building is worthy of note as one of the first attempts in the United States to apply the revived Gothic style, now so prevalent in Europe, to a purely secular structure. It is of rectangular shape, and to the casual observer is noticeable chiefly for the pleasing contrasts of gray and white marble, and the tasteful sculptures of its exterior walls. So marked is the contrast in these respects with the great majority of American public buildings that the new Academy has been justly considered to commemorate a new era in national architecture, and to be as deserving of attention as the pictures and sculptures of which it is destined to become the receptacle. The interior, though less capacious than will probably satisfy the needs of so considerable an art emporium as New York promises to become, is sufficient for present purposes, and is well arranged for displaying its contents to advantage. The building was designed by Mr. P. B. Wight, and erected at a cost of over two hundred thousand dollars. The exhibition of 1865 comprised 616 pictures, drawings, and designs, and 81 works in sculpture, and was one of the most satisfactory and attractive in the history of the Academy, notwithstanding the absence from its galleries of works by several prominent contributors of former years. As usual, landscape predominated, with every variety of treatment, from academic generalization to the most advanced pre-Raphaelitism. Portraiture and *genre* were also well represented, but of historical pieces the specimens were few and of no very promising quality. The National Academy is now in the forty-first year of its existence, and numbers 76 academicians and 79 associates. Among the former may be mentioned Bierstadt, Church, Cropsey, Durand, Gifford, Gignoux, Hart, Kensett, and Mignot, landscape painters; Baker, Elliott, Hicks, Staigg, and Stone, portrait painters; Darley, Gray, Leutze, Page, Weir, and White, painters of history or ideal subjects; Dana, Hennessy, Eastman Johnson, and Mount, painters of *genre*; and Brown, Rogers, Thompson, and

Ward, sculptors. Its associates comprise a number of young men of promise who are destined to make their mark at no distant day. Early in the year "Historic Annals" of the Academy were published by Thomas S. Cummings, one of its founders. In November, a collection of pictures was exhibited in the same building, in aid of the Artists' Fund Society, and, in the succeeding month, some sixty works contributed to it by members, were sold at auction for \$7,500. At various times also, during the year, conspicuous works by Bierstadt, Huntington, Rossiter, Leutze, Hope, Carpenter, Cropsey, Hart, and others, were elsewhere in the city on public view, besides miscellaneous collections by native and foreign artists. Carpenter exhibited a large picture of President Lincoln and his Cabinet, painted from careful sittings by all the persons represented; and Leutze, one of Mr. Lincoln in the act of delivering an address in front of the Capitol at Washington. Hope's picture represented the encampment of the "Army of the Potomac" at Cumberland Landing, on the Pamunkey, in May, 1862. Under the auspices of a London Committee, comprising such artists as Stanfield, MacIise, and Goodall, an exhibition of modern paintings by English, French, and Flemish masters was, in December, opened in the Studio Building, Tenth Street. It was the fourth of its kind held in New York, and, apart from its usefulness in developing a system of international exhibitions of art, and thereby educating the American public in a knowledge of the different European schools, has doubtless proved an incentive to American artists to work with a higher aim and in wider fields. Among the artists represented were MacIise, Millais, Hughes, Frith, and Leighton, of the English school; Meissonnier, Frère, Gérôme, Ary Scheffer, Lambinet, etc., of the French school; and Leys, Gallait, Koller, Lamorinière, etc., of the Belgian school. Though prominent in the annals of modern European art, not all of the above names were adequately represented in the exhibition. A noticeable feature in New York, and generally also in the larger cities, has been the frequent exhibition at the establishments of prominent picture dealers of choice collections of paintings by foreign artists. The noted French painter, Gérôme, was in particular represented by several striking works. In the department of sculpture, several works by Rogers, Ward, and Thompson merit attention. The first of these added to his reputation as a truthful illustrator of incidents and character associated with the late war, by the production of three new groups: "Midnight on the Border," "Taking the Oath," and "The Bushwhacker." An exhibition of his principal designs in London, during the summer, elicited high encomiums from the art critics of that city. Thompson produced a model of a statue of Napoleon I., and Ward one, of heroic size, entitled "The Indian Hunter." The latter it is designed to have cast in bronze by private sub-

scription and placed in the Central Park. To the attractions of this resort is about to be added a hall of statuary in the building formerly employed as a public arsenal, which will contain a collection of casts from the principal works of the late Thomas Crawford. A monument to Shakespeare is also in progress in the Park.

The spring exhibition of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, opened in Philadelphia in April, with a collection of over eight hundred paintings, drawings, and sculptures. "The works sent in by our resident artists," said a local critic, "are generally of a higher class than they have heretofore been. There are a smaller number of absolutely detestable works among them. At the same time, no new man has particularly evidenced any tendency to rise out of the general ring, and we still recognize such artists as Rothermel, Hamilton, and Lambdin, as by their different classes of merit, uncontestedly supreme upon the walls of our yearly exhibition of paintings." In addition to these names, those of Moran, Dana, Bierstadt, Blauvelt, Schussle, and many others of local reputation, were well represented. Later in the season occurred the exhibition of the Philadelphia Sketch Club, containing a meritorious collection of pictures, a portion of which was subsequently transferred to New York for a similar purpose.

The decoration of the Capitol and other public buildings at Washington has made marked progress during the year, notwithstanding a proposition to authorize Mr. Powell to "paint a picture for the Capitol, at a cost not to exceed \$20,000," was defeated in Congress, on the score principally that the present was an inopportune time for appropriations in aid of art. The principal undertaking was the frescoing of the canopy of the Capitol dome by Constantine Brumidi, an artist who has for many years been employed upon the building, and whose designs were several years ago approved by a Congressional committee, and by the then Secretary of the Interior, Hon. Caleb B. Smith. The space allotted to the work comprises an area of six thousand square feet, upon which sixty-three figures of colossal size have been designed, which, however, from the pavement below, a distance of one hundred and sixty-five feet, will appear of ordinary life size. The central figure, in the chief of the several groups which the composition comprises, is a portrait of Washington, in a sitting posture. To his right is seated the Goddess of Liberty, and on the left a female figure representing Victory and Fame, proclaiming freedom. In a semicircle is a group of females, representing the thirteen original sister colonies, bearing aloft a banner on which is inscribed the words *E Pluribus Unum*. Surrounding this under circle, near the base of the design, are six groups representing War, Agriculture, Mechanics, Commerce, the Navy, and Science. In that of War, America, in the shape of the Goddess of Liberty, stands erect.

bearing in one hand a shield and in the other a sword. At her side is the American eagle; beneath her feet are stalwart men, some with the torch of the incendiary in their hands, others crouched by the side of cannon. She treads on an ermine-bordered robe, and the whole is intended to be typical of the downfall of tyranny. The next group is the Arts and Sciences—presided over by the Goddess Minerva. Franklin and Fulton are prominent figures in this group, and various emblems typifying the national advancement in Art and Science are introduced. These descriptions indicate the general character of the whole composition, which is in the classical allegorical style, with abundant illustrations derived from pagan mythology. The work will probably be completed in the spring of 1866. In connection with the subject of the ornamentation of the national Capitol may be mentioned the fact, that the Speaker of the House of Representatives has considered it necessary to inform that body that the superb bronze doors of the rotunda, designed by Crawford, have been recently much mutilated and otherwise injured, chiefly, it is supposed, by relic and curiosity hunters. In view of this vandalism, it has been suggested that the doors should be deposited in some less public place. The art of polychromy has recently been applied to the ceiling of the great central hall of the Patent Office in Washington, by Mr. Shulter, an artist of some experience. The result is described as very beautiful, and the general effect as equal to that of any similar apartment recently ornamented in this style in Europe.

FITZROY, Vice-Admiral ROBERT, a British naval officer, meteorologist, and author, born at Ampton Hall, Suffolk, July 5, 1805, died by his own hand, April 30, 1865. In February, 1818, he entered the Royal Naval College, Portsmouth, where he was awarded a medal for his proficiency in his studies. The following year he was appointed to the "Owen Glendower," then coasting between Brazil and Northern Peru. Subsequently he served upon other vessels, passing through the different grades of promotion until in 1834 he was made captain of the "Beagle," a vessel employed in surveying the shores of Patagonia, Terra del Fuego, Chili, and Peru. During these surveys he expended considerably more than £3,000 out of his private fortune in buying, equipping, and manning small vessels as tenders, to enable him to carry out the orders of the Admiralty, an outlay which was not refunded to him. In 1841 Capt. Fitzroy sat in the House of Commons as member for Dunham, and in the following year was selected to attend the Archduke Frederick of Austria, in his tour through Great Britain. In 1843 he introduced a bill into Parliament for establishing mercantile marine boards, and enforcing the examination of masters and mates in the merchant service, and the same year went out as governor of New Zealand. In 1854, upon the establishment of the meteorological department of the

Board of Trade, Capt. F. was placed at its head, and to him are owing the storm signals and other models of warning that are now in use for the benefit of seamen. His own life, however, was the price of his devotion to his duties. His brain became overtaxed, and while in an unsound state of mind he deliberately cut his own throat. He was the author of a work entitled "Narrative of the Surveying Voyages of H. M. S. 'Adventure,' and 'Beagle,'" four vols.; "Remarks on New Zealand," 1846; and "Sailing Directions for South America," 1858. He was made Rear-Admiral in 1857, and Vice-Admiral in 1863.

FLORIDA. This State was so far removed from the scenes of war, that no event of general importance took place previous to the measures for its reorganization under the Federal Government. On July 13, 1865, President Johnson issued his proclamation appointing William Marvin Provisional Governor of Florida. This proclamation was similar in all respects except the date, name of the State and Provisional Governor, with the one issued relative to Alabama, to which the reader is referred. The Governor soon commenced his duties, and on August 2d delivered an address to the people of Jacksonville. He proposed to make known the plan of the President, and to call their attention to those subjects most essential to their welfare. Confiscation, he said, had been practised on both sides; but, by the failure of the rebellion, all property confiscated by the officers of the Confederacy would now revert to the original owners. Pardon was now offered, with a few exceptions, to all. These exceptions were presumed to be persons of superior intelligence, and with ability to make some effort to secure pardon; persons of greater responsibility and obligations to the State. For himself, he should take pleasure in recommending to the President all who were truly penitent, and gave good evidence of a determination to be good citizens in the future. The decrees of confiscation of houses and lands, which had been entered upon by the Federal authorities in the absence of the owners and without their appearing, would be opened when these owners had been embraced in the amnesty proclamation. They would be allowed to appear and have a full hearing on their merits, and might plead their pardons, if such plea should be deemed admissible in their cases. With the fall of the Confederacy, the black man's bondage has been brought to an end, and he can never be enslaved here again. He had no authority to resuscitate the civil authorities, or to appoint any one to an office beyond what was necessary to the calling of the State Convention. His business was to assist them to inaugurate a State Government. He appealed to them to lay aside all revengeful feeling, and to enter with ardor and good faith upon the new order of affairs. On the next day the Governor issued the following proclamation to the people, stating the details of the plan upon which he intended to proceed:

8. A constitution, republican in form, having been made, altered, or amended, and adapted to the new order of things, the convention will provide, by a schedule, for the election of a Governor and General Assembly, and for the reorganization of a permanent State government.

9. By the operations and results of the war slavery has ceased to exist in the State. It cannot be revived. Every voter for delegates to the convention, in taking the amnesty oath, takes a solemn oath to support the freedom of the former slave. The freedom intended is the full, ample, and complete freedom of a citizen of the United States. This does not necessarily include the privilege of voting; but it does include the idea of full constitutional guarantees of future possession and quiet enjoyment. The question of his voting is an open question—a proper subject for discussion—and is to be decided as a question of sound policy by the convention to be called.

10. Upon the establishment of a republican form of State government, under a constitution which guarantees and secures liberty to all the inhabitants alike, without distinction of color, there will no longer exist any impediment in the way of restoring the State to its proper constitutional relations to the Government of the United States, whereby its people will be entitled to protection by the United States against invasion, insurrection, and domestic violence.

Given at Tallahassee, Florida, this 23d day of August, 1865.

WILLIAM MARVIN, Provisional Governor.
SAMUEL J. DOUGLAS, Private Secretary.

The members of the Convention, thus called, were duly elected on October 10th, and assembled at Tallahassee on the 25th. The Convention was organized by the election of E. D. Tracy, of Nassau County, as president, with other officers. The Provisional Governor, Marvin, in his message to that body, stated that the former slave had become free, and in the reestablishment of the State Government it was necessary to recognize that fact, and to frame the Constitution accordingly. It was expected they would declare in the Constitution that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except for crime, shall exist. He recommended that the Constitution should define, with as much accuracy as possible, what the civil rights and political privileges of the emancipated negro should be. He said: "It may be difficult to define, with any degree of accuracy, wherein freedom in society and under an organized government consists. But I think it may be said, in general terms, to consist chiefly, in the right to be protected, by constitutional law, in the enjoyment of life, in the acquisition by honest industry of property, in its possession and transmission to heirs, in a right to personal security and locomotion, and, generally, in a right to improve one's intellectual, moral, and religious condition, and to pursue happiness according to one's own ideas of happiness, not interfering with the exercise of the same right on the part of others. But freedom does not necessarily include the idea of a participation in the affairs of Government. The privilege of voting at elections, the capacity to hold office, or to sit on juries, are not essential rights of freedom. They are privileges conferred or duties enjoined upon certain persons or classes of persons by the supreme power

of the State, for and on account of the public good; and the persons or classes of persons upon whom these privileges are conferred or these duties enjoined, may be increased or diminished, within reasonable limits, without impairing rights of freedom, according as that power may determine. Persons may be free, without the capacity to hold office, to sit on a jury, or to vote at elections. The English people are free, and yet not one-tenth of the adult male population are entitled by law to vote at elections or to sit on juries. In our own State, foreigners are not entitled to vote or to sit on juries until they have been naturalized, yet they are free; women and children are not entitled to vote, or hold office, or sit on a jury, yet they are free." He also recommended the adoption of the Federal Constitutional amendment relative to slavery; that negroes should be admitted to testify in courts of justice, and that the Convention should adopt suitable measures to guard the two races against discriminations to be made between them by the courts or the Legislature in any matter touching their rights. He further recommended the passage of an ordinance declaring that the ordinance called the Ordinance of Secession, passed by a convention of the people on the 10th day of January, 1861, was and is null and void; and an additional ordinance annulling or ratifying such other ordinances, acts of the Legislature, and judicial proceedings, as the interest of the State might require.

The Convention, in the progress of its business, adopted the following ordinance relative to secession:

Whereas, the people of the State of Florida are anxious in good faith to restore the State to her former peaceful relations with the United States; therefore,

Be it ordained by the people of the State of Florida, in convention assembled, That the ordinance adopted by the convention of the people on the 10th day of January, 1861, known as the Secession Ordinance, be and the same is hereby annulled.

On the passage of the ordinance, an amendment was moved to substitute the words "is null and void" in place of "annulled." The motion failed to pass, and the vote on the passage of the ordinance was unanimous.

The following ordinance in relation to slavery was also adopted:

Whereas, slavery has been destroyed in this State by the Government of the United States; therefore,

Be it ordained by the people of the State of Florida, in convention assembled, That neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall in future exist in this State, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been convicted by the Courts of the State; and all the inhabitants of the State, without distinction of color, are free, and shall enjoy the rights of person and property without distinction of color.

In the preamble the words "by the Government of the United States" were added as an amendment to the report of the committee, on the motion of a member, who "wished the world to know that the abolition of slavery by the people of Florida was not a voluntary act

on their part, but a compulsory measure adopted in obedience to the commands of the President, after slavery had been destroyed by the military power of the Government." This amendment was adopted, by a vote of 20 yeas to 14 nays.

The following ordinance repudiating the State debt was also adopted. The vote was—yeas 33; nays 9. Its adoption was understood to be the desire of the Federal Government, otherwise it would not have been passed by the Convention:

Be it ordained by the people of Florida, in convention assembled, That all State Treasury notes issued, and all other liabilities contracted by the State of Florida, on or after the 10th day of January, A. D. 1861, to the 25th day of October, A. D. 1865, except such liabilities as are provided for by this Constitution, be and are declared void, and the General Assembly shall have no power to provide for the payment of the same, or any part thereof.

The following ordinance, defining the position of the freedmen in the courts of justice, was adopted—yeas 26; nays 19:

Be it ordained by the people of Florida, in convention assembled, That, in all criminal proceedings founded upon injury to a colored person, and in all cases affecting the rights or remedies of colored persons, no person shall be incompetent to testify as a witness on account of color. In all other cases, the testimony of colored persons shall be excluded, unless made competent by future legislation. The jury shall judge of the credibility of the testimony.

The Convention further ordered that the election of Governor and other executive officers, Judges of the Supreme and Circuit Courts, Solicitors, Representatives in Congress, and members of the Legislature, should be held on November 29th, and that the Legislature should assemble on the third Monday of December. On November 10th Governor Marvin sent the following despatch to President Johnson:

TALLAHASSEE, FLA., Nov. 13, 1865.

The Convention has annulled the ordinance of secession, abolished slavery, and declared that all the inhabitants of the State, without distinction of color, are free; and that no person shall be incompetent to testify as a witness on account of color in any matter wherein a colored person is concerned.

It has repudiated the State debt contracted in support of the rebellion, amended the constitution in other respects, and adjourned.

WILLIAM MARVIN, Provisional Governor.

During the sessions of the Convention the Governor had reported its progress to the authorities at Washington, and received the following reply:

WASHINGTON, Nov. 1, 1865.

Your letter of October 7 was received and submitted to the President. He is gratified with the favorable progress toward reorganization in Florida, and directs me to say that he regards the ratification by the Legislature of the Congressional amendment of the Constitution of the United States as indispensable to a successful restoration of the true loyal relations between Florida and the other States, and equally indispensable to the return of peace and harmony throughout the republic.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD.

These measures had been ably opposed during their consideration by the Convention, but

their ultimate adoption was satisfactory to the people.

The election, which was held on November 29, resulted in the choice of David S. Walker as Governor, and W. W. J. Kelley as Lieutenant-Governor; Secretary of State, B. F. Allen; Attorney-General, J. B. Galbraith; Comptroller, L. G. Pyles; Treasurer, C. H. Austen; Representative in Congress, Ferdinand McLeod; Judge of Suwanee Circuit, T. T. Long; Judge of Eastern Circuit, E. A. Putnam. Members of the Legislature were also chosen. The entire vote polled was less than 4,000. In 1860 the vote of the State at the Presidential election was 14,847.

The Legislature was organized on December 18th. Provisional Governor Marvin delivered an address, in which he recommended the passage of laws which should secure to freedmen their rights of person and of property, give them an easy and cheap remedy for the collection of wages, and protect them against imposition. At the same time he urged that measures should be devised for obliging the negro to fulfil his contracts, and prevent him from leaving his employer at a time when his services were most needed. On December 21st the newly elected governor, Walker, was duly inaugurated. In his address he recommended the adoption of measures similar to those urged by Provisional Governor Marvin. He opposed the granting of suffrage to the negroes as a measure to which neither an honest nor conscientious consent could be given.

The Legislature elected as Senators to Congress Governor Marvin and Wilkinson McCall. On January 18th the following despatch was sent from President Johnson to Governor Marvin:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, Jan. 13, 1866.

To His Excellency William Marvin, Provisional Governor of the State of Florida, Tallahassee:

SIR: The time has arrived when, in the judgment of the President of the United States, the care and conduct of the proper affairs of the State of Florida may be remitted to the constitutional authorities chosen by the people thereof, without danger to the peace and safety of the United States.

By direction of the President, therefore, you are relieved from the trust which was heretofore reposed in you as Provisional Governor of the State of Florida. Whenever the Governor elect shall have become qualified to discharge the duties of the Executive office, you will transfer the papers and property of the State, now in your custody, to his Excellency Governor Walker. It gives me especial pleasure to convey to you the President's acknowledgments of the fidelity, loyalty, and discretion which have marked your administration.

You will please give me a reply, specifying the day on which this communication is received.

I have the honor to be, your Excellency's most obedient servant,

W. HUNTER,
Acting Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, Jan. 13, 1866.

To His Excellency D. S. Walker, Governor of the State of Florida, Tallahassee:

SIR: By direction of the President, I have the honor herewith to transmit to you a copy of a communication which has been addressed to his Excellency

William Marvin, late Provisional Governor of the State of Florida, whereby he has been relieved of the trust heretofore imposed in him, and directed to deliver into your Excellency's possession the papers and property relating to that trust.

I have the honor to tender to you the coöperation of the Government of the United States whenever it may be found necessary in effecting the early restoration and the permanent prosperity and welfare of the State over which you have been called to preside.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, your most obedient servant,

W. HUNTER, Acting Secretary.

On transferring the office to Governor Walker, Provisional Governor Marvin thus described the condition of affairs:

It is not intended that the militia or volunteer troops shall appear under arms before they have received special orders from myself or the Constitutional Governor, unless in some unforeseen case of justifiable necessity. The admirable disposition made of the white troops of the United States by the General in command will secure the peace and quiet of the State, if the civil authorities do their duty, as I have no doubt they will. The colored troops have nearly all been removed from the interior of the State to the seaboard, and I am assured that the remainder will be just as soon as the interest of the public service will permit it.

He represented the State Government as entering on its new career under great difficulty and embarrassment. The people were greatly impoverished by the war and poorly prepared to pay taxes. The State Treasury was empty. Taxes upon the lands of the State were due to the United States Treasury nearly to the amount of \$77,520. The labor of the State was disorganized and demoralized, and the whole fabric of society more or less disturbed by the constant friction and irritation produced by the new state of affairs. Martial law continued to exist for the higher crimes, and might at any time be extended. He recommended that the Treasury should be replenished by taxation, and that a temporary loan should be obtained for immediate necessities. He further said: "We need to look calmly, dispassionately, and earnestly at our real and true condition, and realize it in all its force, and then we ought patiently, enduringly, and faithfully to labor to improve it."

FRANCE, an empire in Europe: Emperor, Louis Napoleon (Napoleon III.), born April 20, 1808, chosen hereditary Emperor by a "Plébiscite" of 7,864,189 against 231,145 votes, November 21 and 22, 1852: son, Napoleon Eugène Louis Jean Joseph, born March 16, 1856.

There are in the Government of France five divisions: the Emperor, the Ministers, the Council of State, the Senate, and the Legislative Body (*Corps Législatif*). The Ministers, the Members of the Council of State, and those of the Senate, are all nominated solely by the Emperor. The Senate is to consist of no more than one hundred and fifty members, and the Cardinals, Marshals, and Admirals of the Empire belong to it by right of their dignity. The members of the Legislative Body are elected

for the term of six years by general suffrage, at the rate of one member to every 85,000 electors. The Legislative Body, which was chosen in 1863, consists of three hundred and eighty-three members. Its President is Count Walewski, appointed September 1, 1865. At the general election, in 1863, the combined Opposition succeeded in electing about thirty-five of its candidates. Since then, until January, 1866, twenty-seven partial elections have been held in the Departments of the Côte d'Or, Seine, Pyrénées Orientales, Bas-Rhin, Vosges, Nord, Gard, Dordogne, Ardèche, Aude, Bas-de-Calais, Finisterre, Charente Inférieure, Calvados, Marne, Puy-de-Dôme, Landes, Oise, Bases-Pyrénées, Aisne, and Yonne. These diverse electoral districts are spread over all France, and may therefore be considered as indicative of the progress of public opinion throughout the country. In 1863 those twenty-seven districts gave 546,000 votes to the Government, and only 200,000 to the independent candidates; whereas the same districts gave in the partial elections 455,000 votes to the former, and 298,000 to the latter, showing a transfer of about 100,000 votes from the one to the other, and reducing the difference to the credit of the official nominees, which was 346,000 votes, to 157,000. In 1863 the independent candidates obtained a majority in only three of the twenty-seven districts, namely, those of the Seine. In the partial elections, the independent or Opposition candidates were elected in eleven of those districts, viz., those of the Seine, in the Côte-d'Or, Bas-Rhin, Vosges, Nord, Charente Inférieure, Marne, Puy-de-Dôme, Aisne.

The area of France amounts to 207,283 square miles. The population, according to the census of 1861, was 37,382,225 souls. The French Government takes a census every five years, or twice as often as that of the United States or Great Britain. It appears from comparative returns that the French population increases very slowly compared with some other countries. The following statistics exhibit the number of inhabitants in France, at each census, from 1836 to 1861:

	Census of Population.	Increase.	Annual Increase Per cent.
1836.....	33,540,910		
1841.....	34,280,143	639,269	0.41
1846.....	35,400,476	1,110,898	0.63
1851.....	35,758,170	852,684	0.28
1856.....	36,189,964	845,194	0.28
1861.....	36,917,254	577,580	0.28

From these returns it appears that during the period from 1851 to 1861 the population of France has increased only about 2.7 per cent., while the population of the United States during the ten years from 1850 to 1860 increased 35.58 per cent. The French census furnishes some singular facts, showing the disinclination of the population of the empire to emigrate. Of the 36,864,678 souls composing the purely French population of the empire, but 3,883,579 were domiciled out of the departments where they

were born; more than 88 per cent. of the entire population were living in their departments. The agricultural population of France is set down at 58.15 per cent. of the whole; the manufacturing 29.42; the commercial 4.11; the various professions 4.15, and the clergy 0.5. Statistical returns show that in England the agricultural population is about 25 per cent. of the whole, and it is stated that on the Continent the proportions fluctuate, in the different countries, between 30 and 40 per cent.

Algeria, which is divided into the three provinces of Algiers, Constantine, and Oran, has a population of 2,999,124 inhabitants, of whom (1864) 204,877 were Europeans.

The Government of France is constantly extending the frontier of its colonies, as will be seen by comparing the following table with that given in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864:

COLONIES (1865).	Hectares.	Population.
Asia.....	2,284,968	1,728,870
Africa.....	27,942,460	757,512
America.....	29,108,913	806,912
Oceania.....	2,130,000	65,000
Total.....	60,868,885	2,588,294

Under the protectorate of France are the following countries:

	Hectares.	Population.
Asia—Cambodia.....	3,000,000	1,000,000
Africa—Porto Novo, on the Gold Coast.....		20,000
Oceania—Society Islands.....	117,472	10,847
Touboval Islands (2).....	10,200	550
Pomotou " (19).....	2,556,722	8,000
Gambier " (6).....	72,080	1,500
Total.....	7,736,514	1,040,897

The budget for 1866, as voted by the Senate and the Legislative Body, was as follows:

	RECEIPTS.	EXPENSES.
	FRANCE.	FRANCE.
Ordinary Budget.....	1,982,987,155	1,981,418,508
Extraordinary Budget....	151,805,011	142,718,800
	2,064,792,166	2,051,187,603

Surplus of receipts, 3,654,558.

According to the budget of the Minister of War for 1866, the army was composed as follows:

	PEACE FOOTING.		WAR FOOTING.	
	Men.	Horses.	Men.	Horses.
Staff.....	1,846	160	1,914	
General Staff.....	24,791	14,769	25,688	15,000
Infantry.....	220,454	826	515,085	
Cavalry.....	62,792	47,612	100,221	65,000
Artillery.....	89,696	16,646	66,192	49,838
Engineers.....	8,419	1,119	15,443	1,400
Military Equipments.....	5,655	5,496	15,829	12,000
Administration.....	10,511	240	17,536	
	404,155	56,868	757,798	142,238

The navy, on January 1, 1865, was, according to the Gotha Almanac for 1866, as follows:

	No.	Guns.	Horse power.
Iron-clad screw steamers, } built or building.....	51	952	19,985
Screw steamers, not iron-clad..	240	4,667	63,929
Side-wheel steamers.....	84	474	17,880
Sailing vessels.....	97	1,433	

The Blue Book presented to the Legislative Body by the Government in 1866 has the following remarks on the navy: "During the year 1865 the construction of vessels for the new fleet has continued to the extent of the credits allowed. The bases adopted in 1867 have been completed by new types of iron-clad vessels more especially intended, some for distant missions, others for the defence of our ports, roadsteads, and rivers. Two of those war vessels, belonging to the category of those inserted in the tables presented in past years in the statement of the situation of the empire, have therefore been built; an iron-clad corvette, and a coast-guard vessel with a spur. The number of vessels in this fleet, which (exclusive of gunboats) was 123 on the 31st December, 1864, is 129 on the 31st December, 1865. They are subdivided as follows:

	Fast Vessels.	Mixed Vessels.	Total.
Iron-clad frigates.....	10		10
Iron-clad corvettes.....	1		1
Coast-guard iron-clad rams.....	1		1
Ships of the line, not iron-clad.....	13	23	36
Frigates, not iron-clad.....	18	6	24
Corvettes, not iron-clad.....	11		11
Advice-boats, not iron-clad.....	46		46
Totals.....	100	29	129

Thus the new fleet has been increased by six finished vessels, viz.: three iron-clad frigates, of 1,000 horses' power; one iron corvette, of 500 horses' power; one iron-clad coast-guard, of 500 horses' power; one corvette, not iron-clad, of 500 horses' power. The steam fleet comprises, now finishing or afloat, 11 vessels, of 7,050 horses' power. Lastly, the steam fleet on the stocks counts 28 vessels, in different degrees of advancement."

The general and special commerce of France with the countries of America during the year 1863 was as follows (value expressed in millions of francs):

COUNTRIES.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	General Com.	Special Com.	General Com.	Special Com.
United States of America....	92.1	51.5	107.9	94.2
Mexico.....	4.9	4.3	22.9	16.4
Guatemala.....	1.6	0.8	0.1	
Haiti.....	37.4	23.7	14.8	11
Brazil.....	54.6	57.7	61.7	58.8
Argentine Republic.....	52.6	51.2	44.4	32.9
Uruguay.....	33.6	32.7	28.4	16.7
Chil.....	7.2	7.6	34.8	23.7
Peru.....	34.5	30.1	83	25.8
Bolivia.....	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2
Ecuador.....	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
United States of Colombia..	1.9	1.1	6	5.2
Venezuela.....	7.8	5.7	6.6	5.2

The commerce with some of the leading countries of Europe was as follows (value expressed in millions of francs):

Russia.....	81.8	62.3	84.1	80.4
German Zollverein.....	265	189.7	228.9	208.8
Great Britain.....	691	593.6	1,089.8	796.6
Belgium.....	860.7	267.7	245.8	210.6
Italy.....	247.3	204.3	254.2	287.8

The total commerce of France, during the year 1863, was (value expressed in millions of francs):

Imports—General Commerce.....	3,236.4
Special Commerce.....	2,426.4
Exports—General Commerce.....	3,526.4
Special Commerce.....	2,662.5

The movements of shipping during 1864 were as follows:

VESSELS.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
French.....	13,314	1,979,145	13,540	2,069,648
Foreign.....	13,821	2,781,897	19,058	2,892,719
Total.....	32,135	4,760,542	32,598	4,962,367

The merchant navy, on December 31, 1863, consisted of:

	Ships.	Tonnage.
Sailing Vessels.....	14,747	900,817
Steamers.....	845	84,918
Total.....	15,592	985,235
Coasting Vessels.....	8,005	53,199

The speech of the Emperor, on receiving the diplomatic corps, on January 2, 1865, did not contain any remarks of prominent interest. The Emperor promised to make every effort that his relations with foreign powers should "be ever animated by respect for right, and love of peace and justice."

The Minister of Public Worship, J. Baroche, on January 1st, sent a circular to all the French bishops, stating that the Papal Encyclical of December 8, 1864, contained propositions contrary to the principles on which the constitution of the empire reposed, and that the reception and publication of such documents could not be authorized. The bishops were, at the same time, requested to transmit to the clergy the necessary recommendations to abstain from observations that might lead to regrettable interpretations. A number of bishops did not comply with this request, but published the entire Encyclical in their dioceses. The letters of several were referred by the Government to the Council of State, as exceeding the legal functions of the bishops, and the French Minister in Rome was instructed to complain to the Papal Government, of two letters addressed by the Papal Nuncio in Paris, to the Bishops of Orleans and Poitiers, as constituting an infraction both of international law and of the public law of France. The controversy was subsequently settled in an amicable way.

The French Chambers were opened by the Emperor on February, 15th. The following are the most important passages of his address:

The Roman Question.—In the centre of Europe the action of France ought to be exercised more reso-

lutely. I wish to render possible the solution of a difficult problem. The Convention of 15th September, disentangled from passionate interpretations, consecrates two great principles—the strengthening of the new kingdom of Italy and the independence of the Holy See. The provisional and precarious state which excited so many alarms is about to disappear. It is no longer separate members of the Italian country seeking to be united, by feeble bonds, to a little state at the foot of the Alps; it is a great country, which, elevating itself above local prejudices, and scorning thoughtless impulses, boldly transports its capital to the heart of the Peninsula, and places it in the midst of the Apennines as in an impregnable citadel. By that act of patriotism Italy constitutes herself definitively, and, at the same time, reconciles herself with Catholicity. She engages to respect the independence of the Holy See, to protect the frontiers of the Roman States, and thus permits us to withdraw our troops. The Pontifical territory, efficaciously guaranteed, is placed under the safeguard of a treaty, which solemnly binds the two Governments. The Convention is not then an arm of war, but a work of peace and conciliation.

Algeria.—In Africa, a sudden insurrection has intervened to trouble the security of our possessions, and show how ignorant certain tribes still are both of our force and our benevolent intentions. It is at the moment when, by a spirit of generous justice, we were assuring the property of the soil to the Arab population; when, by liberal measures, we attempted to make that abused people comprehend that, far from oppressing, we wish to call it to the benefit of civilization—it is at that moment, I say, that, misled by religious fanaticism, the neighboring Arabs of the desert raised the standard of revolt. In spite of the difficulties of the places and the severity of the weather, our army, conducted with ability, soon gave an account of the insurrection; and, after the combat, no bloody repression, no useless severity saddened the victory. The zeal of the experienced chief placed at the head of Algeria, the unity of the restored command, the declaration of the generous designs of France, every thing will concur, I hope, to prevent the return of the like disorders.

Religion and Public Instruction.—Religion and public instruction are the objects of my constant pre-occupation. All the forms of worship enjoy an equal liberty. The Catholic clergy exercises, even beyond its own ministry, a legitimate influence. By the law of instruction it gives its concurrence in the education of youth; by the electoral law it may enter the public councils; by the constitution it has a seat in the Senate. But the more we surround it with consideration and deference the more we count upon its respecting the fundamental laws of the State. It is my duty to maintain intact the rights of the civil power, which since St. Louis no sovereign of France has ever abandoned. The development of public instruction deserves your care. In the country of universal suffrage every citizen ought to be able to read and write. A project of law will be presented to you still further to disseminate primary instruction.

Agriculture and Commerce.—It is thus that we shall be able to remove the partial distress under which agriculture suffers. Some attribute this distress to the suppression of the sliding scale. They forget that in 1851, when the sliding scale still existed, the price of corn was considerably lower, and that this year even exportations of grain exceed greatly the importations. It is, on the contrary, due to a liberal legislation, due to the impulse given to all the elements of national wealth, that our foreign commerce, which in 1851 amounted to 2,614,000,000*fr.*, amounts to-day to the prodigious figure of more than 7,000,000,000*fr.*

Individual Liberty.—Passing to another order of ideas, measures will be proposed to you which will have for their object to increase the guarantees of

individual liberty. The first authorizes admission to provisional liberty, with or without guarantee even; in criminal matters it will diminish the rigor of preventive detention. The second suppresses the *contrainte par corps* (personal detention) in civil and commercial matters—an innovation which is, however, but the reappearance of a very ancient principle. From the earliest stages of Rome it was decided that the property, and not the body of the debtor, should be held responsible for the debt.

The Policy of the Imperial Government.—Let us continue, then, to follow the path traced out abroad. Let us live in peace with the different powers, and only allow the voice of France to be heard for right and justice. At home let us protect religious ideas without yielding up in any way the rights of the civil power, diffuse instruction in all classes of society, simply without destroying our admirable administrative system, give to the communes and the departments a life more independent—arouse individual initiative, and the spirit of association, and finally elevate the soul and the body of the nation. But while making ourselves the ardent promoters of useful reform, let us maintain with firmness the basis of the constitution. Let us oppose the exaggerated tendencies of those who provoke changes with the sole object of sapping that which we have founded. Utopia is to good what illusion is to truth; and progress is not the realization of a theory more or less ingenious, but the application of the results of experience, consecrated by time, and accepted by public opinion.

Both the Senate and the Legislative Body adopted addresses to the Emperor, reiterating the views of the imperial speech, and expressing unbounded confidence in the policy of the Government by an almost unanimous vote. In the Legislative Body, several subjects of the address, especially the one on Mexico, were severely and brilliantly attacked by members of the liberal Opposition, but without effect. Considerable interest was awakened by a speech on the Roman question by M. Thiers, who attacked the unity of Italy, and demanded continued protection of the temporal power of the Pope; but the majority of the Legislative Body, as well as of the Senate, sustained the Government in this as well as in every other question. Two prominent members of the liberal Opposition, Olivier and Darimon, separated in some questions from their party, recognizing the Imperial Government as the true expression of the popular will, and promising it their entire support, in case it should adopt a more liberal policy. The session of the Legislative Corps was closed on July 4th.

The report of the assassination of President Lincoln produced a great excitement in the French Chambers. In the Legislative Body of June 1st, M. Rouher, Minister of State, and M. Schneider, the acting President, made themselves the interpreters of the horror and indignation which the whole nation felt with regard to the crime. "Abraham Lincoln," said M. Rouher, "displayed in that unfortunate struggle which distracts his country, that calm firmness, that indomitable energy, which is the characteristic of great souls, and the necessary condition of the accomplishment of great duties. On the morrow of victory he showed himself generous, moderate, conciliatory. He was anxious

to bring the war to an end, and by peace to restore to America her splendor and prosperity." And M. Schneider felt sure that "the emotion caused by the assassination had been nowhere so profound and universal as in France. Called to the head of affairs at a critical time," he continued, "which will be forever memorable, Mr. Abraham Lincoln rose to the height of his difficult mission. After having shown indomitable firmness during the struggle, he seemed likely, by the moderation of his language and views, to bring about a fruitful and durable reconciliation between the children of the American nation. His latest acts were the crowning of the life of an honest man and a great citizen."

Previously a letter from the leading members of the Democratic Opposition had expressed to the President the desire that the Legislative Body should follow the example of other European Parliaments, and pass resolutions expressive of indignation at the crime, and of sympathy with the American people. The Emperor deputed an aide-de-camp to call on the Minister of the United States, to request him to convey to President Johnson the expression of profound affliction and sorrow with which the odious crime had inspired the Emperor, and the same sentiments were expressed by the Empress on receiving Mr. and Mrs. Bigelow. The Minister of Foreign Affairs addressed the following despatch to the French Minister in Washington:

PARIS, April 28th.

SIR: The news of the crime of which President Lincoln has just been the victim, has caused in the Imperial Government a deep feeling of indignation. His Majesty at once despatched one of his aides-de-camp to the Minister of the United States, to request that he would transmit the expression of this feeling to Mr. Johnson, who is now invested with the presidency. In the despatch which I addressed to you yesterday, I desired to make known to you, without delay, the painful emotion which we have felt; and to-day I am anxious, in conformity with the intentions of the Emperor, to render a well-merited homage to the great citizen whose loss the United States deplore. Raised by the suffrages of his country to the first magistracy of the republic, Mr. Abraham Lincoln had displayed in the exercise of the power placed in his hands the most sterling qualities, for in him firmness was allied to high principle. His great soul never shrank from the terrible trials which were reserved for his Government; at the moment when an atrocious crime removed him from the mission which he fulfilled as a religious duty, he felt that the triumph of his policy was definitively secured. His recent proclamations are marked with the thoughts of moderation which inspired him in approaching resolutely the task of reorganizing the Union and assuring peace. The supreme satisfaction of accomplishing this work has not been granted to him; but in collecting these evidences of his great wisdom, as well as the examples of good sense, of courage, and of patriotism which he has given, history will not hesitate to place him in the rank of the citizens who have been the greatest honor of their country. By order of the Emperor, I forward this despatch to the Minister of State, who is directed to communicate it to the Senate and Legislative Body. All France will join in his Majesty's feelings.

Receive, &c., DROUYN DE LHUYS.

To this despatch the following answer was received:

WASHINGTON, May 22, 1865.

SIR: The Marquis de Montholon has handed to me the copy of a despatch, dated the 28th April, addressed by M. Drouyn de Lhuys to M. de Geofroy, charging him to express to the Government of the United States the feelings with which the Emperor and the French Government have been inspired by the assassination of President Lincoln, the horror and sympathy they have felt on learning that unexpected catastrophe, and lastly, their great esteem for the character and virtues of the deceased President. This despatch bears the impress of a spirit of generosity and of cordial sympathy toward the United States which does honor to the ancient friendship of the two nations, and which is on our part cordially reciprocated. Your recent despatch has also informed me of what took place in the Senate and in the Legislative body under the circumstances in question. I must therefore request you to inform M. Drouyn de Lhuys of the manner in which those manifestations of good wishes have been received, and to tell him that they will remain engraved in the grateful remembrance of the Government and the people of the United States. With that object you will please to leave with M. Drouyn de Lhuys a copy of the present letter.

I am, &c.,

W. HUNTER.

On May 1st, the Emperor embarked at Marseilles for a protracted visit to Algeria. Immediately on landing he issued two remarkable proclamations; one to the European settlers, and the other to the Arabs. To the former he said:

Have faith in the future. Become attached to the land which you cultivate as to a new fatherland, and treat the Arabs, in the midst of whom you must dwell, as fellow-countrymen. We must be the masters, because we are the more civilized; we must be generous, because we are the stronger. Let us, then, justify unceasingly the glorious act of one of my predecessors, who, in planting thirty-five years ago, on the soil of Africa, the banner of France and the Cross, unfurled at once the sign of civilization and the symbol of peace and charity.

In his address to the Arabs he remarked:

France came to Algeria in 1830, not to destroy the Arab nationality, but to liberate the people from ages of oppression. Nevertheless, you have fought against your liberators. I honor your sense of warlike dignity, but God has decided. Recognize the decrees of Providence. Like yourselves, our ancestors courageously resisted, and yet from their defeat dates their regeneration. Your Prophet says: "God gives power to whomsoever he will." I come to exercise power in your interest. I have irrevocably assured to you the proprietorship of the land you occupy. I have honored your chiefs and respected your religion. I wish to increase your well-being. Tell your mistaken brethren that 2,000,000 Arabs cannot resist 40,000,000 Frenchmen. I thank the great majority for their fidelity. Great recollections and powerful interests already unite you to the mother country, and a military confraternity has been formed in the Crimea, Italy, China, and Mexico. Place confidence, then, in your destinies, almost united with those of France, and acknowledge, with the Koran, that "what God directs is well directed."

The Emperor was received by many of the Arabs with great enthusiasm, and on his return to France prepared a treatise on the French administration of Algeria, declaring some features of it to have been mistakes, and ordering the Governor-General to make some radical changes in the future.

An imperial decree, dated December 24, 1864, but not published until January 3, 1865, ap-

pointed Prince Napoleon a member and Vice-President of the Privy Council. On May 15th, Prince Napoleon made a long speech at Ajaccio, on the inauguration of a monument to Napoleon I., giving an eloquent biography of the Bonapartes and a history of the life and acts of the First Napoleon, which he described as a complete programme of liberal policy. The speech made a profound sensation in the political world, but gave great offence to the Emperor; who addressed to his cousin the following letter, dated September 23d:

I cannot refrain from mentioning to you the painful impression produced upon me by reading your speech at Ajaccio. By leaving you during my absence near the Empress and my son, as Vice-President of the Council of State, I wished to give you a proof of friendship and confidence, hoping that your presence, conduct, and discourse would testify to the union reigning among our family. But the political programme which you place under the *ægis* of the Emperor can only be useful to the enemies of my Government, as furnishing ground for judgment that we cannot admit. You express sentiments of hatred and rancor which are no longer of our day. To be able to apply to the present time the ideas of the Emperor, it is necessary to have passed through the severe trials and responsibility of power. Can we, moreover, pigmies as we are, really estimate, at its true value, the great historical figure of Napoleon? Standing before a colossal statue, we are powerless to take in the whole at a glance. We never see but the side which strikes our view; but that which is clear to all the world is that to prevent anarchy, that formidable enemy of true liberty, the Emperor had to establish, first in his family, and then in his Government, that severe discipline admitting but one will and one action. I cannot henceforth deviate from the same rule of conduct.

Prince Napoleon replied to this letter by tendering his resignation as Vice-President of the Privy Council, and President of the Commission of the Universal Exhibition. His resignation was accepted.

The rigorous legislation of France as regards the liberty of the press was fully upheld in 1865, and not only did the French papers continue to suffer from it, but leading foreign papers like the *Independence Belge*, were subjected to it. After having been several times seized, the circulation of this paper in France was for a time altogether prohibited. The Empress, on the eve of the return of the Emperor from Algeria to France, closed the period of her regency by a decree, dated June 8th, annulling the *accretissements* given up to that time to the press. On September 22d, the Minister of the Interior addressed a circular to the prefects, in which he urges them to peruse the provincial newspapers with attention, and when they contain serious errors to make known the real facts by means of *communiqués*. "This line of conduct," says the minister, "must be pursued persistently in order to prove efficacious; but your interference must not degenerate either into abusive communications or irritating polemics."

On June 29th, an imperial decree was issued, dissolving the municipal councils throughout France and ordering new elections to take place on July 22d. The Marquis de Lavalette, Min-

ister of the Interior, published a circular, in which he says that, as local questions only have to be decided at these elections, he recommends to the prefects that the electors should be allowed to manifest their choice spontaneously, and should only be interfered with if imprudent persons attempt to alter the character of the elections by importing questions of a political nature. This abandonment of one of the most unpopular features of the imperial policy, the "official candidatures," was well received, although it soon appeared that it was more apparent than real, as the Government in most places used its whole influence in favor of the so-called "municipal ticket." The result seems to have satisfied both the Government and the Opposition. The Government candidates obtained the majority in the departments, while the Opposition claimed the majority in the great towns.

An imperial decree of September 4th annulled the resolutions adopted by the Councils-General of the Seine and Marne, as having exceeded the limit of their powers. The resolutions in question expressed the wish that the law should afford to the Councils-General the power of deciding disputed departmental elections, and suggested to the Government whether it would not be advisable to give the Councils-General the right of nominating their presidents, vice-presidents, and secretaries.

The French Government, during the year 1865, carried on war against the Republican party of Mexico and the insurgents of Algeria. Of the relation of France to Mexico, the "Blue Book," which was communicated to the members of the Legislative Body in January, 1866, speaks as follows:

The French Government, on undertaking the expedition to Mexico, placed before it an aim to which it has rendered subordinate its conduct, and on which its decisions are still depending. We went to Mexico to obtain redress, not to proselytize for the cause of monarchy. Our soldiers are not in Mexico with the object of intervention. The Imperial Government has constantly repelled that doctrine as contrary to the fundamental principles of our rights. Mexico is at present ruled by a regular Government, anxious to fulfil the engagements it has made in respect both to the persons and properties of foreigners. When the necessary arrangements are concluded with the Emperor Maximilian, we shall be so far from repudiating the results of our principles as regards intervention, that we shall, on the contrary, accept them as the guiding rule for all Powers, and it will then be easy to forget the time when we shall be able to effect the return of the expeditionary army.

The relation of France to the United States is reviewed by the same book in the following manner:

Great changes took place last year in the aspect of affairs in the United States. In view of the conflict proceeding between the North and the South, we were, in common with the other maritime powers, under the necessity of recognizing the existence of two belligerents, and of stating the fact by a public declaration. Immediately it became certain that the Union renounced exercising the laws of war to such neutral vessels, we hastened to revoke the measures which were the consequence of our neutrality. The complete success of the Federal forces has caused the

return to the Union of all the States who endeavored to secede therefrom. From that moment the solicitude of the Washington cabinet was directed to the means of repairing the calamities of so profound a crisis. We most earnestly and constantly desired the pacification of the United States, and were rejoiced to see a termination to the effusion of generous blood. We now wish that this great country may promptly effect its reorganization in the manner best calculated to insure its future tranquillity and assist the resumption and development of the important commercial relations it maintains with the whole world.

The occupation of Mexico by French troops, continued throughout the whole year a subject of animated diplomatic correspondence between the Governments of France and the United States. The most important of the American despatches were made public by the Washington Government, in reply to a call for them on the part of the Senate; and the publication of this part of the correspondence, induced the French Government to enclose (contrary to its original intention) its own despatches in the "Yellow Book," which was laid before the Chambers in January, 1866. It appears from these despatches, that since the termination of the war in the United States, the remonstrances of the Washington Government against the continued occupation of Mexico by the French, became more urgent. It was represented to the French Government that the sympathies of the American people were strongly with the Republicans of Mexico, and the voice of the whole people demanded that foreign troops should no longer interfere with the popular sovereignty of the Mexican nation. France, in reply, disclaimed any intention of territorial aggrandizement, and subsequently intimated a readiness to withdraw her troops, in case the Government of the United States would pledge itself to recognize the Imperial Government. When this was declined by the United States, France intimated that she would be satisfied with a pledge not to interfere in the internal affairs of Mexico. But this was likewise declined at Washington. At the close of the year, the opinion generally prevailed, that France would yield to the urgent remonstrances of the United States, and this opinion was greatly strengthened by the words on Mexico, contained in the speech with which the Emperor, on January 22, 1866, opened the Chambers. The Emperor thus referred to the affairs of Mexico and the United States:

In Mexico, the government founded upon the will of the people, is being consolidated. The opposition, conquered and dispersed, have no longer a chief. The National troops have displayed valor, and the country has found guarantees of order and security which have developed its resources and raised its commerce, with France alone, from twenty-one to seventy-seven millions.

As I expressed the hope last year that our expedition was approaching its termination, *I am coming to an understanding with the Emperor Maximilian to fix the epoch for the recall of our troops*, before their return is effected, without compromising the French interests which we have been defending in that remote country.

North America, issuing victoriously from a formidable struggle, has reestablished the Union and sol-

emly proclaimed the abolition of slavery. France, which forgets no noble page of her history, offers up sincere wishes for the prosperity of the great American Republic, and for the maintenance of the amicable relations which will soon have had a century's duration.

The emotion produced in the United States by the presence of our troops on the Mexican soil, will be pacified by the frankness of our declarations. The American people will comprehend that our expedition, to which we invited them, was not opposed to their interests. Two nations equally jealous of their independence, ought to avoid every step which might affect their dignity and their honor.

In Italy the French Government began to execute the "September Convention," and to withdraw its troops from Rome. It offered at the same time to the Pope its assistance to facilitate the recruitment and organization of his military forces. As regards the Pontifical debt, the French Government expressed in the "Blue Book" a hope that soon an understanding would be arrived at with the Italian Cabinet, which the Holy See might accept without sacrificing its dignity. Prince Couza, of the Danubian Principalities, was advised by France to respect European treaties, "which are based upon mutual rights," and are a guarantee of friendly relations between the different European Powers.

FRANKFORT, a free city in Germany. The government is vested in a Senate and a Legislative Assembly. The former is composed of four syndics and twenty-one members elected for life. The Legislative Assembly consists of fifty-seven members chosen by the burghers of the city, of twenty permanent representatives of the burghers, chosen by the common council of the city, and of eleven members chosen by the rural communities. The Senate is presided over by two burgomasters, who are elected in the month of September, for the term of one year. First burgomaster in 1865, Senator and Syndic, Dr. P. F. Gwinner; second burgomaster, Senator, Dr. J. A. Spelta. Area, forty-three square miles. Population in 1861, 83,390; in 1864, 91,180 (in the city 78,177; in the rural districts, 13,003); increase, 9.84 per cent. In religious denominations, the inhabitants were, in 1858, divided as follows: Lutheran, 43,946; Evangelical Church, 1,416; German Reformed, 5,448; Calvinists, 460; Roman Catholics, 15,788; German Catholics, 428; Israelites, 5,733; other denominations, 164. The receipts in the budget for 1865 were estimated at 2,858,565 florins, and the expenditures at 2,424,546 florins. Public debt in 1865, 7,800,220 florins; railroad debt, 6,745,300 florins; communal debt, 1,278,800 florins.

A meeting of deputies of the several German Legislatures, which the Senate allowed to be held, in September, notwithstanding the remonstrances of Austria and Prussia, called forth from these two powers a threatening note (dated October 8th). The Senate replied by a note of October 21st, energetically repelling the imputations made by the two powers. (*See GERMANY.*)

FREEDMEN AND REFUGEES. In the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* for 1864, allusion was made to an interview held by Gen. W. T. Sherman and Secretary Stanton, at the beginning of the year 1865, with the representatives of the colored men of the coast region of Georgia and South Carolina. The result of this interview was the publication of the following special field order by Gen. Sherman:

Special Field Orders No. 15.

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI, }
IN THE FIELD, SAVANNAH, GA., JANUARY 16, 1865. }

I. The islands from Charleston, South, the abandoned rice-fields along the rivers for thirty miles back from the sea, and the country bordering the St. John's River, Florida, are reserved and set apart for the settlement of the negroes now made free by the acts of war and the proclamation of the President of the United States.

II. At Beaufort, Hilton Head, Savannah, Fernandina, St. Augustine, and Jacksonville, the blacks may remain in their chosen or accustomed vocations—but on the islands, and in the settlements hereafter to be established, no white person whatever, unless military officers and soldiers detailed for duty, will be permitted to reside; and the sole and exclusive management of affairs will be left to the freed people themselves, subject only to the United States military authority and the acts of Congress. By the laws of war, and orders of the President of the United States, the negro is free, and must be dealt with as such. He cannot be subjected to conscription or forced military service, save by the written orders of the highest military authority of the Department, under such regulations as the President or Congress may prescribe. Domestic servants, blacksmiths, carpenters, and other mechanics, will be free to select their own work and residence, but the young and able-bodied negroes must be encouraged to enlist as soldiers in the service of the United States, to contribute their share toward maintaining their own freedom, and securing their rights as citizens of the United States.

Negroes so enlisted will be organized into companies, battalions, and regiments, under the orders of the United States military authorities, and will be paid, fed, and clothed according to law. The bounties paid on enlistment may, with the consent of the recruit, go to assist his family settlement in procuring agricultural implements, seed, tools, boots, clothing, and other articles necessary for their livelihood.

III. Whenever three respectable negroes, heads of families, shall desire to settle on land, and shall have selected for that purpose an island or a locality clearly defined, within the limits above designated, the Inspector of Settlements and Plantations will himself, or by such subordinate officer as he may appoint, give them a license to settle such island or district, and afford them such assistance as he can to enable them to establish a peaceable agricultural settlement. The three parties named will subdivide the land, under the supervision of the Inspector, among themselves and such other as may choose to settle near them, so that each family shall have a plot of not more than (40) forty acres of tillable ground, and when it borders on some water channel, with not more than 800 feet of water front, in the possession of which land the military authorities will afford them protection, until such time as they can protect themselves, or until Congress shall regulate their title. The Quartermaster may, on the requisition of the Inspector of Settlements and Plantations, place at the disposal of the Inspector, one or more of the captured steamers, to ply between the settlements and one or more of the commercial points heretofore named in orders, to afford the settlers the opportunity to supply their necessary wants, and to sell the products of their land and labor.

IV. Whenever a negro has enlisted in the military service of the United States, he may locate his family in any one of the settlements at pleasure, and acquire a homestead, and all other rights and privileges of a settler, as though present in person. In like manner, negroes may settle their families and engage on board the gunboats, or in fishing, or in the navigation of the inland waters, without losing any claim to land or other advantage derived from this system. But no one, unless an actual settler as above defined, or unless absent on Government service, will be entitled to claim any right to land or property in any settlement by virtue of these orders.

V. In order to carry out this system of settlement, a general officer will be detailed as Inspector of Settlements and Plantations, whose duty it shall be to visit the settlements, to regulate their police and general management, and who will furnish personally to each head of a family, subject to the approval of the President of the United States, a possessory title in writing, giving as near as possible the description of boundaries; and who shall adjust all claims or conflicts that may arise under the same, subject to the like approval, treating such titles altogether as possessory. The same general officer will also be charged with the enlistment and organization of the negro recruits, and protecting their interests while absent from their settlements; and will be governed by the rules and regulations prescribed by the War Department for such purposes.

VI. Brigadier-General R. Saxton is hereby appointed Inspector of Settlements and Plantations, and will at once enter on the performance of his duties. No change is intended or desired in the settlement now on Beaufort Island, nor will any rights to property heretofore acquired be affected thereby.

By order of Major General W. T. SHERMAN.
L. M. DAYTON, Assistant Adj.-Gen.

This order, which was sanctioned by the Government, conveyed, as Gen. Sherman has since explained, only a possessory title to these islands to the freedmen, during the continuance of the war, or until the Government should, after the conclusion of the war, define its policy in regard to the restoration of forfeited lands to political offenders. At the time of issuing it, neither Gen. Sherman nor the other parties concerned looked for so speedy a termination of the war as actually took place. From the beginning of 1865, however, the course of events tending to the speedy close of the war, and to the practical establishment of the policy of emancipation all over the South, hastened to their final issue. The march of Sherman through the Carolinas, the expeditions of Stoneman through Southwestern Virginia and Western North Carolina, and of Wilson through the heart of Alabama and Georgia, Sheridan's raid toward Lynchburg, the fall of Mobile, and especially the defeat and surrender of Lee's army, and the evacuation of Richmond and Petersburg, and the subsequent surrender of Johnston, each set at liberty large numbers of the slaves, and spread more widely among the negroes the conviction that their day of deliverance had come. Before the consummation of all these events, Congress had passed an act establishing a Bureau of Freedmen, Refugees, and Abandoned Lands, and had ordered to be committed to it the care of the freedmen which had hitherto been in the hands first of the War and afterwards of the Treasury Department. The new

bureau was attached to the War Department. The bill was crude in its provisions (*see* Congress, U. S.), and no appropriation was made for carrying out its purposes. The Secretary of War, however, obviated the latter difficulty, by authorizing the assignment of army officers, so far as was possible, to the special duties required, and provided for its accommodation buildings then in the possession of the Government for military purposes, and furnished them by requisitions on the Quartermaster's Department. Early in May, almost immediately after the surrender of Gen. Johnston's army, the President appointed Maj.-Gen. Oliver O. Howard, then in command of the Army of the Tennessee, to be the commissioner or head of this bureau. Gen. Howard possessed eminent qualifications for this difficult and responsible post; he was a man of unimpeachable integrity, conscientious, and religious; a man of rare executive ability and extensive military attainments; he had commanded large bodies of troops in most of the slaveholding States, and previous to the war had spent considerable time at the South, under circumstances which enabled him to comprehend very thoroughly the relation which existed between the slaveholders and the slaves; he had a strong sense of justice, and a disposition to do right in all cases; and while not so radical as some in his views, he believed in emancipation, and in the capacity of the negro race for elevation and improvement.

In entering upon his duties, Gen. Howard first appointed the ten assistant commissioners to whose aid he was entitled by the provisions of the act. With one exception (the assistant commissioner for Louisiana), they were all army officers in actual service, and several of them of the rank of brigadier-general. The commissioners appointed were: for the District of Columbia, Brevet Brig.-Gen. John Eaton, jr.; for Virginia, Brevet Col. Orlando Brown, A. Q. M.; for North Carolina, Col. E. Whittlesey, formerly a Professor in Bowdoin College, and assistant adjutant-general on Gen. Howard's staff; for South Carolina and Georgia, Brig. and Brevet Major-Gen. Rufus Saxton; for Florida, Brevet Col. T. W. Osborne, formerly chief of artillery of the Army of the Tennessee; for Alabama, Brevet Maj.-Gen. Wager Swayne; for Louisiana, Rev. T. W. Conway, late major volunteers and general superintendent of freedmen's affairs, Department of the Gulf, under the Treasury Department. Mr. Conway was relieved in the summer of 1865, and Brevet Maj.-Gen. Absalom Baird appointed his successor, Brig.-Gen. J. S. Fullerton acting until Gen. Baird could enter upon his duties; for Texas, Brevet Brig.-Gen. E. M. Gregory; for Mississippi, Col. Samuel Thomas, 64th U. S. C. I.; for Kentucky and Tennessee, Brig.-Gen. Clinton B. Fiske, with headquarters at Nashville; for Missouri and Arkansas, Brig.-Gen. J. W. Sprague. Gen. Howard soon found that some of his commissioners had too large a territory, and in some cases was compelled to

divide their departments. He also found it necessary to organize districts in each department, which were placed in charge of sub-assistant commissioners, who reported to their respective chiefs. He organized the Bureau into four divisions, viz.: I. Lands, embracing abandoned, confiscated, and those acquired by sale or otherwise. II. Records, embracing official acts of the commissioner, touching labor, schools, quartermasters' and commissary supplies. III. Financial affairs; and, IV. The medical department. Gen. Howard then issued his circular No. 2, giving a general exhibit of his purposes under the law. The effort was made, and generally with success, to establish the most harmonious relations between the Department commanders, appointed by the War Department, and the assistant commissioners of the Bureau. In many instances subordinate officers of the military departments acted also as sub-commissioners for the Bureau. We cannot, perhaps, define more clearly the work of the Bureau, and especially the duties required of the assistant commissioners and their subordinates, than by quoting portions of the circulars of instructions issued from time to time by Gen. Howard.

By circular No. 10, of July 11th, assistant commissioners are directed to report monthly as to the number of self-supporting refugees and freedmen in colonies, camps, depots, or hospitals, and on government farms or other lands under the supervision of the commissioners, and also the number of such persons who may not be so disposed of, to whom rations and clothing have been issued, to what amount, and whether furnished by donation or purchase. It was intended that the first of the above reports should cover the period from the time when the assistant commissioners entered upon their duties up to the first of the month following the receipt of the circular.

Reports were also directed to be made by the commissioners of all lands under their control held for the benefit of refugees or freedmen, with statements whether such lands were abandoned or confiscated, and a brief description of each tract, together with the name of the former owner and occupant. Hereafter descriptions must be furnished of lands brought under the supervision of the commissioners during the month for which their reports are made, stating how they were acquired, etc., and lands lost to the use of the Bureau will be accounted for with equal accuracy.

In addition to the above, the number of schools, scholars, and teachers at present under the direction of the Bureau are to be carefully reported, and rosters of all officers and civilians employed by each assistant commissioner as sub-commissioners, staff officers, or agents, their respective duties, and how much salary is allowed each civilian, and from what fund it is paid, to be reported upon monthly, from the reception of the above order.

Circular No. 11 requires that the assistant commissioner should be careful in the establish-

ment of sub-districts, to have the office of the agent at some point easy of access to the people of the sub-districts. He will have at least one agent—either a citizen, officer, or enlisted man—in each sub-district. He will be furnished with the proper blanks for contracts, and will institute methods adequate to meet the wants of his districts, in accordance with the rules of the Bureau. No fixed rate of wages will be prescribed for a district; but in order to regulate the wages in given individual cases, the agent should have in mind minimum rates for his own guidance. By careful inquiry as to the hire of an able-bodied man when the pay went to the master, he will have an approximate test of the value of labor. He must, of course, consider the entire change of circumstances, and be sure that the laborer has sure protection against avarice or extortion. Wages should usually be secured by the crops or lands. Employers are desired to enter into written agreements with employes, setting forth stated wages, or securing an interest in the crops or land, or both. All such agreements will be approved by the nearest agent and a duplicate filed at his office. In case there should be no agent within reach, the nearest postmaster will forward the duplicate of contracts direct to the assistant commissioner for the State.

Attention is especially called to section four of the law establishing the Bureau, with regard to setting apart land to every male citizen, whether refugee or freedman, etc., and the same arrangement is recommended when it can be effected between private parties. This course is a recognition of the general principle in the law.

In order to enforce the fulfilment of contracts on both contracting parties, the commissioner of the Bureau lays down no general rule. The assistant commissioner must use the privilege and authority he already has. Provost courts, military commissions, and local courts, when the freedmen and refugees have equal rights with other people, are open to his use. In the great majority of cases his own arbitrament or that of his agent in the settlement by referees will be sufficient.

No assistant commissioner or agent is authorized to tolerate compulsory unpaid labor, except for the legal punishment of crime. Suffering may result to some extent, but suffering is preferred to slavery, and is to some extent the necessary consequence of events. In all actions the officers should never forget that no substitute for slavery, like apprenticeship without proper consent, or peonage—*i. e.* confining them without consent to the land by any system—will be tolerated.

The assistant commissioner will designate one or more of his agents to act as the general superintendent of schools—one for each State—for refugees and freedmen. This officer will work as much as possible in conjunction with State officers who may have school matters in charge. If a general system can be adopted for a State,

it is well; but if not, he will at least take cognizance of all that is being done to educate refugees and freedmen, secure proper protection to schools and to teachers, promote method and efficiency, correspond with the benevolent agencies which are supplying his field, and aid the assistant commissioner in making his required reports.

Surgeon C. W. Horner, chief medical officer of the Bureau, will have the general supervision of medical matters connected with refugees and freedmen. The assistant commissioners will instruct their medical and other officers to make the medical department self-supporting as far as possible.

All public addresses of a character calculated to create discontent are reprehensible; but the assistant commissioner and his agents must explain by constant recapitulation the principles, laws, and regulations of this Bureau to all parties concerned. It is recommended to the assistant commissioners to draw up in writing a careful summary, to be publicly and privately read by agents throughout their respective districts. Circular No. 15, as revised and issued September 12th, gave important instructions relative to abandoned lands. It was as follows:

Circular No. 15.

WAR DEPARTMENT, BUREAU OF REFUGEES,
FREEDMEN AND ABANDONED LANDS,
WASHINGTON, Sept. 12, 1865.

1. Circular No. 13, of July 28, 1865, from this Bureau, and all portions of circulars from this Bureau conflicting with the provisions of this circular, are hereby rescinded.

2. This Bureau has charge of such tracts of lands within the insurrectionary States as shall have been abandoned, or to which the United States shall have acquired title by confiscation or sale, or otherwise; and no such lands now in its possession shall be surrendered to any claimant except as hereinafter provided.

3. Abandoned lands are defined in section 2 of the act of Congress approved July 2, 1864, as lands the lawful owner whereof shall be voluntarily absent therefrom, and engaged either in arms or otherwise in aiding or encouraging the rebellion.

4. Land will not be regarded as confiscated until it has been condemned and sold by decree of the United States Court for the district in which the property may be found, and the title thereto thus vested in the United States.

5. Upon its appearing satisfactorily to any assistant commissioner that any property under his control is not abandoned as above defined, and that the United States has acquired no title to it by confiscation, sale, or otherwise, he will formally surrender it to the authorized claimant or claimants, promptly reporting his action to the commissioner.

6. Assistant commissioners will prepare accurate descriptions of all confiscated and abandoned lands under their control, keeping a record thereof themselves, and forwarding monthly to the commissioner copies of these descriptions in the manner prescribed in circular No. 10, of July 11, 1865, from this Bureau. They will set apart so much of said lands as is necessary for the immediate use of the loyal refugees and freedmen, being careful to select for this purpose those lands which most clearly fall under the control of this Bureau, which selection must be submitted to the commissioner for his approval. The specific division of lands so set apart into lots, and the recital or sale thereof, according to section 4 of the law establishing the Bureau, will be completed as soon as practicable and reported to the commissioner.

7. Abandoned lands held by this Bureau may be restored to owners pardoned by the President, by the assistant commissioners, to whom applications for such restoration should be forwarded, so far as practicable, through the superintendents of the districts in which the lands were situated. Each application must be accompanied by—first, evidence of special pardon by the President, or a copy of the oath of amnesty prescribed in the President's proclamation of May 29, 1865, when the applicant is not included in any of the classes therein excepted from the benefits of said oath; second, proof of title. Officers of the Bureau through whom the application passes will endorse thereon such facts as may assist the assistant commissioner in his decision, stating especially the use made by the Bureau of the land.

8. No lands under cultivation by loyal refugees or freedmen will be restored under this circular until the crops now growing shall be secured for the benefit of the cultivators, unless full and just compensation be made for their labor and its products and for their expenditures.

O. O. HOWARD, Maj.-Gen., Commissioner.
ANDREW JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF PROPERTY IN THE POSSESSION OF AND RESTORED BY THE BUREAU OF REFUGEES, FREEDMEN, ETC.

STATES.	Amount of Property now in possession of the Bureau.				No. of pieces of town property.	Amount returned to original owners.	
	NUMBER OF ACRES OF LAND.					No. of acres of land.	No. of pieces of town property.
	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.	Unclassified.	Aggregate.			
Georgia and South Carolina.....	9,864	50,799	874,837	485,000	398		884
Kentucky and Tennessee*	10,177	29,072	25,850	65,129	414		
Missouri and Arkansas*	18,786			18,786	72		
Alabama*			2,116	2,116	18		
Virginia.....	2,625	40,110	93,918	78,658	84	26,780	310
North Carolina.....	4,568	9,207	22,267	86,842	113	50,029	287
Mississippi and Louisiana.....	50,751	4	8,525	59,280	59	11,411	60
Louisiana.....	62,523			62,523	501		186
Maryland and Virginia.....	2,252	3,027	6,407	18,506			
Florida†.....							
Iowa‡.....							
	161,831	148,219	464,040	768,590	1,596	88,170	1,177

* No report received of property restored.

† No report received.

‡ No land in possession.

Circular No. 15 was rendered necessary by the decision of the President, contrary to the previous understanding in the War Department, that a pardon, either special or under the terms of his amnesty proclamation, carried with it a restoration of all real estate to the pardoned man, except such as had been actually sold under a decree of confiscation. As the immediate restoration of this property, without reference to the condition of its present occupant, would have caused great and unjustifiable suffering to loyal citizens, it was provided that a condition precedent to the restoration should be a recognition and satisfaction of these claims. Large quantities of abandoned lands were thus restored during the year, and the preceding table shows the condition of the lands which were or had been in possession of the bureau to December, 1865.

Under this decision of the President, the former proprietors of the islands along the coast of Georgia and South Carolina, who had abandoned their property in 1862, and which had been cultivated by the freedmen in 1863, 1864, and 1865 (the last year under Gen. Sherman's special field order, which we have already given), began to be clamorous for the restoration of these islands to them, and the driving off of the freedmen without remuneration for their labor and outlay. These cases were regarded as differing in many respects from those in the other States; Gen. Sherman had, so far as possible, given the freedmen a possessory title in these lands, and under that title they had gone forward and planted crops, relying in perfect confidence upon the disposition of the Government to deal justly by them. Yet, in accordance with the decisions in the other cases, the former proprietors had some semblance of right in their claim to be repossessed of their property. Feeling confident that Gen. Howard could adjust the matter more satisfactorily than any one else, the War Department issued the following order:

WAR DEPARTMENT, ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE, }
WASHINGTON, October 9, 1865.

Whereas, certain tracts of land, situated on the coast of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, at the time for the most part vacant, were set apart, by Maj.-Gen. W. T. Sherman's special field orders No. 15, for the benefit of the refugees and freedmen that had congregated by the operations of the war, or had been left to take care of themselves by their former owners; and whereas, an expectation was thereby created that they would be able to retain possession of said lands; and whereas, a large number of the former owners are earnestly soliciting the restoration of the same, and promising to absorb the labor and care of freedmen: It is ordered that Maj.-Gen. Howard, Commissioner of Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, proceed to the several above-named States and endeavor to effect an arrangement mutually satisfactory to freedmen and landowners, and make a report; and in case a mutually satisfactory arrangement can be effected, he is duly empowered and directed to issue such orders as may become necessary after a full and careful investigation of interest of parties concerned.

By order of the President of the United States,
E. D. TOWNSEND, Assistant Adjutant Gen'l.

Gen. Howard undertook the mission, and proceeded at once to Charleston, where he arrived October 17th. From thence he went to Edisto Island, and on the 19th, accompanied by several officers and Mr. William Whaley, the representative of the planters, met the freedmen at a large church on the island. The interview was a sad one; the freedmen felt that they were treated with injustice, but were after all fully persuaded of the rectitude of the General's intentions; and after stating their case so strongly that even the former proprietors could not deny that it would be a wrong to dispossess them without fair remuneration, they left the matter entirely in Gen. Howard's hands, promising to abide by his decision, as did also the former landholders. After careful consideration, he decided to constitute a board of supervisors, in which the Government, the planters, and the freedmen should each have a representative, for the adjustment of contracts and cases of difficulty. Where a landowner had been constantly loyal, or had received his pardon, he was required to sign an obligation which Gen. Howard drew up, and which required the obligator to promise and engage that he would secure to the refugees and freedmen then resident upon his estate the crops of that season, harvested or unharvested; that they should be allowed to remain upon the estate at their present houses, or other homes on the island, so long as the responsible refugees and freedmen (embracing parents, guardians, and other natural protectors) should enter into contracts by leases or for wages in terms satisfactory to the supervising board; also that the obligator would take proper steps to enter into contracts with these responsible refugees and freedmen, and they on their part must enter into said contracts within the period of two months from date, or surrender the right to remain on the estate. The obligator was required to interpose no obstacle to schools for the freedmen sanctioned by the supervising board. Neither the landowners nor the refugees and freedmen were to be obligated by the instrument beyond one year from its date unless it was renewed. This last provision was intended to allow Congress to pass upon the question of the final restoration of these lands. Having selected the most capable man he could find to represent the Bureau in this matter, Capt. Alexander P. Ketchum, 128th U. S. C. T., and acting assistant adjutant-general, Gen. Howard left him specific instructions, and went on to Savannah and Fernandina, Florida, taking measures to prevent the ejection of the freedmen from their homes, while the planters were treated with kindness and courtesy. Proceeding to Mobile, the General telegraphed to the Secretary of War the course he had pursued, urging at the same time that the attention of Congress should be called to the matter at the commencement of the session, and that these islands, or a part of them, should be purchased by the United States, with a view to their rental and eventual purchase by the freed-

men. In Virginia quite an amount of land was libelled and about to be sold by the marshal just previous to the establishment of the Bureau, when the sales were suspended by the Secretary of War, in order that these lands might be turned over to the Bureau for the benefit of the freedmen. By the decision of the President, all or nearly all these lands were lost, being restored to pardoned persons. Gen. Howard, on the 4th of September, addressed to the Secretary of War a proposition, asking, first, that whenever special pardons (*i. e.* to persons having over \$20,000 worth of property) should be granted by the President, a specific stipulation should be made by the pardoned party, if a landowner, that he would grant to each head of family of his former slaves a homestead, varying in extent from five to ten acres, to be secured from alienation during the lifetime of the grantee; the location, precise extent, and other details to be determined by three referees, two to be chosen by the interested parties, each selecting one, and the two a third; and, second, that other persons, not landholders, be conditioned according to their several circumstances, by equivalent or proper stipulation, to be determined by a committee of three appointed by the President. This suggestion was not acted upon by the President.

In regard to the employment of the freedmen, the commissioner did not deem it desirable to fix the rate of wages, but to leave it to be regulated by the demand. This seemed to be a matter of justice both to the employers and the freedmen, as though in some cases it might have secured compensation at temporarily better rates to the freedman than he would at first command in the open market, yet in the end he would have been unable to advance beyond the minimum, however much greater might be the real value of his labor, while in the scarcity of labor which existed all over the South, any temporary depression of prices was sure to right itself. The assistant commissioners and their agents were, however, instructed to see to it that in the contracts for labor the freedmen were not wronged, and to compel the observance of contracts on both sides. At first the negroes, on many of the plantations, apprehensive that the cruelties which had hitherto been practised on them by their old masters, would be continued under the new régime, refused to work for them, and flocked to the towns, cities, villages, and military posts, and sought work there. The commissioner, under these circumstances, caused his agents to open communications with employers needing laborers North and South, and to procure, as far as possible, good places for these freedmen. Schools were also established at the military posts, some of them of an industrial character, by the various benevolent associations interested in behalf of freedmen, and were aided by the Bureau.

Government farms, under charge of officers of the Bureau, were also worked to some extent by this surplus and otherwise unemployed pop-

ulation. There was a very general impression among the freedmen, arising in part, perhaps, from the wording of the law establishing the Bureau, and in part from the talk of both white and colored soldiers, that the lands of disloyal owners would be divided among them, and many of them were averse to making contracts, which, as they imagined, would preclude their receiving their share in those lands. The commissioner and his agents did all in their power to disabuse them of this impression; and when Christmas came and went, and they found there were no lands to be divided, they very generally entered into contracts. Their desire for ownership of the soil, is, however, in many respects a commendable one, and should, so far as is consistent and practicable, be gratified. The eagerness of the freedmen to acquire the rudiments of education, is another interesting feature in their new condition. In spite of all obstacles, many are determined to learn to read and write. Schools have been established for the purpose of their instruction, both by benevolent associations and by the Bureau, and \$27,819.60 was expended for the support of the latter in about six months. "In many parts of the country," says General Howard, "the hostility of the white people to these schools has been undisguised, and every effort has been made to get the buildings, used for school purposes, away from the teachers. It is difficult to describe the odium with which the excellent self-denying school teachers are met; doubtless the treatment to which they are subjected arises in part from the feelings engendered by war, but is mostly due to the prejudice against educating the blacks, and the belief that the teachers are fostering social equality. It is right, however, to say that there are many Southern men who earnestly advocate the introduction of schools, and several churches have established them in connection with their organizations."

Transportation has been allowed free to stores and supplies for the benefit of both refugees and freedmen; to teachers duly authorized by the commissioner or assistant commissioners; to army officers travelling under the order of the commissioner or his assistants; and to such destitute refugees and freedmen as were dependent upon the Government for support, to points where they could procure employment or subsistence. In six months (June to December, 1865) transportation was granted thus to 4,031 persons of color, 1,778 white refugees, 1,946 freed people, and 307 teachers, etc.; and twenty-one boxes and bales were transported free, containing stores for the refugees and freedmen.

Rations were bestowed sparingly, and only where there was absolute necessity. Teachers, etc., were allowed to purchase rations on the same terms with officers of the army. Dependent freedmen and refugees in hospitals, and the wives and children of soldiers were supplied, and a lien taken on the crop for repayment, but this was remitted wherever they were obliged

to give up their lands. The general principle in the Mississippi Valley and elsewhere has been that those able to work and support themselves, have been obliged to refund the cost of the ration when they obtained employment; but orphan children in asylums, the sick in hospitals, and the helpless have been fed. As far as possible, too, each estate, county, district, parish, or town, has been held responsible for its own poor. As a general rule, the planters have taken care of the poor and helpless that remained on their plantations. Some have angrily driven them away, but this was not the general rule.

The receipts of the Bureau to November 1, 1865, including \$115,236.42 of retained bounties held in trust for colored soldiers or their families, were \$907,396.21, and the total expenditures \$478,363.17, leaving a balance on hand of \$318,796.62.

The breaking up of the old plantation system, the congregating of the freedmen in considerable numbers in cities, towns, villages, and at military posts, under circumstances often of privation both of food and clothing, and the not un-

frequent expulsion of the aged, infirm, and sick from plantations by the former masters, who were indignant at the change of affairs, and especially at the unwillingness of their former slaves to labor for them without definite contracts, all tended to increase greatly the sickness and mortality among the freedmen. The commissioner found his abilities overtaxed in supplying medical treatment to these poor unfortunates, yet he did what he was able. There were on the 31st of October 42 hospitals, with a capacity of 4,500 beds, and 24 asylums, colonies, etc., with accommodations for 5,000 more, with 18 commissioned medical officers, and 63 contract physicians, 180 male and 177 female attendants, under the control of the Bureau, in which those suffering from severe disease could be placed, but the number requiring aid far out-ran these scanty accommodations. The annexed table shows the number of freedmen treated by the medical department of the Bureau, from its organization to the close of October, as well as the number of deaths and the number remaining under treatment October 30, 1865:

DISTRICTS.	Percentage of Deaths.	TREATED.				DIED.				REMAINING OCTOBER 30.			
		Adult Males.	Adult Females.	Male Children.	Female Children.	Adult Males.	Adult Females.	Male Children.	Female Children.	Adult Males.	Adult Females.	Male Children.	Female Children.
District of Columbia.....	.08	8,300	2,810	2,345	2,530	90	67	80	90	275	270	105	98
Virginia.....	.09	967	879	828	885	74	61	51	80	261	172	57	55
North Carolina.....	.49	1,018	2,259	1,809	1,100	542	909	748	553	99	234	165	181
South Carolina.....	.04	2,646	2,877	1,898	1,604	158	187	43	88	384	460	171	223
Georgia.....	.23	649	491	120	65	161	77	21	14	179	111	41	13
Alabama.....	.24	1,012	627	363	881	210	195	106	91	369	323	148	200
Florida.....													
Texas.....		8	9		1					8	1		1
Louisiana.....	.14	507	438	180	168	112	55	13	13	180	119	39	76
Mississippi.....	.06	1,087	1,177	507	635	90	79	21	18	134	232	62	76
Mobile and Arkansas.....	.03	855	459	294	838	88	29	23	32	193	207	105	102
Kentucky and Tennessee..	.09	661	2,887	2,218	2,867	58	184	185	809	74	276	75	128
Total.....		12,320	15,068	9,052	9,468	1,513	1,798	1,805	1,188	2,207	2,404	963	1,086
Aggregate.....	.18	45,898				8,604				6,645			

Where there was no medical attendance, as was the case for some time in some of the Southern cities, the mortality was fully thirty per cent. of the sick; but when there was ample provision made for their care, and medical treatment as in the District of Columbia, it never exceeded four per cent.

During the same period 2,531 white refugees were received into the hospitals of the Bureau, of whom 227 or about nine per cent. died, and 338 remained in hospital on the 30th of October. The white refugees were also cared for in private hospitals or those of the Union and Western Sanitary Commissions, so that these figures do not represent by any means the number of their sick.

The following table shows the number of schools for freedmen in each military department, the number of teachers, and the number

of scholars. Many of these schools were organized and are now taught by teachers employed and paid by the National Freedmen's Aid Society, the American Missionary Association, the Boston Freedmen's Aid Society, the Baptist Free Mission Society, the American Baptist Home Mission Society, the Western Freedmen's Aid Societies, and the Western Sanitary Commission. To all of these, however, the Freedmen's Bureau lent a helping hand. Rations were furnished to the teachers at the commutation price, and transportation, when necessary, free. In cases where there were no teachers of these associations, or later by the Freedmen's Commission, the Bureau appointed and supported them. The freedmen themselves in almost all cases provided for the incidental expenses, and wherever they could do so contributed to the support of the teachers and the procuring of school books:

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS, OCTOBER 31, 1865.

DEPARTMENTS.	No. of Schools.	No. of Teachers.	No. of Pupils.	REMARKS.
District of Columbia.....	41	91	4,884	These are aside from the regular colored schools of the District, supported by the colored citizens. Some opposition. A few are self-supporting. Bitter opposition; not only to the schools, but to the Bureau, and cruelty to the freedmen. Opposition, with violence to the schools. Less opposition than in most of the South. Schools organizing. Strong opposition. Violent opposition in some parts of Kentucky, and Middle and Western Tennessee. A number of school-houses burned. Schools organizing; some opposition.
Virginia (mainly S. E. Va.).....	90	195	11,500	
North Carolina.....	68	55	5,624	
South Carolina and Georgia.....	114	174	9,500	
Alabama.....	2	15	917	
Louisiana.....	141	265	19,000	
Texas.....				
Mississippi.....	84	46	2,048	
Kentucky and Tennessee.....	75	264	14,768	
Arkansas.....				
	560	1,185	68,241	

General Howard visited Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Tennessee, on a tour of inspection, in October and November, 1865. A strong conviction exists that free labor, notwithstanding the sudden emancipation, and the thousands of causes of disturbance incident to the war, will prove successful; but in order to hasten this result, every effort must be made by officers of the Government, and all others concerned, to secure confidence between the holders of property and the freedmen, and restore that confidence wherever it has been impaired. On the part of the freedmen, they are looking for justice and privileges with perhaps too exalted notions; yet their confidence cannot be obtained without a reasonable extension to them of the rights and privileges of free men. On the part of the property-holders, great complaint is made of want of security of labor, the majority seeking some compulsory process; that is, some substitute for slavery. "There are so many examples of complete success of free labor that I bring them as an answer to such complaints; and I believe that the causes of complaint are due as much to the prejudice of the employer, and want of practical knowledge of any other system than the one under which he has been brought up, as to the ignorance and suspicion of the laborer.

"I therefore earnestly advocate equality before the law, trusting to time and education to overcome prejudice and ignorance."

He advocates the continuance of the Bureau or some substitute for it of a national character, for a variety of reasons, all of which were deemed satisfactory by Congress, who passed a bill continuing it and enlarging its powers, in February, 1866, which was, however, vetoed by the President on the 20th of that month. Some of these reasons were of great importance; such were the following:

The Government has set the slaves free, and bound itself to make that freedom an undisputed fact. Some guarantee, beyond any existing ordinance in any State I visited, is essential to secure the actual and continuous protection of life and property to the freedmen. Where legislation is constrained, as it now is in the Southern States, for the most part, from several causes, there is danger of the statute law being

in advance of public sentiment, so that where there is the most liberality, ill consequences would be likely to result if Government protection should be immediately withdrawn.

Where the Bureau fails to afford this protection, it is yet a means of exposing to the Government, and to the public, acts of injustice and oppression; and in this way it affords a moral check against their commission.

A want of mutual confidence between the white employers and the colored employes actually exists to a large extent. This can usually be traced to circumstances connected with the war, and it is increased by the peculiar prejudices and education of all persons under the slavery system.

The Bureau officers actually do restore this confidence, as a general rule, when fairly met.

With scarcely any exceptions, the freedmen expressed the utmost confidence in its agents, and are only alienated where agents prove themselves untrue to their interests.

Wherever the planters have taken advantage of the aid afforded by the Bureau, the best results have followed. This work will require time for its completion.

Education is absolutely essential to the freedmen to fit them for their new duties and responsibilities. I find many enlightened and learned men in every State, advocating the necessity and wisdom of establishing a system of education; yet I believe the majority of the white population to be utterly opposed to educating the negroes. The opposition is so great that the teachers, though they may be the purest of Christian people, are, nevertheless, visited publicly and privately with undisguised marks of odium. This Bureau fearlessly superintends and fosters these schools, which it is believed will, in time, by their success and good influence, bring over all fair men, at least, to their support.

Every colored man I met, of any considerable intelligence, pleaded earnestly for the continuance of the Bureau, as his only hope of justice and privilege correspondent to the necessities of his new position. Therefore I should fear an almost universal disturbance among the freedmen, as a consequence of its removal, till society had become more settled and State action more liberal than at present.

The absolutely indigent, as orphans, sick, aged, and infirm persons, now aided by the Bureau, have no present prospect of local aid.

The Bureau, with its agencies, affords a means of constant and reliable information essential to Congressional and Executive action, till hostility against the Government shall have more completely subsided, till free labor shall have become more palatable, and till the rights of negroes to full protection by the laws becomes more generally believed in than now appears.

The Bureau, in conjunction with the military force, is at present a means of encouraging immigration to the different Southern States. Union men of the

South, and Northern men now residing there, have expressed their utmost fear lest the War Department should withdraw its agencies, asserting that the state of society is such, that they could not remain in the South with safety. Quite a number have urged me, with all their might, to do what I could to prevent such withdrawal. This fear is doubtless much exaggerated, and probably based on the unusually large criminal list, yet it does exist. Every possible material interest now favors such immigration.

General Howard urged in his report the necessity of some further legislation to provide effectually for the aged, infirm, and helpless negroes, to furnish school buildings and sites for the benefit of the children of freedmen and poor whites, and to guarantee to the freedmen the right to rent and purchase real estate. His estimates of the amount necessary for the expenditure of the Bureau for the fiscal year commencing January 1, 1866, were \$11,745,050.

On the 28th of December, 1865, General

Howard communicated to the Secretary of the American Freedmen's Aid Commission, at Washington, the following table showing the number of Freedmen then receiving supplies from the Bureau, and the probable number who would need them through the winter:

	Now receiving Rations.	Estimate for Winter.
District of Columbia.....	858	1,000
Virginia.....	12,058	13,000
North Carolina.....	7,259	10,000
South Carolina and Georgia.....	14,417	30,000
Florida.....		1,000
Alabama.....	2,151	40,000
Mississippi.....	2,603	5,000
Louisiana.....	1,459	2,000
Missouri and Arkansas.....	1,517	2,000
Kentucky and Tennessee.....	2,950	3,000
Texas.....	88	1,000
	43,085	100,000

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GASKELL, Mrs. ELIZABETH CLEGHORNE, an English author and novelist, born in 1823, died at Alton, England, November 12, 1865. Her maiden name was Stevenson, and she was the wife of a Unitarian clergyman, who was for several years a resident of Manchester. Her first novel, "Mary Barton," published in 1848, at once attracted attention by its vigorous sketches of character and its graphic illustrations of English factory life. Indeed, so faithfully were these portrayed that the manufacturers manifested some degree of hostility toward both the work and its author, and thus greatly increased its circulation. This was followed by "Moorland Cottage" (1850), "Ruth" (1853), a tale of considerable power, and, like most of her works, founded on her observation of the habits and privations of the poor; and subsequently by "Cranford," "Lizzie Leigh," "Round the Sofa," and "Sylvia's Lovers." Mrs. Gaskell, however, is better known in America by her "Life of Charlotte Brontë," prepared for the "London Daily News," and republished by the Appletons. The great interest taken here in the author of "Jane Eyre," insured for the biography a wide circulation, and the fascinating style in which it was written added to its popularity; but her too frank disclosures of certain domestic details exposed her to not a little censure among the family friends, and to some personal inconvenience. Mrs. Gaskell's novels are distinguished by their singularly quiet and natural tone, their forcible delineations of character, and the purity and felicity of their style. Her last work, just completed, is entitled "Wives and Daughters," and is now republished in this country; and the latest work of her pen was a little story for the Christmas number of "All the Year Round," which forms one of "Doctor Marigold's Prescriptions."

Mrs. Gaskell had just begun to reap the full reward of her literary labor, and was preparing to give her husband a pleasant surprise by taking him to a lovely home which she had purchased, when her death took place. While reading to her daughters in the family circle, she suddenly expired.

GASTEIN, CONVENTION OF. The village of Gastein is a watering-place in Austria, in the Inn village, situate about forty-nine miles from Salzburg, and three thousand feet above the sea. At this place a convention was concluded between Austria and Prussia on August 14, 1865, for the regulation of the administration of the duchies Schleswig and Holstein. In virtue of this agreement Austria assumed the administration of Holstein, and Prussia the administration of Schleswig. England and France announced, in diplomatic notes, their dissatisfaction with the arrangement. (See AUSTRIA and SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.)

GEOGRAPHICAL EXPLORATIONS AND DISCOVERIES IN 1865. In no department of Physical Science is there so great and so constantly increasing zeal manifested as in Geographical discovery. Governments prompted by the desire of increasing their commerce or of territorial acquisition, corporations which seek in hitherto unknown lands markets or sources of wealth, Geographical Societies which desire to add to the knowledge already attained of the earth's surface, and individuals with whom the love of adventure and discovery is a passion, or who are prompted by the higher motives of philanthropy and religion, all endeavor to promote the progress of discovery and exploration in every quarter of the globe. Some idea of the extraordinary activity with which geographical investigation is prosecuted, may be acquired from the fact that in the year 1865 no less than sixteen hundred and fifty distinct publications

on geographical subjects were issued throughout Christendom. Of these two hundred and thirty-five were atlases, maps, or charts. The Germans are most active and zealous in their explorations, but the English and French are not far behind them. In the United States the prevalence of war has diminished the zeal for geographical research, yet something has been done, mostly by individuals or single States, to promote discovery and exploration. Beginning, as usual, with the AMERICAN CONTINENT, we find that the researches into the geography of the *Arctic regions* have been vigorously prosecuted. Captain Charles F. Hall, whose narrative of his first voyage of discovery was published in 1864, set out in June of that year, far more fully equipped than before, for a second expedition into the regions of "frost and perpetual snow." He was successful in some of the objects of his expedition. Taking with him his faithful interpreters and friends, Ebierbing and Too-koo-li-too (the Esquimaux man and woman who accompanied him to the United States after his first voyage), he reached, before the close of the autumn, the vicinity of the Esquimaux or Innuits, with whom he had before become acquainted. Here, soon after, he gained, to his great satisfaction, information respecting four of Franklin's men, Captain Crozier, Parry, and Lyon, and another, who had survived when the others perished from cold and starvation, the three latter having subsisted on the flesh of their dead comrades, and had been sheltered and fed by the Innuits. One of them had subsequently died of illness, but there was some reason for believing that Crozier and the others might still be alive. He also learned that they had had a battle with the Indians (not Esquimaux) near the Estuary of Great Fish or Back's River, before they were reduced to starvation, and that Crozier and some of the others were wounded but none of them killed, while large numbers of the Indians were slain. After their recovery from starvation, Captain Crozier and his two surviving comrades had gone to the southwest by land, probably with the intention of reaching Fort Churchill or York Factory. They were well supplied with food, and had skin or rubber boats to cross the streams. They did not reach either of those points, or something would have been heard of them long since; but Capt. Hall is very sanguine that they might yet be living, having become familiar with the Inuit mode of life and conforming to it. Captain Hall made other interesting geographical discoveries respecting the Northwest passage, the coasts of the Northern Ocean, etc., full particulars of which have not yet been published.

Another expedition to the Polar region has been projected in England by Captain Sherrard Osborne, to be undertaken under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society; but after a long and animated discussion at several meetings of the Society, and several communications from Dr. A. Petermann, and other eminent

foreign geographers, as to the best route, whether by Spitzbergen or by the coast of Greenland, the expedition was postponed to the coming summer.

British America, at least east of the Rocky Mountains, has not been the field of any geographical explorations during the year, though its active geologists have been investigating with great zeal its abundant sources of mineral wealth. The mines of gold, copper, silver, and lead, projected in the eastern provinces with a fair showing of success, have attracted considerable attention, while other and rarer minerals are found in different portions of its territory. The western provinces, British Columbia and Vancouver's Island, have been explored with considerable care during the year, an expedition under command of Mr. Frederic Whympere having traversed the latter through its entire diameter, and made a glowing report of its productions and capacities, mineral, vegetable, and animal. They found a chain of seven lakes, connected with each other and extending nearly across the island, their united length being twenty-two miles. Gold was found in great abundance, iron of a superior quality, nickel, plumbago, and petroleum, the latter in immense quantities. Dr. Brown, the botanist of the expedition, discovered a new genus of pines, of colossal size. Another party explored the Fraser River region, with gratifying results.

In the *United States*, the close of the war has brought out numerous reports of commanding officers, of military surveys made in connection with their campaigns, which throw much light on the topography of the sections traversed. The geographical and geological survey of California has been prosecuted with zeal, and two volumes of the report of the commission have been published. The mountains of the State have been explored, and their altitude approximately ascertained. The loftier peaks of the State (the highest in the United States) are found in the Sierra Nevada. Several of these exceed 15,000 feet in height. The Coast range is much lower, but its culminating points are from three-fourths of a mile to a mile in elevation, San Carlos, the highest, being 4,977 feet; Mount Hamilton, 4,440; Mount Diablo, 3,856; and Mariposa Peak, 3,700.

The organization of an Imperial Government in *Mexico* has led to the active exploration of portions of the territory of that interesting country, and the appearance of a new map of Mexico on the scale of 1:3,000,000, with plans of Matamoras, Tampico, and Vera Cruz, and a plan of the route between Vera Cruz and Mexico. The Secretary of the Mexican Geographical Society, under date of June 28, 1865, communicated to the Secretary of the Imperial Geographical Society of Paris some facts of interest. On Mount Santa Maria, near the Mexican capital, a mass of ruins has been unearthed and explored, and many objects of antiquarian interest discovered. Among these were idols, masks, ear-rings, collars, rings, pen-

nons, obsidian headed lances, housekeeping utensils, etc., etc. Vocabularies of the Camanche and Turascan languages were contributed by members of the Society, and several volumes in the mystic language of the ancient Mexicans, as well as a grammar of the Chacona language. Preparation was also made for the publication of a physical map of Mexico, indicating its climates, productions, etc.

In *Central America* the principal geographical interest has been concentrated on the most desirable route for an interoceanic canal across the isthmus of Darien, or at some other point across the Andes of Central America. In former volumes of the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* we have enumerated many of these proposed routes, but others still are suggested. Mr. Laurence Oliphant read a paper, before the Royal Geographical Society of London, on a new route, by way of the river Chepo or Bayanos on the Pacific side, and the Mandinga on the Atlantic side. The Chepo discharges its waters into the Pacific about thirty miles east of Panama, and is navigable for large ships to Teruble, from which point to tide-water on the Mandinga is only fifteen miles. The elevation of the Andes in this distance will, however, be a serious objection to the construction of a canal. Gen. Mosquera, the Columbian minister at the court of St. James, gave some account to the Society of an exploration of a route through the valley of the Cauca. Mr. Evan Hopkins advocated the route of the Panama Railroad, as the elevation of the Andes at that point did not exceed 250 feet. Mr. Gerstenberg, another explorer, objected to all these proposed routes—that they had no good or well-sheltered harbors at either extremity which would permit the passage of ships in all weathers into the canal. The route from San Miguel to the Bay of Caledonia was the only one which fulfilled this condition. There was, however, one difficulty in making a canal by this route. The distance from tide-water to tide-water was thirty-five miles, and the elevation to be overcome by locks 930 feet, and this very considerable elevation was mostly within a space of three miles, and at a point where it would be difficult to furnish sufficient water for the canal. The numerous projects for an interoceanic canal and the various points proposed for its *termini* indicate, as Sir Roderick I. Murchison well remarked, that a geographical knowledge of the American Isthmus is still one of the numerous desiderata of geography.

In *New Granada*, a State belonging almost equally to Central and South America, Mr. Robert Cross, a commissioner sent by the English Secretary of State for India to collect seeds of the *Cinchona*, or *Quinquina Pitayo*, for the cinchona plantations in India, reported to the Geographical Society, at its April meeting, that he had followed the course of the Andes Cordilleras in his route from Quito through Ibarra, Pasto, and Popayan. The wooded valley of Sylvia is the centre of a district abounding in cinchona. Seven days' journey south of Sylvia

he found a volcano not heretofore described, but which in common with a village near it bore the Indian name of Puracé. During his journey he made the ascent of the peak of Pinon from Pitayo, and by means of boiling water ascertained that its height was about 8,000 feet. The Indians of Pitayo speak the *Paez* dialect, which differs greatly from the *Quichua*, the language of the Indians of Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia, and has no affinities with the *Guambiana*, the dialect of the neighboring Indians of Sylvia, Toteró, Paniquita, and Puracé. In crossing the glacial plateau of Guanacas, in order to descend from the forests of Pitayo into the valley of the Magdalena, Mr. Cross and his mule came near perishing from the intense cold. Along the road at short distances were found numerous skeletons of men and animals who had thus perished.

Dr. Karl von Seebach, a distinguished German geographer, in the autumn of 1864, visited Costa Rica, with the purpose of exploring its volcanoes, which are very numerous and active. In the months of December and January he made a survey of the volcanoes Rincon de la Vieja and Cuipilapa Miravalles, and the mountain peaks Tenorio and Pelado, as well as a very considerable number of lower summits, some of them volcanic. These had, however, all been previously described, and his investigations only confirmed the substantial accuracy of previous surveys. On his return to Nicaragua in the latter part of January, he received information of another volcano in Costa Rica, which, though superior in height, and more remarkable in character than any of the other volcanoes in the State, was as yet unknown except by name to European explorers. Early in March he set out to survey it, and explored it with great thoroughness. It is called Turrialba, and is in the northern part of the State, west of the better-known volcano of Cartago or Irazu. The active crater, which is 9,342 feet above the sea level, is the lowermost of four summits which join one another, the eruption having apparently torn away a portion of its original elevation. The next summit has several points which emit smoke, but no active crater; and the further and loftier summits, though not now indicating any recent volcanic action, have crater basins and lava deposits, indicating their former activity. Seen from Irazu, the higher and now inactive summits have the appearance of overhanging the crater, and of being to some extent undermined by it.

SOUTH AMERICA proper is the favorite field for geographical explorers; its lofty mountains, its mighty rivers, its vast forests and savannas, as yet but imperfectly known, its novel and abundant fauna and flora, and its precious metals and gems, render it one of the most attractive of regions for the scientific adventurer.

Brazil has long been the object of geographical study; but so vast is its territory, that as yet but a small portion has been thoroughly explored. Dr. Bousquet, a physician and natu-

ralist of Paranagua, communicated in the spring of 1865, to the French Department of Foreign Affairs, a paper giving interesting information respecting the province of Parana in the Brazilian empire. The province possesses a very fertile soil, and the finest climate in South America, uniting the advantages of the intertropical regions with those of the south of France and Italy, and it produces in abundance the vegetables and fruits common to the tropics and the south of Europe. It might easily furnish abundant exports from these products, but at present its exports are confined to ship-timber and fire-wood and Paraguay tea (*yerba maté*). The last-named plant is grown only in Paraguay, Parana, and a few points in the province of Rio Grande de Sul. It is in great demand all over South America, being used instead of Chinese tea, and often of coffee. The province of Parana is adapted beyond any other portion of South America for profitable silk culture. The common silk-worm there (the *Bombyx arrindia*) feeds upon the leaves of the *ricinus*, or castor-oil plant, and yields five or six annual crops of cocoons. The soil and climate are also well adapted to the cultivation of coffee and sugar-cane and tobacco. The coffee is reckoned superior to that of Rio. The Brazilian sugar has a good reputation, and the tobacco is not inferior to the best Vuelta Abajo.

Vanilla grows wild in all parts of the province, and in perfume is equal to the best Mexican or Venezuela article. Cotton yields two good crops in a year. All the leguminous plants, as well as rice and maize, are cultivated with success. The forests abound with valuable timber, both for ship-building and cabinet purposes. Among these are the *Arariva*, whose wood is red, yellow, or black; the *Carulla*, yellow and black; the *Corindila*; the *Tejuba*, a sort of iron-wood; the *Jinquitiba*; the red *Peroba*; and the white, red, and black *masafra*. The country is rich in medicinal plants, shrubs, and gums. Among these are the *ipecacuanha*, a very superior sarsaparilla, the *Cambara*, and the *Carroba*, both possessing the highest reputation in scrofulous and syphilitic affections; the balsam of copaiba, the *Jahouba curcas*; the *Quassia amara*, and the *Anguro*, whose resin and bark are reputed in the country an antidote to phthisis.

The province is also very rich in minerals. Its marble and porphyries are of excellent quality and in abundant quantity. Gold is found imbedded in quartz and mingled with the sands of the rivers, and iron and argentiferous galena are plentiful. Near the city of Paranagua is a mine of cinnabar, and it yields, though very rudely worked, a large supply of quicksilver. The Tybagy River and some other streams contain diamonds of considerable size, emeralds, topazes, amethysts, turquoises, and rubies. The Bay of Paranagua abounds in fish of excellent quality and large size.

In the early part of the year, Professor Louis Agassiz, with a large staff of assistants, sailed

from Boston for Rio Janeiro, on a scientific exploration, appertaining rather to natural history and palæontology than to geography, but still having some reference to geographical science. He commenced his labors at Para, early in August, and soon found the necessity of distributing his force so as to cover the greatest possible extent of territory in the shortest possible time. He discovered very early that each separate region of the great basin of the Amazon had its separate collection of different species of fish. On the 8th of September he wrote that he had obtained more than three hundred species of fish, about three-fourths of them new, although he had then examined only one-third of the Amazon without touching its affluents. At Para alone he found sixty-three species, forty-nine of them hitherto unknown, and which would require the establishment of eighteen new genera to give them place in the system of fishes. The other fauna of the Amazon basin presented numerous novelties of species. On the 10th of September the Professor left Manaus in Amazonas for Tabatinga in Peru.

The war now raging, and which has been in progress for some months, between the Brazilian Government and the Argentine Confederation on the one side, and the Paraguayan Government on the other, can hardly fail to result in opening to commerce and the world the rich and fertile region which has so long been ruled by those who have maintained a policy as exclusive as that of China.

Herr Waldemar Schultz, a German geographer and antiquarian, published in August, 1865, in the *Zeitschrift für Allgemeine Erdkunde* of Berlin, a very elaborate essay "On the usual manner of Life, Civilization, Rites, and Customs of the Aborigines of Central South America," including under this term the subjects of the Incas. The essay exhibits extensive and patient research, and brings to light many new facts relative to that interesting people.

Several discussions have been held in the foreign geographical societies, and communications read on the causes of the rapid decrease of the Indian tribes in both North and South America. In North America the unwillingness of the Indian races to assimilate to the customs and mode of life of the whites, their frequent wars and raids, excessive intemperance, and exposure, often with insufficient food, and the prevalence of small-pox and other severe epidemic and contagious diseases, are undoubtedly the principal causes of the decay and rapid extinction of the aboriginal tribes. In South America and Mexico there are to be added to these, according to the testimony of travellers, the amalgamation of races, the very general habit of producing abortion in the case of first children, that the Indian may not be deprived of the menial services of his squaw, and the prevalence of suicide, especially in any severe illness.

Proceeding southward, we come to the *Argentine Confederation*. The province of Mendoza in this Confederation, whose chief city was in 1864 nearly destroyed by an earthquake, has been during 1865 explored with considerable care, and its census taken by the authorities. From this census we glean the following facts: The province of Mendoza is divided into twelve sub-delegations and fifteen departments. Its area is 11,250 square leagues, or 1,800,000 square quadras (the square league contains 160 square quadras). Of this quantity 138,599 quadras were under cultivation, and 309,633 square quadras were capable of cultivation. The principal crops were grain, wine, and fruits. The population of the province was 57,476 souls, of whom 28,599 were males, and 28,879 females; 12,048 were married, 42,907 unmarried; 706 were widowers, and 1,815 widows; 20,251 were between one and ten years of age, 24,263 between ten and thirty, 9,981 between thirty and fifty, and 2,965 between fifty and one hundred. Twenty-four persons were over one hundred years of age.

The live stock consists of 150,961 neat cattle, 77,054 horses, of which about 20,000 were saddle-horses, 7,188 mules, 227,753 sheep, 66,819 goats, 124,089 head of poultry, 15,000 asses, and 3,600 fatted beasts.

There are in the province some remarkable warm springs or geysers, one of which, with a breadth of about 195 feet, throws the hot water periodically to a height of from 150 to 160 feet, and others of less extent send it to a height of 100 to 130 feet. The temperature of the hot springs is about 113° Fahrenheit. The waters are charged with sulphur, and are regarded as of advantage in rheumatic and scrofulous diseases.

In the province of Corrientes, in the Argentine Confederation, there is a large lake on the elevated plateau which overlooks Paraguay, called the Lake of Irirá, signifying in the Guaraní tongue, Clear-water Lake. This lake has had from the discovery of the country an island containing about fifty square leagues. Some time since a mysterious darkness enveloped the island, and remained for several days. When this finally cleared up, a pillar of smoke was seen ascending from the island, and all over the lake small islands not previously existing were discovered to the number it is said of thousands, some of which seemed to float upon the waters. The caymans or alligators, which abounded in the lake, soon took possession of these and basked upon them. The inhabitants of the borders of the lake are greatly terrified at these occurrences, and cannot be induced by any rewards to go to the principal island, though it is said that several Jesuits, expelled from the neighboring mission, escaped thither, and have a beautiful plantation there; and that an Indian of the Tobas tribe, the last of his family, has also taken up his residence there. Wild animals are certainly not wanting on the island, as in a clear and still night their

roaring can be heard distinctly, and the boá constrictor has found a home there, though not known to exist on the mainland in the vicinity.

Spain is conducting a war with the South American States on the Pacific slope, Chili, Bolivia, Peru, and Ecuador; and this war may to some extent delay or impede the development of those States. Chili, which, for a few years past, has been making rapid progress in education, wealth, and social improvement, now finds herself compelled to maintain a large maritime force to repel the invasion of the Spanish troops. She has thus far done this successfully, and with the alliance of the other western States of South America will probably continue to do so, but at the expense of considerable material progress. The communications between Chili and the Argentine Confederation by means of passes and lakes in the southern part of the Andean chain have received further exploration, and nine distinct routes, all of them practicable without serious difficulty, are now described, by which the commerce of the two countries can be maintained. Of these, one or other of those by Lake Rinihue or its vicinity, described in the *ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA* for 1864, are the most desirable.

Herr Hugo Reck, a German civil engineer, of very profound scientific attainments, who spent four years, 1858-1862, in the exercise of his profession in connection with some of the largest mines of the Republic of Bolivia, and subsequently for two years was engaged in the survey and exploration of the Bolivian Andes, has published in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* in an extended and valuable treatise on the history, physical geography, orography, hydrography, and meteorology of Bolivia, one of the most important contributions to geographical science of the year. We can notice only a few of the many additions he has made to our knowledge of the geography of that republic. He gives from his own measurement the height of more than thirty of the highest summits of the Andes proper, and ten or twelve others from the admeasurements of Pentland and Signor Pissis; the snow-line of five of the highest from his own observations; the height of five passes and seventeen summits of the isolated and middle range, and of ten summits of the eastern or inner Cordilleras. Some of his measurements differ considerably from both Pentland's and Pissis' results, but from his very great care and the superior instruments he had at command we believe they are more nearly accurate than the figures of those eminent observers. We can only give the height of the three peaks of Illimani, according to his measurement. The North Peak he makes 20,608 feet, or nearly 250 feet lower than Pentland; the Middle Peak 21,092 feet, or about 200 feet higher than Pentland; and the South Peak, the highest of the three, 21,137, about 180 feet higher than Pentland, and 18 feet lower than Pissis. Huayna Potosi he found to be 20,101 feet, or about 30 feet higher than Pentland's, and more than

900 above Pissis' measurement. Sorata, whose southern pinnacle is now generally believed to be the highest of the South American mountains by a few feet, he did not measure; but from the results of his examination of Illimani, it is somewhat doubtful which is the higher. The snow-line on Illimani (lat. $16^{\circ} 38' S.$) he found to be 17,171 feet, and the average height of the snow-line in five mountains lying between $16^{\circ} 38'$ and $21^{\circ} 43' S.$ was 17,105 feet. The middle range of mountains did not attain to as great a height as the giants of the Andes proper, only two of the peaks rising above 18,000 feet. Of the inner or western Cordilleras the summits of the Cordillera de Andacahua are the loftiest, rising to an average height of about 18,900 feet.

Herr Reck devotes considerable space to the description and statistics of the lofty table-lands or Pampas of Bolivia. These occupy a large portion of the area of the republic, that of Oruro, "the great central plateau of Bolivia," being 2,580 square leagues in extent. The average elevation is 12,431 feet, though the highest are 13,640 above the sea level.

Herr Reck's observations on the hydrography and climate of the country are very complete. The river systems and fresh and salt water lakes are all described, and their size, extent, and sources specified. He gives valuable information relative to the temperature and climate of the Puna brava, or elevated Pampas. The town of Potosi is about 13,084 feet above the sea level, on one of these plateaus, and the temperature there in November, the hottest month, was at 8 A. M. $60^{\circ} 29' F.$; at 2 P. M. $68^{\circ} 25' F.$; at 10 P. M. $51^{\circ} 42' F.$ In July, the coldest month, it was at 8 A. M. $36^{\circ} 30' F.$; at 2 P. M. $53^{\circ} 31'$, and at 10 P. M. $39^{\circ} 34' F.$ In the lower Pampas, at an elevation of nearly or quite 12,000 feet, the sun is very hot in November, though when not exposed to its direct rays the strong breeze reduces the temperature. Herr Reck found on the Anllagas Pampa, November 4, 1860, the temperature in the shade at mid-day was $79^{\circ} 25'$ while in the sun, and reflecting the heat of the sands, the thermometer stood at 138° . There is usually in these regions neither rain nor snow except in the months of August and September.

There have been some geographical discoveries and explorations made during the year in the ATLANTIC OCEAN. The attempt to lay the Atlantic Telegraph Cable proved a failure, owing to untoward accidents which, in the opinion of those best qualified to judge, should not shake our faith in the possibility of its ultimate accomplishment. The attempt will probably be repeated during the coming summer. Capt. Toynebee, R. N., has made a series of observations during five voyages between England and India, relative to the specific gravity and temperature of the sea at different points, which he laid before the Royal Geographical Society on the 8th of May, 1865. He found the specific gravity decrease as he approached the equator,

and also in the Bay of Bengal. In the former case he attributed it to the vast quantity of rain which falls south of the equator between the northeast and southeast trade winds. In the Bay of Bengal he believed it due to the volume of water poured into that bay from the great rivers of India. Between $1^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, and $30'$ south, the temperature of the ocean is uniformly 70° Fahrenheit, except along the west coast of Africa; from August to February, cold currents flow near the land, and, as they approach the Cape of Good Hope, the temperature decreases very rapidly. In February, in Table Bay, he had found the water as low as 51° Fahrenheit. To the southeast of the cape it rises with considerable rapidity, reaching, on the parallel of 40° south, longitude 50° east from Greenwich, 67° Fahrenheit. This warm current enters and passes through the Channel of Mozambique. The temperature of the land around the cape is reduced by this coldness of the sea.

"*The Sea of Sargasso*" is one of the names which has been applied to that extensive portion of the Atlantic Ocean lying between 16° and 38° north latitude and between 29° and 50° west longitude from Greenwich, which is constantly covered with one or more species of seaweed (principally the *fucus natans*), in such quantities as to appear in some places like a prairie in the sea. Many observations in relation to this floating mass of vegetation have been recorded, but the latest and most thorough has been that of Captain Leps, of the French Imperial Navy.

Contrary to the generally received opinion that this vegetation had its origin and growth in the Gulf of Mexico, and was driven to this region between the trade winds by the Gulf Stream, Capt. Leps maintains that it has its origin and growth in the vicinity where it is found; that it is analogous in character to some of the fresh-water algae, and propagates itself by continuous growth without any necessary connection with earthy matters, but deriving its nourishment from the air and the soluble matters of the ocean, and that the comparative stillness of the waters in the region where it is found, in consequence of their lying between the atmospheric currents of the two trade-winds, facilitates its growth and extension; and that it is only kept in bounds by the force of the winds on its borders which drive off large masses, and throw them upon the shores of France and Northern Africa. Capt. Leps believes that this vast floating mass of seaweed might be utilized to advantage either by being gathered on ships and brought to the French coast, where great quantities are now burned and lixiviated for the sake of the soda and iodine they contain, or that these valuable ingredients might be extracted at the region itself, on iron-plated rafts, or the decks of vessels, as the oil is extracted from the whale's blubber on board the whaling-ships.

In EUROPE, geographical science has made decided progress during the year. The publi-

cation of the Emperor Napoleon III.'s Life of Cæsar has led to the discussion and investigation of many points in regard to his expeditions, and especially of his invasion of Britain. A German geographer, Herr H. J. Heller, has published an elaborate essay on the subject of his landing in Britain, in the *Zeitschrift für Allgemeine Erdkunde*, in which, bringing forward all the references to it in the works of the Roman geographers, and illustrating the subject by a well-drawn ancient map, he furnishes ample material for the decision of this long-mooted question.

The *French Government* has completed its topographical survey of France, long since undertaken, and the French geographers are urging upon the Government the importance of a new one on a larger scale, and with the advantages to be derived from better instruments, and from the local surveys which have been made in some portions of the State.

The *Republic of Switzerland* has completed, and has now in progress, the best maps of its surface and orography of any country in Europe. A carefully engraved map on copper, on the scale of 1:100,000, is completed in twenty-five sheets. A steel-plate map, on a scale of 1:250,000 in four sheets, is in progress, and each of the cantons has a map of its own territory on scales varying from 1:25,000 to 1:50,000. The maps of the republic and some of those of the Cantons represent, by different degrees and modes of shading, the comparative height of every portion of the territory. General Dufour has been engaged for thirty years in the survey which has thus been completed.

The great increase in the trade of Amsterdam within a few years past has made the great canal across the isthmus of North Holland insufficient for the accommodation of the commerce of that city, and a new and more direct ship-canal of the largest size is now in course of construction to connect the city with the Gulf of Y. It is expected that it will be finished in 1868.

The Sand Dunes on the coast of *Jutland* have been for some years past the object of special investigation by the Danish geographer and geologist, Andersen, who published in 1865 a large volume giving the results of his observations, one of the ablest contributions to littoral geography ever made. He has considered the sand dunes historically, geologically, geographically, and economically.

M. Schmidt, a Russian geographer, has been investigating the phenomena of the glacial period in *Sweden, Norway, and Finland*. He finds confirmation of the opinion advanced by Lovén, Torell, and other Swedish and Russian geographers, that this whole region was at one time covered with glaciers, probably about the close of the tertiary period, or in the course of what modern geologists call the glacial period. At that time it must have presented an appearance analogous to that of Greenland at the present day. The grooves and furrows in the rocks indicative of glacial action, all have a direction

from northwest to southeast, and these furrows are seen even in the island of Gothland, in the Baltic Sea. From this and other indications, M. Schmidt believes that the Baltic Sea did not exist in the glacial period, and that the glaciers extended over its present surface, and that the convulsions which resulted in the depression of the bed of that sea, and which left only the Swedish mountains above the surface of the ocean, put an end to the glaciers. About the commencement of our present geological era, the continent began to rise again, and has continued to rise to the present day, lifting gradually the submerged lands out of the sea.

Mr. O. W. Blomstrand, one of the corps of explorers in the Swedish Exploring Expedition to Spitzbergen in 1861, gives an account, in the *Transactions of the Swedish Academy*, of the discovery of extensive coal measures in the vicinity of King's Bay, which is at the northern end of Foreland Sound. The coal crops out near the base of a mountain, and extends from the moraine of one glacier to the foot of another. It is of very good quality. There is also marble of great beauty in the same vicinity. This discovery may render that portion of Spitzbergen habitable, and thus qualify it to become a base for north polar expeditions.

The measurement of an arc of meridian across Europe is still in progress, the scientific bureau charged with it having its headquarters in Berlin, Prussia, and having collected there all the documents connected with the survey. The Department of War at St. Petersburg has reported to the permanent geodesic committee a list of the points in Russia of which the latitude, longitude, and altitude had been determined either astronomically or geodesically up to 1860. The number of these points is 17,240. A hydrographic exploration of *Lake Ladoga* has been in progress, under the direction of Grand Admiral Constantine, since 1858, and is now about complete. At the session of the Imperial Geographical Society of St. Petersburg in March, 1865, M. Andreew, one of the engineers of the survey, gave some account of the results of this exploration. The lake abounds with fish of a great number of species, some of them of excellent quality. The *sigus* is the best known of these, and is renowned for its exquisite flavor. The fisheries for it are principally in the south part of the lake. The climate along the shores of the lake is rigorous. The temperature of the water from the breaking up of the ice to midsummer is from 36° to 39° F. In August it rises from 48° to 45° F. The ice is usually from 3½ to 4½ feet in thickness. The navigation of the lake is conducted mostly by sailing-vessels of a very rude construction. About six hundred of these arrive annually at Schluselbourg from different points on the lake and the rivers flowing into it. They bring cargoes of firewood, timber, granite, marble, graphite, black sand, hay, cast-iron, copper, iron, salt fish, etc. The Kareles, who inhabit the eastern shores of the lake, are a very ignorant and superstitious

people, and live in great poverty and discomfort. They are mostly engaged in the rearing of cattle, and it is among them that the rinderpest or cattle-plague is said to have originated, and from them it has been propagated all over Europe. This disease, however, has existed from time immemorial in Siberia, and it is by no means impossible that it has been introduced thence into the districts of Olonetz and Petrosavodsk. M. Andreew believes that the disease is caused by the cattle drinking the red and stagnant water of the marshes. In Finland, the adjoining country, the inhabitants dig wells for the supply of their households and their cattle, and do not suffer them to drink the marsh water, and the rinderpest is unknown there.

In the exploration of *Northern Russia*, now in progress under the direction of M. Barbot de Marné, the question long since raised by Russian geographers in relation to the comparative claims of the Vytchegda and Dwina to be considered the principal stream, has again come up for decision, and the eminent geographer has given it careful consideration. The Vytchegda is longer and deeper than the upper Dwina, and at their point of union seems the more important stream, but the basin of the Jug or Young and the Dwina is the largest in Northern Russia, and drains a greater surface than the Vytchegda. M. Barbot de Marné concludes that the Jug or Young is the primitive stream, and that the whole river, after the junction of the Dwina and Vytchegda, should bear the name of Jug or Young.

The various explorations and surveys of the Alps which have been conducted during the last hundred years, the Lombardic Alps and especially the clusters of elevated peaks known as the Adamillo and Ortles groups, have been overlooked until within the past three or four years. They have now been the object of a very thorough exploration, and though there is no one summit which attains to quite the height of Mont Blanc, there is nowhere else in Europe so large a number of peaks of two miles or a little more in height clustered in so small a territory. Among the explorers who have made these groups a special study, are Lieutenant Payer, Dr. Von Ruthner, E. Von Mojsisovics, Secretary of the Vienna Alpine Club, Messrs. Freshfield, Walker, and Beechcroft, and Mr. Ball, President of the London Alpine Club, Mr. F. F. Tuckett, Messrs. E. N. and H. E. Buxton, and Dr. P. G. Lorentz. Mr. Tuckett, in a very able paper on these groups in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for January, 1866, gives tables of the height of the principal passes, and of the highest summits in this region. It should be remarked that nearly all these peaks and passes are included in the district lying between 46° and $46^{\circ} 45'$ north latitude, and between $7^{\circ} 52'$ and $8^{\circ} 30'$ east longitude from Paris, or in other words a tract 40 by 50 miles in extent. There are sixteen known passes over these mountains, ranging in height from

about 6,000 feet to over 11,000 feet. There are ninety-eight summits above 7,000 feet in height. Of these, four are above 12,000 feet, viz.: Ortles Peak, 12,814; King's Peak, 12,348; Zufall (Accident) Peak, No. 1, 12,348; and Zebbru Peak, 12,255. Twenty-eight other peaks are between 11,000 and 12,000 feet; thirty-three between 10,000 and 11,000; twenty-five between 9,000 and 10,000; seven between 8,000 and 9,000; and one between 7,000 and 8,000 feet. The upper glaciers of the Ortles Peak are 11,445 feet above the sea level.

M. Hecquard, French consul at Scutari, explored in 1864 the principality of Montenegro, and in a communication to his Government gives a very full and interesting account of that small but free State. The people are not highly educated, but they have a considerable measure of intelligence and self-reliance, such as results from many years of free government. Their government was a theocracy until recently; the Vladika being high-priest or bishop as well as ruler; but on the accession of the Prince Danilo I., he refused the episcopate, and was only their civil and military governor. The country is 54 geographical miles in its greatest length, and about 50 in its greatest breadth, and contains about 1,325 square miles. The population numbers about 130,000, and from the character of their country, little of the land being arable, they are compelled to make the raising of cattle, sheep, and goats, their principal business. Butter, cheese, wool, and the hides of their cattle are their chief exports, though of late the production of silk, and of honey and beeswax, have increased their wealth and added to their salable commodities. They raise wheat, maize, and some barley and oats, and cut what hay they can, but are obliged to supplement this crop with the stalks of the maize, and with the small branches and leaves of trees, for the forage of their cattle during the winter. Their supply of maize and other grains is not sufficient for their wants, and they are obliged to import some grain from Russia. The code of laws instituted by Prince Danilo was somewhat severe, though well adapted to the character of the people. He suppressed the *vendetta*, or law of retaliation, though with great difficulty; put an end to theft, which had been one of their crying sins; abolished the facility of divorce, and established a system of imposts. Under his administration, which terminated with his death in 1863, the country prospered, in spite of wars and famines. The mountains which cover the greater part of the surface are of a secondary formation, consisting of limestone, dolomite, etc., and at some points there is anthracite coal, petroleum, and hematitic iron ores. The mountains abound in wild animals, bears, wolves, wild boars, chamois, hares, foxes, martens, etc., and the rivers and lakes contain great numbers of fish, the salmon of the Maratchka being particularly celebrated for its size and flavor.

The island of Crete or Candia was surveyed

and explored by Captain Spratt, an officer of the English navy, in 1852; and the German geographer, Petermann, taking the results of his survey and subsequent reports of other explorers, in 1865 constructed a physical map of the island of great interest. The area of the island is about 8,170 square miles. The surface is for the most part elevated, rising in the central portions of the island into a ridge or backbone, varying from 2,000 to more than 8,000 feet in height, in the western part one or two summits attaining the height of about 8,700 feet. The shores are almost without exception bold, the water being seldom less than from 10 to 40 fathoms in depth, and increasing at a short distance to 100 or 200 fathoms.

The late Dr. Barth, who, in the autumn of 1864, explored the *Ægean* Sea and its shores, as well as the mountains which overlook that sea, in a report to the Royal Geographical Society of Berlin, states, as the result of his explorations, that the Thessalian Olympus range has the highest summits to be found in the region of the *Ægean* and Cretan Seas, the loftiest peak rising to the height of 9,754 feet, and that the mountains of the Turko-Grecian peninsula culminate in the summits of Rilo and Perim Dag, which have no equals in height on that coast.

Dr. Blau, the Prussian consul in the province of Bosnia (the western portion of European Turkey), sent to his Government in 1865 some statistics of that province. The population he states at 882,722, of whom 449,479 are Greeks, 286,708 are Turks, 132,743 are Catholics, 10,026 are Gypsies, 2,438 Jews, and 1,228 belong to other sects and nationalities.

Victor Emanuel, King of Italy, gave permission in 1865 for the resumption of excavations on the site of Pompeii, and a number of interesting statues and buildings have been exhumed. In the house of Pansa, in the street of Fortune, a sculptured cross not yet finished has been found, covered with insulting inscriptions and caricatures ridiculing the notion of a crucified God.

M. Emil Sydow, gives in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for December, 1865, a general review of European cartography, *i. e.* that connected with government surveys during the year 1865. From this it appears that nearly all the Governments of Europe are actively engaged in the prosecution of topographical and geodetic surveys, and that the greater part of them have published maps of portions, at least, of their surveys, executed in the best style, and so engraved as to indicate the height of the surface, while some of them give other and interesting details relative to the physical geography, zoology, industry, education, and religion of the countries represented. Russia has organized the most extensive surveys of this kind, occupying with her explorers and geographers large tracts in various portions of her vast empire; but several of the other States are not far behind her in the extent of their surveys, and are conducting them with great care and labor.

In ASIA the greatest interest of the year centred in the prosecution of further discoveries in Arabia. Prompted by the interesting discoveries made by Mr. Palgrave, of which an account was given in the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* for 1864, Lieut.-Col. Lewis Pelly, of the British army, proposed to penetrate to Riadh, the capital of the Wahabite kingdom, and endeavor to effect a commercial treaty with the Sultan of that kingdom. He accordingly set out on the 18th of January, 1865, from Bushire, on the Persian Gulf, accompanied by Dr. Colville and Lieut. Hawes, and landing at Kuwait, or Korem, in about lat. $29^{\circ} 10' N.$, near the head of the Persian Gulf, proceeded directly southwest toward Riadh. Soon after leaving Kuwait, the travellers found themselves without any roads, but entered on immense plains or prairies, slightly undulating, and at this time of the year covered with a light crop of grass. Serpents, lizards, and venomous insects abounded, and they found but a single tree and a group of wells. As they proceeded further to the southwest, they found long, low hills of sand at considerable distances from each other, but running in a parallel direction. There were seven of these chains of sand-hills, separated by narrow but somewhat fruitful valleys. Crossing the last of these on the tenth day of their journey, they came upon an immense plain, covered here and there with shrubs and brushwood, but without any trees of considerable size. This was the province of Ormah, one of the dependencies of the Wahabite kingdom. Here were frequent wells, and small streams which lost themselves after a time in the arid sands. West of Ormah they again encountered sand-hills, which extended to the highlands, and an opening or pass through both the hills and the mountain barrier of Aredh, along which a road is built which conducted them to the elevated plateau of Shaab, a number of miles in breadth. The mountain chain of Aredh is succeeded at the north by that of Towais, from which it is separated by the populous plain of Mahmed. Immediately at the foot of the Towais chain lies the territory or province of Sidayr, a narrow band of rich and populous country. Among the finest cities of this region visited by the travellers was Lidus or Sedus, a thriving, prosperous town, hidden in the midst of plantations of palms and roses. After examining an ancient column erected before the Mahometan era, the travellers turned southeast and entered Riadh, the Wahabite capital, after a journey of fifteen days on the back of camels from Kuwait. By a series of observations they determined the position of Riadh to be $24^{\circ} 38' 84'' N. lat.$, and $40^{\circ} 41' 48'' E. long.$, from Greenwich. Lieut.-Col. Pelly had three interviews with the Sultan, whom he regards as one of the most remarkable of Oriental monarchs. At the first interview the conversation was confined mostly to phrases of etiquette, but the sovereign remarked that the configuration of his country was such as to interdict

any considerable intercourse with adjacent States, and that the Wahabites produced among themselves whatever they needed, and had no occasion or desire to cultivate relations of trade or intercourse with foreigners or foreign nations. In a subsequent interview, however, he showed himself more complaisant, and urged the colonel to visit all quarters of his kingdom. Finding that the subordinate officers of the government regarded him and his companions with covert hostility, and that his prime minister, the son of a negro and a Georgian slave, was particularly bitter against them, Lieut.-Col. Pelly deemed it best to return without delay to Bushire, and made his way almost due east through the fertile oasis of El-Ahsa, to the lower portion of the Persian Gulf.

In December, 1864, Signor C. Guarmani, a highly intelligent Italian traveller and explorer, thoroughly acquainted with the Arabic tongue and customs, left Jerusalem, under commission from Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy, to procure for him some Arabian horses of the pure Nedjed breed. He assumed the name of Kalil Aga, and passed as a Turkish Aga, travelling in the service of one of the Pachas of Constantinople. He explored with considerable thoroughness the kingdom of Djebel Shomer, visiting Hail or Kail, its capital, twice, and spending some time there, and penetrating into the Wahabite country as far as Oneiza the capital of the province of El-Kasim. On his return, having procured four stallions of great beauty, he encountered a large force of Bedouins of the tribe of Scererat, who attacked and plundered the caravan with which he was travelling, killing one of his horses. He reached Jerusalem on his return about the 1st of June, 1865. Neither of these explorers has traversed so much of the region of Central Arabia as Mr. Palgrave, but both have visited some portions which he did not. Guarmani, following the mountainous region near the boundaries of El-Hidjaz, about 150 miles west of Palgrave's route, avoided the great desert of Nefud, in which Palgrave came near losing his life. There is still a vast region south of Palgrave's route in the Wahabite kingdom: unexplored, but much of it is undoubtedly desert.

Dr. J. G. Wetzstein, an eminent German geographer, has devoted two or three elaborate papers in the *Zeitschrift für Allgemeine Erdkunde* to the geography of Northern Arabia and the Syrian Desert; and availing himself of all the recent explorations of that region, he has given a more complete and satisfactory account of it than any heretofore published.

Syria and Palestine have been explored with great thoroughness during the past two years. M. E. G. Rey, one of the members of the French Exploring Expedition, during the autumn of 1864, made a very thorough examination of the chain of Ansaries, a part of the Lebanon Mountains, visiting its principal summits, Naby Metu, Naby Salek, and Sultan Ibrahim, which

he found of an average height of about 4,060 feet. M. Vignes, the commander of one of the vessels comprising the Luyne Expedition, explored the Syrian Desert from Hloms to Palmyra, discovered many extensive mines hitherto unknown, and has contributed to our knowledge of the character, manners, and customs of the Arabs of this desert. M. Vincent Guérin has made a careful survey of Mount Tabor, and has described, in the *Bulletin de la Société de Géographie*, its configuration, its ruins, and the magnificent panorama visible from its summit. He states its height as 2,470 feet above Lake Tiberias, 1,950 feet above the Mediterranean, and 1,800 feet above the plain of Esdraelon. The Baroness von Gertsdorff has communicated to Petermann's *Mittheilungen* a very full account of an exploring tour made with her late husband through Syria from Aleppo to the Euphrates. Our countryman, the late Rev. Dr. Edward Robinson, had prepared, and his literary executors have published, a "Physical Geography of Palestine." By far the most thorough and complete work on the physical geography, and especially the orography of Palestine, is the "Treatise of Herr C. W. M. Van de Velde on Palestine," the result of two years' exploration, published in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for May, June, and August, 1865. Herr Von de Velde has, with commendable care and perseverance, ascertained the elevation above or depression below the sea level of 450 places in Palestine, giving in many instances the varying observations of several other explorers as well as his own, and has brought together a more complete view of the physical geography of the Holy Land than has ever previously been published, and has accompanied it with an admirable map.

Lieut.-Col. H. J. Stebnitzky, a Russian staff-officer of Tiflis, has been engaged in investigating the condition, area, and population of the *Caucasian provinces*, and reported, in 1865, to the Government and the Imperial Geographical Society the results of his explorations so far as completed—the area of the three Cis-Caucasian provinces at 88,909 square miles, and that of the seven Trans-Caucasian provinces at 84,959.5 square miles, making the whole area of the Caucasian Government 173,852.56 square miles. The population of Cis-Caucasia was 1,262,524, or 142 to the square mile; of Trans-Caucasia, 2,894,943, or 34 to the square mile, and and of the whole 4,157,517, or 239 to the square mile. Of this population 2,185,157 (864,996 in the Cis-Caucasian, and 1,380,161 in the Trans-Caucasian provinces) were Christians, viz., 1,615,053 Greek Church; 56,601 other sects approximating to the Greek Church; 491,356 Gregorian or orthodox Armenians; 12,872 Armenian Catholics; 3,479 Roman Catholics; 5,777 Lutherans and Reformed Church. There were also 1,972,310 belonging to the non-Christian religions; of these 1,944,651 were Mohammedans, 16,138 Jews, and 11,521 Pagans. The cities and towns of the Caucasus are small.

Tiflis, the capital, has 60,776 inhabitants; Shamachi, in the province of Baku, has 25,148 inhabitants; Shusha, in the same province, 20,297; and Mucha, also in the same province, 20,533. Stavropol has 17,363, Jeisk 16,747, Alexandropol 14,395, Elizabethtopol 15,191, Achal-zich 14,728, Baku 13,392, and Erivan 12,170. No other towns in the government reach a population of 12,000, and the entire town population is but 849,512.

The residences of the people are thus classified: cities and large towns 35, market-towns 9, colonies 15, villages 1,113, hamlets 6,838, Cossack stations 274, isolated farms 3,759, nomadic encampments 2,639. Lieut.-Col. Stebnitzky has of late been engaged upon the orography of the Caucasus, and has reported the results of his exploration of the eastern portion of the Trans-Kuban district bordering on the Black Sea. He has ascertained the height of thirteen points above the level of the Black Sea. This portion of the Caucasus is not of so great elevation as the northern and southern districts. The highest point recorded by him was the summit of the Passegashka Pass, which is 7,088 feet above the Black Sea. The northern summits of the Caucasus range are much higher, some of them rising from 19,000 to 20,000 feet.

M. Viskovatow, a Russian geographer, has been for some years exploring this range, and has recently given before the Imperial Geographical Society of Petersburg an interesting account of the glacier of Devdorak, which descends from Mount Kasbek, one of the loftier peaks of the range, toward the defile of Terek. This defile is the only passage which can be traversed between the northern Caucasus and the lower Trans-Caucasian range, and is known as the military road of Georgia. The small river Devdorak has its source in the glacier, and falls into the Terek. The ice, snow, earth, and rocks descend from the lower borders of this glacier in frequent avalanches, and obstruct often for months with their *débris* the defile of Terek, sometimes blocking it up for a distance of twenty-five or thirty miles. From 1780 to 1830 there were six of these avalanches, and the periods which elapsed between them were quite regular. Since 1830 there had been but one, in 1852; and M. Viskovatow believes this to be owing to the receding of the glacier, which is smaller than formerly. Dr. Gustav Radde, a German naturalist, explored this part of the Caucasus in 1864, and has published an interesting account of its flora and fauna; and has also added to our knowledge of its river systems and the character of its mountains.

Mention has been made, in previous volumes of the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, of the commission appointed by the Russian Government, to ascertain the present condition of the Sea of Azof, and the extent and causes of its increasing shallowness. M. Danilevski was put at the head of this commission, and although his investigations are not completed, he has made a

partial report, in which he announces, among others, the following conclusions: That the filling up of the sea is not so great as had been represented; but that it proceeds from two causes, the gradual elevation of the shores and bottom of the sea from geological changes, and the large quantity of silt brought down by the Kouban River, in its rapid descent from the Caucasus. The Don and the other rivers discharging their waters into the Sea of Azof, add very little to these deposits of sand. The delta of the Kouban has in the course of eight or ten centuries been transformed into several islands and a peninsula, and the process of upheaval has given to these islands a considerable height.

In Turkestan, the Russian power is ever pushing its way eastward. It has already absorbed nearly the whole of what formerly constituted Independent Turkestan—Khokand and its principal cities, Khokand and Tashkend, being its latest acquisitions, while at the eastern portion of Chinese Tartary, as well as along its western boundaries, it is constantly extending their forts and stations, and ere long will undoubtedly exercise its sway over the whole of this vast territory. That this will prove of great advantage, both to the inhabitants of these regions, and to the rest of the world, cannot be doubted, for the Russian administration is just and enlightened, and will be favorable to the development of the country. M. Charles Struve (son of the astronomer) explored, during the autumn of 1864, the Targatai chain of mountains, and portions of the basin of the Tzaizan and the Irish. He reports that the Kirghiz Tartars of that region, hitherto wholly nomadic in their habits, have commenced the establishment of fixed villages, probably with reference to the Russian occupation.

Rear-Admiral A. Boutakoff, in 1863 and 1864, explored very thoroughly the whole navigable course of the Jaxartes, or Syr-Daria, a distance of above a thousand miles. The whole region bordering on this river is fertile, and would be productive if it was under Russian sway, for the only bar to its cultivation has been the frequent raids of the savage Kirghiz and other nomadic tribes.

M. Anatole J. Sponville, a French engineer who has spent the greater part of 1864, and the winter and spring of 1865, among the Siberian Kirghiz of the region north of the Syr-Daria, has given in the *Bulletin de la Société de la Géographie* a full account of the habits, manners, and customs of these nomadic tribes; and M. H. de Blocqueville, a French geographer, who has been engaged in an exploration of Turkestan, has, in the same journal, described the character and manners of the Turcomans, who are allied to the Kirghiz not only in race, but in their lawless and nomadic disposition, and has accompanied it by a good map of Southern Turkestan. M. Severtsov, a Russian geographer, has been engaged for some years in an exploration of the western Thian-chan chain

of mountains, between the Syr-Daria and the Tchou Rivers, and has made many interesting discoveries, soon to be published, relative to the geography and geological condition of this lofty but hitherto little known region. M. Simonov, quartermaster on the staff of the Siberian military commander, has executed a map of the Soungari River, which he has explored. The Prince Crapotkin, of the same staff, has sent to the Imperial Geographical Society of St. Petersburg a map of a portion of the country lying on the river Argun. In the third volume of Dr. Radde's survey of Eastern Siberia, just published in Paris, he devotes much attention to the country of Sagan, lying between East Siberia and China. The culminating point of the mountain chain of Sagan, he says, is Munko-Sardik, in the extreme eastern portion of Sagan. It is about 12,600 feet in height, and from this central point mountain chains push out in three directions, N. E., E. S. E., and S. E. The narrative and observations of the brothers Schlagintweit, in their exploration of the Himalayas, is in course of publication.

India has been developing its agricultural and commercial resources rapidly, under the extraordinary demand for cotton. At a session of the Royal Geographical Society of London, Mr. Temple gave an interesting account of the basin of the Mahanuddy, a river discharging its waters into the Bay of Bengal below Cuttack. Its delta is so obstructed by sand-bars as to render the entrance of ships into the mouth of the river impracticable, but the river itself and its affluents have 710 miles of navigable waters. The population of the basin exceeds 1,500,000, and the country is admirably adapted to the culture of cotton, only requiring a removal of the obstructions at the mouth of the river, or a short railroad, to bring it into the market. Ship-timber of great excellence is found in abundance near the banks of the river.

Dr. Friedmann, of Munich, has given, in the *Zeitschrift für Allgemeine Erdkunde*, a very full account of the geographical and commercial condition of the Dutch East Indies (now generally called Netherlands India) in 1861. By the census of that year, the population of the islands belonging to Holland was 17,589,039 persons, of whom 120,934 were stated to be Christians, and the remainder either Mohammedans or pagans. The military force consisted of 30,063 men, of whom only 11,466 were Europeans. The receipts of the Government for that year were in round numbers 58,900,000 florins, and the expenditures (some of them extraordinary) were 76,279,000 florins, making a heavy deficit, which was unusual. The agricultural productions of the islands were coffee, 901,847 piculs; sugar, 1,696,199 piculs; indigo, 441,721 Amsterdam pounds; tea, 1,956,469 Amsterdam pounds; cinnamon, 192,830 Amsterdam pounds; cochineal, 4,500 pounds; pepper, 394 piculs. The number of ships visiting the islands

during the year was 2,762, with an aggregate tonnage of 175,096 tons.

An expedition, under the direction of Dr. H. A. Bernstein, a Dutch geographer, spent the years 1860-'62 in exploring the eastern Moluccas, and made, in 1865, a very full report of the geography, geology, and zoology of these islands. They contributed to the Museum of Natural History at Leyden, from the islands, 181 mammals, 1,917 birds, 212 reptiles, 211 fishes, 588 mollusks, 10,215 insects, and 42 zoophytes.

A new volcanic island was discovered, nearly due east from the southern point of Formosa, in latitude $20^{\circ} 35' 30''$ N. longitude, $145^{\circ} 16' 30''$ east from Greenwich, on the 19th of March, 1865, by the ship *Veritas* from San Francisco. The island was of considerable size, and appeared to be of conical form, and at intervals emitted a thick smoke from its highest point.

AFRICA.—In *Egypt*, M. Lesseps is still attempting to push forward the Suez Canal; but though he has completed a small fresh-water canal, he has made very little progress in the Grand Ship Canal, so long and boastfully promised. Of this, which was to be one hundred and twenty miles in length, one hundred and eighty feet in width, and thirty in depth, not a yard is yet completed. A half mile is in progress, and may be finished this year, though the difficulties to be overcome from the hardness of the rock, the irruption of salt water, and the want of laborers, render this uncertain; but, under the most favorable circumstances, from twenty to forty years must elapse before its completion; a long time to wait—too long for the company who have undertaken it, and expended such vast sums of money on it.

The Nile explorations, under Mr. S. W. Baker, have established the fact that a large lake exists west of the Victoria Nyanza, which he has named the Albert Nyanza (Speke's Luta Nzige); that the Victoria Nyanza discharges its waters into this by the stream which Speke believed to be the headwaters of the Nile, with a fall of 1,238 feet in a distance of probably three hundred miles. The northern outlet of the Albert Nyanza is probably one of the branches of the Nile, but this is not yet quite certain; and the Asua, another of its affluents, has probably its origin in Lake Bahringo, far to the east, and crossing the equator. Baron von der Decken, the indefatigable German traveller, has failed in his attempt to reach the region of these lakes from Zanzibar, and at last reports was probably a prisoner and in great danger. He attempted to ascend the Juba, a large river of Eastern Africa, whose source was reported to be near the equator, far in the interior, having two steamers of his own. One of these was wrecked at the mouth of the river, but with the other he ascended three hundred and eighty miles into the country of the Sultan of Bendera, where, on the 25th of September, 1865, she struck upon a rock, and it was necessary to discharge her cargo. The baron went to the capital of the Sultan for assistance, and during his

absence (October 1st) his men were attacked by the natives, several killed, and the rest compelled to escape down the river, leaving the baron alone among the natives. They reached Zanzibar on the 24th of October, and an English ship was instantly despatched to aid in the rescue of the baron.

In *Western Africa*, M. du Chaillu, who had attempted again to penetrate into the gorilla country, made many interesting discoveries, but while at Monavo Kombo one of his men firing a gun to please the natives, accidentally shot two of them, when the savages set upon them and compelled them to fly into the forests, shooting poisoned arrows at them. Du Chaillu's men became panic-stricken, and, throwing away his apparatus and specimens, fled to the Ashira country. He had been wounded and was very ill, but finally reached the coast and returned to London. Several other expeditions are in progress—one northward from the Gabon, under the direction of a Mr. Walker; another southward, through the Sahara Desert, to the country of the Tuaricks, by Gerhard Rohlfs, of which we shall know more ere long. Dr. Baikie fell a victim to the African fever, when just upon the point of returning to Europe. Dr. Barth, the distinguished African explorer, is also dead. Dr. Livingstone has published the narrative of his discoveries, from 1858 to 1864, during the past year, and the relation is full of interest. Dr. Livingstone's brother, Charles, who had resided for some years in the United States, contributes a portion of the volume, and his descriptions of some of the wonders of that region of which the two brothers have been the principal explorers, possess a remarkable freshness and vividness. The Mosi-oa-tunya, or Victoria Falls, were partially described in his former volume, but in this they are portrayed with far greater fullness, and compared with Niagara, with which Mr. Charles Livingstone was familiar. In size and the height of the fall, as well as the character of the rock over which the water rushes, the African greatly surpasses the American cataract, the fall being over three hundred feet, and the river a full mile in width. The fall is through a wide crack in the solid black basaltic rock, and there is no projecting crag, so that the wall of rocks goes sheer and perpendicularly down from the lip of the fall.

The party ascended the river Shire three times, explored thoroughly the lakes Nyassa and Shirwa, as well as several smaller lakes, and ascertained the height of many of the summits of the Milanje range, which, from a distance, overlooks the Shire and Lakes Nyassa and Shirwa. Aside from this mountain range there are isolated mountains nearer to Lake Nyassa, four thousand feet or more in height; and above the junction of the Ruu with the Shire, and the wide marshy expanse called by the natives Lake Mukulu, but which the explorers named Elephant Marsh, looms up in the distance a majestic mountain, which Dr. Livingstone surnamed Mount Clarendon. Animal life

is abundant all over this region, crocodiles and hippopotami are found in great numbers in the rivers and lakes, and the marshes afford feeding grounds to large droves of elephants of great size. At Lake Mukulu the explorers saw eight hundred feeding at once. Fish of delicious flavor, and water fowl in thousands, inhabit the river Shire as well as the lakes, while birds of prey hover over the waters, and the wading birds seek their food in the marshes and near the river brink.

Dr. Livingstone departed again late in the year 1865, with an ample equipment, furnished jointly by the British Government and the Royal Geographical Society, for the region in which he has already spent nearly sixteen years of his life, in the hope of ascending nearer to the equator and exploring the Albert and Victoria Nyanza, and ascertaining definitely their relations to each other, to Lake Tanganyika, and to the source of the Nile.

In OCEANICA the explorations of the past year have been rather a confirmation of past discoveries than a development of new facts of interest. It has become settled that the interior of *Australia* is not an arid and treeless waste, but that, though portions of it lack water, other parts are traversed by large rivers and yield an abundant vegetation. M. Hüber has crossed the continent and explored the Upper Murray and Darling Rivers, and has brought home interesting and very full information in regard to the fruits, plants, and animals of that portion of Australia, as well as the natives, whose habits, customs, and religious views he studied with great care during a period of thirteen months. The great rat of Australia (*Mus Conditior*) he is the first naturalist who has fully described. He speaks of its flesh as affording an agreeable diet. He also discovered several new species of birds. In a subsequent journey undertaken in the summer and autumn (the southern winter) of 1864, he explored very fully the course of the Murray and the Darling. The former takes its course in the western slope of the Australian Alps, and its course is for the most part due west, but under the meridian of 140° it turns southward, and after crossing the Torrens Marsh discharges its waters into Encounter Bay. Its principal affluents come from the left bank, and are the Mitta-Mitta, the Ovens, the Goulburn, the Loddon, and Murrumbidgee.

The Darling or Barwon River, itself a mighty stream, is also a tributary of the Murray, and receives numerous affluents. Both rivers are navigable for the greater part of their course. Dr. Müller started from Glendower, near Castlemaine, in the Victoria colony, with eight companions, on the 3d of July, on an expedition, well equipped, in search of traces of the missing Dr. Leichhardt. The new colony at the mouth of the Adelaide have found it necessary to abandon their location, in consequence of its unhealthiness, from the proximity of marshes and jungles.

GEORGIA. The result of the military operations in Georgia, at the close of the previous year, had been the capture of Savannah, and the defeat of the army of Gen. Hood in Tennessee. The success of these operations was announced to his troops by Gen. Sherman in the following congratulatory address:

Special Field Orders No. 6.

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE
MISSISSIPPI, IN THE FIELD,
SAVANNAH, GA., JANUARY 8, 1865.

The General commanding announces to the troops composing the Military Division of the Mississippi, that he has received from the President of the United States, and from Lieutenant-General Grant, letters conveying the high sense and appreciation of the campaign just closed, resulting in the capture of Savannah, and the defeat of Hood's army in Tennessee.

In order that all may understand the importance of events, it is proper to revert to the situation of affairs in September last. We held Atlanta, a city of little value to us, but so important to the enemy, that Mr. Davis, the head of the rebellious faction in the South, visited his army near Palmetto, and commanded it to regain it, as well as to ruin and destroy us by a series of measures which he thought would be effectual.

That army, by a rapid march, first gained our railroad, near Big Shanty, and afterwards about Dalton. We pursued, but it marched so rapidly that we could not overtake it; and General Hood led his army successfully far toward Mississippi, in hopes to decoy us out of Georgia. But we were not then to be led away by him, and purposed to control and lead events ourselves. Generals Thomas and Schofield, commanding the department in our rear, returned to their posts, and prepared to decoy General Hood into their meshes, while we came on to complete our original journey.

We quietly and deliberately destroyed Atlanta and all the railroad which the enemy had used to carry on war against us, occupied his State capital, which had been so strongly fortified from the sea as to defy approach from that quarter.

Almost at the moment of our victorious entry into Savannah, came the welcome and expected news that our comrades in Tennessee had fulfilled, nobly and well, their part; had decoyed General Hood to Nashville, and then turned on him, defeating his army thoroughly, capturing all his artillery, great numbers of prisoners, and were still pursuing the fragments down into Alabama. So complete a success in military operations, extending over half the continent, is an achievement that entitles it to a place in the military history of the world.

The armies serving in Georgia and Tennessee, as well as the local garrisons of Decatur, Bridgeport, Chattanooga, and Murfreesboro, are alike entitled to the common honor; and each regiment may inscribe on its colors at pleasure, the words "Savannah" or "Nashville."

The General commanding embraces in the same general success the operations of the cavalry column under Generals Stoneman, Burbridge, and Gillem, that penetrated into Southwest Virginia, and paralyzed the efforts of the enemy to disturb the peace and safety of the people of East Tennessee. Instead of being put on the defensive, we have, at all points, assumed the bold offensive, and completely thwarted the designs of the enemies of our country.

By order of Major-General W. T. SHERMAN.
(Signed) L. W. DARRON, Aide-de-Camp.

On the 14th, Gen. Sherman issued a further order, authorizing the farmers of Georgia to bring into Savannah, Jacksonville, or Fernan-

dina, for the markets, beef, pork, mutton, vegetables of any kind, fish as well as cotton in small quantities, and to invest the proceeds in family stores, such as bacon, flour, groceries, shoes, clothing, and articles not contraband of war, and carry the same back to their families. He further added: "The people are encouraged to meet together in peaceful assemblages, to discuss measures looking to their safety and good government, and the restoration of the State and National authority, and will be protected by the National army while so doing; and all peaceable inhabitants who satisfy the commanding officers that they are earnestly laboring to that end, must not only be left undisturbed in property and person, but must be protected, as far as possible, consistent with the military operations. If any farmer or peaceable inhabitant is molested by the enemy, viz., the Confederate army or guerrillas, because of his friendship to the National Government, the perpetrator, if caught, will be summarily punished, or his family made to suffer for the outrage; but if the crime cannot be traced to the actual party, then retaliation will be made on the adherents to the cause of the rebellion; should a Union man be murdered, then a rebel selected by lot will be shot—or if a Union family be persecuted on account of the cause, a rebel family will be banished to a foreign land. In aggravated cases, retaliation will extend as high as five for one. All commanding officers will act promptly in such cases, and report their action after the retaliation is done."

The Confederate Legislature of the State assembled at Macon on February 11th. Governor Brown in his message said that the State had been left to her fate by the other Confederate States. He recommended the establishment of the militia system for home defence; but opposed the arming of the slaves, believing they were more valuable as agricultural laborers than they could be as soldiers. They did not wish to go into the army, and the principal restraint upon them was, the fear that if they were to leave, the Federal authorities would make them fight. If they were compelled by the Confederates to take up arms, they would desert by thousands. He said: "We cannot expect them to fight well to continue the enslavement of their wives and children, and it is unreasonable to demand it of them. When we establish the fact that they are a military people, we destroy our theory that they are unfit to be free, and when we arm them we abandon slavery."

After a short session, since become unimportant by the course of events, the Legislature adjourned. The progress of the Federal arms soon became irresistible. The invasion of Gen. Wilson was unobstructed. Early in April, West Point, Columbus, Griffin, and Macon, were captured and held by him. Governor Brown issued orders calling out all the militia between the ages of sixteen and sixty, but no force was raised. On April 30th, Gen. Johnston sent the

following despatch to the Governors of Georgia, South Carolina, and Florida :

GREENSBORO', April 30, 1865.

To his Excellency Joseph E. Brown, Augusta, Ga.;
A. G. Magrath, Governor of South Carolina, Spar-
tansburg, via Chester, S. C.; John Milton, Florida :

The disaster in Virginia; the capture by the enemy of all our workshops for the preparation of ammunition and repairing arms; the impossibility of recruiting our little army, opposed by more than ten times its number, or of supplying it except by robbing our own citizens, destroyed all hope of successful war. I have, therefore, made a military convention with Gen. Sherman to terminate hostilities in North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida.

I made this convention to spare the blood of the gallant little army committed to me, to prevent further sufferings of our people by the devastation and ruin inevitable from the marches of invading armies, and to avoid the crime of waging hopeless war.

J. E. JOHNSTON, General.

All further resistance on the part of the State was now at an end. The Governor issued a proclamation and called a session of the Legislature. But Gen. Gillmore, in charge of the Department which included Georgia, issued orders declaring the proclamation of the Governor to be null and void, that the blacks were free citizens of the United States and would be protected by the Federal Government in the enjoyment of freedom and of the fruits of their industry. Gen. Wilson, in a letter to the Governor, stated that he was instructed by the President to say to him: "That the restoration of peace and order cannot be intrusted to rebels and traitors; that the persons who incited the war and carried it on will not be allowed to assemble at the call of their accomplice to act again as a Legislature of the State, and again usurp the authority and franchises. Those who have caused so much woe, will not be allowed again to set on foot fresh acts of treason and rebellion. In calling the Legislature together again, without the permission of the President, you have perpetrated a fresh crime; and if any person presumes to answer or acknowledge your call, he will be immediately arrested."

The control of affairs in the State was thus held by the military authorities until it was subsequently relaxed on the appointment of a Provisional Governor.

The condition of the inhabitants of Georgia, and indeed of all the other Southern States where the desolation of war had been made, was one of great destitution and suffering. A writer from Augusta, May 24th, thus describes the views of the citizens :

This city is the only place of any magnitude South that was spared. And now let us hope for an indulgent Government. A kind and generous policy will be followed by general satisfaction at the South. The effort will be very happy, and will tend much to banish the bitterness of the late struggle, and revive the friendly relations of the sections. At present the people are in suspense—generally anxious and dejected, fearful of harsh measures. Emancipation has deranged labor somewhat, but not as much, I think, as was expected; and after a while I believe people will cease to feel any inconvenience, especially if wholesome legislation is had against vagrancy, etc. The people may be called in just that state of mind

when a very generous policy might be expected to produce the happiest results. They seem prepared for a radical course of treatment. A different application, announced promptly and frankly, would cause rejoicing throughout the land. Of one thing, however, all are assured, viz.: there will be but one Government, and none are hesitating to resume their allegiance to the "old flag, for better or worse." We are all "citizens of the United States," of one country, and a common destiny as a people. Secession is dead! And the irrepressible conflict has decided that slavery is dead!

Another writer about the same date says:

Passing Marietta, where the usual marks of destruction appeared, I was interested by the appearance of a crowd gathered about one of the few remaining business buildings. I began to make inquiries, indicating my character as just from above, in search of information, when they thronged about me and began the revelation of a degree of destitution that would draw pity from a stone.

Thomas H. Moore, of respectable and even cultured address, introduced himself as the agent for the county, appointed by the State, for the distribution of the supplies voted by the rebel Legislature to the people of North Georgia, after Sherman's passage. He said all these supplies had been long ago issued. He had himself, since, walked to Atlanta (having no horse), to procure more. A few hundred pounds had been furnished, which he was now distributing, but it amounted to a mere pittance, and he was obliged to reserve it for those who are already on the verge of starvation. Women daily—nay, hourly, come in from a distance of ten and fifteen miles afoot, leaving homes entirely destitute, in order to get a few mouthfuls to save the lives of their helpless children.

After him came slaveholders, the wealthiest in the county—one with sixty slaves, who complained that what had once made them the richest now made them the poorest. They had nothing to feed these people, without whose aid the crops could not be secured. Mr. — had told his negroes that if they would remain with him, now that they were free, he would compensate them, and share with them his land, and they were anxious to do so; but—and he called me aside to tell me this privately—the distributing officers refused to furnish the slaveholders, who, unless they could get aid, would, together with their negroes, starve. They all told me that no man in the country had more than two bushels of corn left. They besought me to help them if I could, and at their request I sent word back to Col. Adams, to be forwarded to Gen. Judah, that, if possible, supplies might be sent down at once by railroad to Kingston, from which point the citizens of the county would gladly team it themselves.

The commandant has mentioned a case that occurred yesterday. A poor woman came all the way into town on foot, from a distance of twenty miles, leaving at home a family of children who had had nothing to eat for twenty-four hours. Yet the most that could be done in answer to her appeal was to request the commissary, if possible, to supply her.

Another account says:

From a recent report made by order of the military authorities, it has been ascertained that there are 35,000 men, women, and children in the counties of Georgia immediately surrounding Atlanta, who are dependent upon the United States Government for support and preservation from death by hunger. In the counties of North Georgia there must be at least as many more, for at every post and headquarters of the United States forces hundreds of applicants apply daily for relief. To such an extent does this state of affairs prevail that it seriously incommodes the troops; and though every effort has been made to

relieve the sufferings of the people, yet vast destitution prevails among them.

An order has recently been issued by Gen. Thomas, ordering that several thousand bushels of corn be distributed among these poor people, which will prove of great benefit. Still, the evil increases day by day, by the arrival of hundreds of poor refugees from points north of here, especially from Indiana.

Another account from Atlanta, Ga., gives these details:

To get an idea of the immensity of the feeding establishments in this city I will give you some items. During the month of June, there were issued to about fifteen thousand recipients: ninety-five thousand pounds of breadstuff, and the same amount of meat, together with the proper proportion of salt, coffee, sugar, soap, candles, and other articles. Since the 1st of July, the increase of recipients has been very large. A large number of refugees, who are returning to their homes on Government transportation, also receive their subsistence here; and this addition has assisted very much to increase the amount of issue. Captain Seaton estimates the issue up to this date, nearly the amount issued the last month. By my own close observation the issue is daily twice as large as it was last month at the same dates. There are employed in the issuing house about ten clerks, who are kept on the run all day, and often at night; about twenty negroes, who assuredly do not find the work of this commissary department as easy a business as working in a corn-field, especially when they are caught stealing—a piece of waggonery which you know the “institution” is very fond of perpetrating. A large number of Confederate soldiers, lately discharged from Northern prisons, continue to arrive here daily, and they, too, are furnished with rations. Taking as an entire affair the business of this commissary post, it is the biggest thing I have met with in a long time. I am certain that, if what is done so patiently by Capt. Seaton and his hard-working assistants had been required of a like number of our Confeds, a few months ago, there is not a building in the South large or strong enough to have held the disbursing parties, for they would have — enough to have levelled the walls and blown the roof away. Discipline, and some other little peculiarities of human nature, make the difference. I was too stubborn a Southern soldier, however, to make any insidious remarks now, however much my maw may have suffered in the hungry times gone by, and which discomfort was caused by neglectful and selfish commissaries.

But before I close I cannot help but remark that it must be a matter of gratitude as well as surprise, for our people to see a Government which was lately fighting us with fire, and sword, and shell, now generously feeding our poor and distressed. In the immense crowds which throng the distributing house, I notice the mothers, and fathers, and widows, and orphans of our soldiers, who fought nobly—and how sadly—too often to the death, for our loved South. Again, the Confederate soldier, with one leg or one arm, the crippled, maimed, and broken, and the worn and destitute men, who fought bravely their enemies then, their benefactors now, have their sacks filled and are fed.

There is much in this that takes away the bitter sting and sorrow of the past. There is more than humanity in it, on the part of the provider; and the generous conduct will go farther to heal the wounds of the nation, than all the diplomacy and political policy of tricksters and office-seekers during centuries to come.

On the 17th of June, James Johnson, a citizen of Georgia, was appointed the Provisional Governor, to conduct the reorganization of the State. The proclamation of the President mak-

ing the appointment was similar in all respects, except the name of the State and Governor, and date, to that issued in the case of Alabama. (See ALABAMA.)

After his appointment, the Governor proceeded to address the citizens in various parts of the State, instructing them in the system of measures which it was proposed to adopt in order to reorganize the State Government, and asking their coöperation. He said that he had been appointed for the single purpose of enabling them to form a government, and that he was not authorized to appoint civil magistrates, and should not. He advised the people to take the amnesty oath, and thus prepare themselves to become citizens. They would be required to recognize, as an accomplished fact, that slavery had ceased to exist, and that its restoration under any form was out of the question. He said: “I do not propose, in this connection, to enter upon a lengthy argument to prove it. I simply state what is universally acknowledged by all writers on national law, that belligerents have the right to make captures of persons and property, and that they may make what disposition they please of the property captured. The vanquished are at the disposition of the conquerors, and may be disposed of as they think proper. Such is war, and it is a sin against God and humanity that it should be waged. We must submit to the result of the war. Congress, by the Constitution of the United States, has the power to give to the President the regulation of captures by sea and land, and the President, in the exercise of this power given him by the Constitution and by Congress, issued his proclamation disposing of their captures, declaring that all the negroes who were slaves in the revolted States should, by virtue of that proclamation, become emancipated. Such is my judgment of the law, and I believe the Supreme Court will so decide. The Constitution now to be adopted must recognize this fact, and the Convention soon to meet will be required to agree to the anti-slavery amendment of the Federal Constitution.”

He then answered the various objections urged to the amnesty oath, and drew a bright and glowing picture of the future prosperity which awaited the State. The late Confederate Governor Brown, who now withdrew from all official duty, also issued an address to the people, urging them to accept the fate thrust upon them by the fortunes of war, to support not only the Government of the United States but the administration of the Chief Magistrate, to take the amnesty oath and return to the Union in good faith, and do all in their power, as good citizens, to relieve the distressed, repair the damages which had resulted from the contest, and aid to restore permanent peace and prosperity to the whole country under the old flag, to which all must again look for protection from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The prominent men throughout the State, as also in other Southern States, expressed similar views, and

the current of popular feeling turned strongly in favor of resuming, at the earliest practicable moment, the most friendly relations with the people of the Northern States, and with the National Government.

On July 13th the Provisional Governor issued the following proclamation, prescribing the rules and regulations necessary and proper for the assembling of a Convention, etc.

To the People of Georgia :

Whereas, By the proclamation of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, dated 17th of June, A. D. 1865, I have been appointed Provisional Governor of the State of Georgia, with instructions to prescribe, at the earliest practicable period, such rules and regulations as may be necessary and proper for convening a Convention of the people, composed of delegates to be chosen by that portion of the people who are loyal to the United States, and no others, and also with all the power necessary and proper to enable such loyal people of said State to restore it to its constitutional relation to the Federal Government, and to present such a republican form of government as will entitle the State to the guarantee of the United States therefor, and its people to the protection of the United States against invasion, insurrection, and domestic violence.

Now, therefore, I, James Johnson, Provisional Governor of the State of Georgia, as aforesaid, do, by virtue of the power in me vested as aforesaid, proclaim and declare :

1. That an election for delegates to a Convention will be held on the first Wednesday in October, A. D. 1865, at the different precincts at which elections are directed and authorized by law to be held for members of the Legislature.

2. That the thirty-seven counties in the State which, by law in force prior to the first of January, 1861, were entitled to two members of the House of Representatives, shall be authorized and entitled to elect each three delegates, and that the remaining counties shall each be authorized and entitled to elect two delegates to said Convention.

3. That no person, at such election, shall be qualified as an elector, or shall be eligible as a member of such Convention, unless he shall have previously thereto taken and subscribed to the oath of amnesty, as set forth in the President's proclamation of May 29th, A. D. 1865, and is a voter qualified, as prescribed by the Constitution and laws of the State of Georgia, in force immediately before the 19th of January, A. D. 1861, the date of the so-called Ordinance of Secession.

4. That any two freeholders, qualified to vote at such election as aforesaid, may act as managers of the election at each of the precincts as aforesaid ; and that in managing and superintending such election, they shall be governed by, and proceed under the laws of the State regulating and prescribing the election of members of the Legislature, prior to the 1st of January, 1861 : *Provided*, That each of said managers, before entering on the duties prescribed, shall swear truly and faithfully to superintend and make return of said election, according to law as aforesaid, and the requirements of this proclamation.

5. That the delegates who shall be elected as aforesaid, shall assemble in Convention at the city of Milledgeville, at 12 o'clock, M., on the fourth Wednesday of October, A. D. 1865.

And whereas, The rebellion which has been waged by a portion of the people against the Government of the United States has, in its revolutionary progress, deprived the people of the State of all civil government ;

And whereas, They must remain, without civil officers, and the administration of civil law, until a State Government shall have been organized by the Convention called as aforesaid ;

And whereas, It is necessary, in the mean time, that domestic tranquillity be insured, and that the loyal people be protected in all their rights of person and property, I do further proclaim and declare :

1. That no individual, by virtue of his own authority, shall inflict corporal punishment on any person, for any real or supposed injury, whether such injury relate to person or property, and that in all such cases redress must be sought from, and given by, such military authority as may be invested with the jurisdiction over the cases.

2. That slavery is extinct, and involuntary servitude no longer exists. Hence no person shall have control of the labor of another, other than such control as may lawfully result from indenture, the relation of parent and child, guardian and ward, and the contract of hiring, freely and fairly made ; and that for a breach of duty, on the part of any one standing in these relations, the military authority will administer, in a summary manner, adequate and proper relief under the laws of the land.

3. That all riotous or tumultuous assemblages of people, and also all assemblages for unlawful purposes and unlawful objects, will be dispersed ; and to this end, if necessary, the military power of the United States will be invoked.

4. That the idea, if any such is entertained, that private property will be distributed or parcelled out, is not only delusive, but dangerous and mischievous ; and if any attempt should be made by any person or persons to effect such an object by violence or unlawful means, it will only secure to him or them speedy and merited punishment.

5. To the end that the people may qualify themselves as voters, it will, doubtless, be the pleasure of the commissioned officers in the service of the United States, to have the oath of amnesty administered under the rules and regulations prescribed by the Secretary of State of the United States ; and, in this work, I most earnestly desire and solicit the cheerful cooperation of the people, so that Georgia may speedily be delivered of military rule ; that she may once again regulate her own domestic affairs ; again enjoy the blessings of civil government, and be heard and felt by her Senators and Representatives in the councils of the nation.

Done at Milledgeville, the capital of the State, on this, the 18th day of July, in the year of our Lord 1865, and the eighty-ninth year of American Independence.

JAMES JOHNSON,
Provisional Governor of Georgia.

By the Governor :

L. H. BRISCOE, Secretary.

To enable the people more easily to prepare themselves for the exercise of the rights of citizens, the Provisional Governor, on August 7th, issued a second proclamation. This authorized the ordinaries or clerks of the several counties to administer the oath of amnesty required by the President's proclamation to such persons as were entitled to take and receive the same. All the civil officers of the State who had taken the oath above mentioned, and who were not embraced in any of its exceptions, or if embraced, had received special amnesty, were also authorized to proceed in the discharge of the duties of their several offices according to the laws in existence prior to January 1, 1861, so far as they were not inconsistent with the existing condition of the State.

In the unsettled state of affairs at this time, the freedmen at a distance from the stations of the Bureau were placed under the local provost marshals by the following military order :

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA,
OFFICE OF THE PROVOST MARSHAL GENERAL, }
AUGUSTA, GA., August 7, 1865.

1. In the absence of civil courts, and in localities in which no commissioner or agent of the Freedmen's Bureau is located in the State of Georgia, it is ordered that all questions of wages and debts of every description arising between the freedmen and whites, and freedmen and freedmen, will be inquired into and decided by the local Provost Marshals and their assistants.

2. Contracts heretofore made by and between the white men and their former slaves will be strictly adhered to unless it appear that such contracts were procured by fraud or made under duress, and in all cases of fraud or duress a fair compensation will be collected and paid to the freedmen.

3. Where a planter has hired a former slave by the month for the season, and has driven him off, the freedman will be entitled to recover pay and fair compensation for subsistence from the time he began to work until January 1, 1866; but care must be taken to ascertain if the freedman has complied with his contract.

4. Where a freedman made a contract by the month for the season and refuses to remain, and quits work without the fault of the former master, he will not be entitled to recover wages for any part of the time; but great care must be taken to ascertain that the freedman had no excuse for leaving.

5. When a former master strikes, kicks, shoots at, or threatens to shoot, or commits any assault upon any peaceable freedman on his plantation and in his employ, it will be held by the Provost Marshal to be a violation of the contract by him, and the freedman may recover full pay and commutation to the end of his term; but the freedman will not be allowed to remain on the plantation after ceasing to work.

6. Provost marshals will take into consideration the number of non-workers on any plantation supported by the former master, in deciding what is fair wages for the freedman in the absence of a contract.

7. Vagrants, idlers, and loafers, without means of support, either white or black, will be arrested and severely punished, generally by hard labor on the streets of the towns and cities, and such other work as may be ordered, and in aggravated cases a ball and chain will be added. But persons out of employment and making reasonable efforts to secure employment will not be embraced in the classes herein named.

8. Any person feeling aggrieved by the decision of any provost marshal, by giving notice, may appeal within ten days to the Provost Marshal General at these headquarters. Provost marshals will keep a complete record of all cases tried by them, with all the evidence, and will furnish a transcript thereof to any person having an interest in any proceeding thereon and desiring to appeal.

9. Provost marshals will use reasonable discretion in deciding all cases, but it must be borne in mind that the rights of all men are equal under the law. The time when one man can reap the fruits of another's labor is forever past in the United States, and no person in Georgia will be allowed to do any act tending to restore the old order of things.

10. Provost marshals will collect the money found due in all cases tried by them, and which has not been appealed, and pay it over to the person to whom it is due; and if any person or persons shall neglect or refuse to pay such accounts, the amount will be made by the sale of property.

11. In the absence of agents of the Freedmen's Bureau, provost marshals will supervise the contracts to be made for the year 1866, and approve such contracts as are equitable and liberal to the freedmen. By command of Major-General STEEDMAN.

C. H. GROSVENOR, Provost Marshal and Brevet Brigadier-General.

The election of delegates to the State Con-

vention was held on October 4th. Universal harmony prevailed throughout the State. The people had apparently accepted the conditions imposed by the result of the war, and were desirous of a speedy readmission into the Union. At the public meetings candidates of talent and character were nominated, who were pledged to the repeal of the ordinance of secession, the abolition of slavery, and such amendments of the State Constitution as might be necessary under the new condition of affairs.

The Convention assembled at Milledgeville on October 25th, and was called to order by the Provisional Governor. More than two hundred and seventy delegates were present. The following oath was administered to the members:

You, and each of you, do solemnly swear, in the presence of Almighty God, that you will henceforth faithfully support, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States, and the union of the States thereunder; and that you will, in like manner, abide by and faithfully support all laws and proclamations which have been made during the existing rebellion, with reference to the emancipation of slaves. So help you God.

Herschel V. Johnson, formerly a Senator at Washington, was chosen President of the Convention. James D. Waddell, an officer wounded in the Southern army, was chosen Secretary.

On the same day the Provisional Governor sent to the Convention a message relative to the affairs of the State. He stated that all the cotton belonging to the State had either been destroyed or its proceeds exhausted during the war. The railroads yielded no income, and all public institutions, educational and charitable, were ruined. The Penitentiary had been destroyed and its machinery carried off. Provision must be made for the confinement of criminals.

The Western and Atlanta Railroad, after having been, in the progress of the war, successively destroyed and rebuilt, fell into the hands of the Federal Government, which lately turned it over to the State, but in a most dilapidated condition. It would require half a million of dollars to make the repairs.

In order to prepare the State House for the reception of the Convention, money was privately borrowed from the citizens. The new Congressional apportionment reduced Georgia to seven Representatives. The appointment of Judges should be independent of the Executive.

A new organization of the Judiciary was needed, to secure independence and speed in the despatch of cases.

The public debt amounted to \$20,818,525, of which \$2,667,750 existed previous to the war, and \$18,135,775 have been created during its continuance. That latter debt was not obligatory on the State, neither legally nor morally, as the purpose sought to be accomplished was unconstitutional.

Georgia, as a member of the late Confederate Government, has ceased to exist as a State, and

all her acts while in rebellion were null and void, and the Convention must prohibit any acknowledgment now, or hereafter, of the war debt. Slavery was abolished, and Georgia was called on to give earnest promises to the world that this institution will never be revived.

On the 26th the Convention commenced its work in earnest. The following ordinance, repealing that of secession, and ordinances connected therewith, was reported, and subsequently passed:

October 30, 1865.

AN ORDINANCE to repeal certain ordinances and resolutions therein mentioned, heretofore passed by the people of the State of Georgia in Convention.

We, the people of Georgia, in convention at our seat of government, do declare and ordain that the ordinance adopted by the same people in convention on the 19th day of January, A. D. 1861, entitled an ordinance to dissolve the union between the State of Georgia and other States united with her under a compact of government entitled the United States of America; also, an ordinance adopted by the same on the 15th day of March, in the year of our Lord aforesaid, entitled an ordinance to adopt and ratify the Constitution of the Confederate States of America, and also all ordinances and resolutions of the same adopted between the 16th day of January and the 24th day of March of the year aforesaid, subversive or antagonistic to the civil and military authorities of the Government of the United States of America under the Constitution thereof, be, and the same are hereby repealed.

(Signed) **HERSCHEL V. JOHNSON**, President.

Attest, **J. D. WADDELL**, Secretary.

J. JOHNSON, Provisional Governor,

The passage of this ordinance was reported by the Provisional Governor to the President, by whom the following reply was despatched:

EXECUTIVE MANSION.
WASHINGTON, D. C., Oct. 23, 1865.

To James Johnson, Prov. Governor, Milledgeville, Ga.:

Your despatch has been received. The people of Georgia should not hesitate one single moment in repudiating every single dollar of debt created for the purpose of aiding the rebellion against the Government of the United States. It will not do to levy and collect taxes from a State and people that are loyal and in the Union to pay a debt that was created to aid in taking them out and subverting the Constitution of the United States.

I do not believe the great mass of the people of the State of Georgia, when left uninfluenced, will ever submit to the payment of a debt which was the main cause of bringing on their past and present suffering, the result of the rebellion.

Those who invested their capital in the creation of this debt must meet their fate, and take it as one of the inevitable results of the rebellion, though it may seem hard to them.

It should at once be made known, at home and abroad, that no debt contracted for the purpose of dissolving the Union can or ever will be paid by taxes levied on the people for such purpose.

ANDREW JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

On the 28th an ordinance declaring the war debt void was referred. This ordinance met with much opposition, and was vigorously discussed. It was finally passed on November 7th by a vote of one hundred and thirty-three to one hundred and seventeen. The following is a report of some further proceedings of the same day:

The committee of sixteen offered a series of resolutions of thanks to his Excellency the Governor; also requesting him to forward a copy of all ordinances to the President, passed by this Convention. Adopted.

They also offered a memorial to the President, affirming that they had abolished slavery and complied with all the requirements, in order to become again a State with the rights and privileges of other States, desiring peace and harmony, and confiding in the good intentions of the President, etc.

Mr. Hill moved to recommit, so as to incorporate in the memorial the ordinance passed, declaring null and void the public debt.

Mr. Kenan saw no good reason why this should be done. Why place this in the memorial and no other? Why emblazon it to the world? and why tell President Johnson that we had by ordinance repudiated the war debt of Georgia? We have had enough of telegrams from the City of Washington influencing this body. It was humiliating enough to pass the ordinance without incorporating it in this memorial. He hoped the measure would not prevail.

Mr. Hill replied: The President would not consider it humiliating to place this in the memorial that we had abolished slavery.

Mr. Kenan.—That was required.

Mr. Hill.—The gentleman says that was required. Was not the measure spoken of required?

Mr. Kenan.—No, sir; in my opinion there has been no requisition.

Mr. Hill read from the memorial.

Mr. Kenan said that these telegrams were received in other States, including Georgia, and nothing was said by the President requiring repudiation. He had a pardon in his pocket for himself, and nothing in that pardon requires him to forfeit by his vote the honor of Georgia. He was a Union man five years ago in this hall, and when Georgia seceded he went with her, and "so help me God, if I had my way, we to-day would have been a separate and distinct Government."

He did not tell President Johnson in order to get a pardon that he was a Union man. He stood upon his merits. He had heard of applications for special pardon at the White House because men were using the plea that they were Union men. One party used this plea to obtain a pardon, whilst near him stood a young man of 21 years. The question was asked the Union man, "What did you do?" "Oh, I am for the Union." "Did you fight for it?" "No." Turning to the young man, "And you, sir, what have you done?" "Sir, I am a rebel, have fought for the South four years, received several wounds, and ask for a pardon." The President ordered his secretary to make out a special pardon for the young man, whilst the Union shrieker was left out in the cold. No, sir, I will never shield any responsibility in the plea of Union.

The Convention also passed an ordinance dividing the State into seven Congressional districts, containing counties and population as follows:

	No. Counties.	Rep. Population.
1st District	29	129,435
2d "	23	124,604
3d "	15	134,323
4th "	15	123,137
5th "	15	125,209
6th "	21	125,649
7th "	14	124,554
	181	569,301

Another ordinance was adopted, directing an election for Governor, members of the State Legislature, and of Congress, to be held on November 15th.

A resolution was also adopted to appoint a committee of five to prepare a memorial to the President for the release of Jefferson Davis and others. This committee made the following report, which was adopted by the Convention:

MILLEDGEVILLE, GA., Oct. 30, 1863.

To his Excellency Andrew Johnson, President of the United States:

The delegates of the State of Georgia, in Convention assembled, do earnestly invoke the Executive clemency in behalf of Jefferson Davis and Alexander H. Stephens, and of James A. Seddon, of Virginia; A. G. McGrath, of South Carolina; William Allison and David L. Yulee, of Florida, and H. W. Mercer, of Georgia, now confined as prisoners in Fort Pulaski, and of all other prisoners similarly circumstanced. Your Excellency has been pleased to restore Mr. Stephens to his liberty. He returns to the grateful people of his State as a solemn pledge of the magnanimity which rules the public councils, and his great name and influence will be potent to revive the amity of the past and to fructify the wise and generous policy which your Excellency has inaugurated. Emboldened by this example, impelled by the purity of our motives, and stimulated by the prayers of a numerous people, we appeal for clemency in behalf of the distinguished persons we have named. Restore them to liberty and to the embraces of their families, translate them from captivity to the light of freedom and of hope, and the gratitude of the prisoners will be mingled with the joyful acclamations which shall ascend to Heaven from the hearts of this people.

Mr. Davis was elevated to his high position by our suffrages and in response to our wishes. We imposed upon him a responsibility which he did not seek. Originally opposed to the sectional policy to which public opinion, with irresistible power, finally drove him, he became the exponent of our principles and the leader of our cause. He simply responded to the united voice of his section. If he, then, is guilty, so are we. We were the principals; he was our agent. Let not the retribution of a mighty nation be visited upon his head; while we, who urged him to his destiny, are suffered to escape. The liberal clemency of the Government has been extended over us. We breathe the air and experience the blessings of freedom. We therefore ask that the leader, who, in response to the democratic instincts of his nature, the principles of his party, and the solicitations of his section, became the head and front of our offending, shall not now be bruised for our iniquities or punished for our transgressions. Mr. Davis was not the leader of a feeble and temporary insurrection; he was the representative of great ideas and the exponent of principles which stirred and consolidated a numerous and intelligent people. This people was not his dupe. They pursued the course which they adopted of their own free will, and he did not draw them on, but followed after them. It is for these reasons that we invoke the Executive clemency in his behalf. His frame is feeble; his health is delicate—all broken by the storms of state. He languishes in captivity a vicarious punishment for the acts of his people. Thousands of hearts are touched with his distress. Thousands of prayers ascend to Heaven for his relief. We invoke in his behalf the generous exercise of the prerogative to pardon which the form and principles of the Constitution offer as a beneficent instrument to a merciful Executive. We ask the continuance of that career of clemency which your Excellency has begun, and which alone we earnestly believe can secure the true unity and the lasting greatness of the nation. Dispensing that mercy which is inculcated by the example of our great Master on high, your name will be transmitted to your countrymen as one of the benefactors of mankind. The Constitution of our country, renewed and fortified by your measures, will once more extend its

protection over a contented and happy people, founded, as it will be, upon consent and affection, and "resting, like the great arch of the heavens, equally upon all."

The memorial in favor of Mr. Davis truthfully reflected the sentiments of a very large majority of the people of Georgia. A stronger support was tendered to him in his adversity than he had received in the height of his power.

Similar petitions relative to Jefferson Davis were prepared in several of the Southern States. An ordinance was also adopted which made it the duty of the Legislature to provide for the widows and orphans of the soldiers of Georgia who had perished, and for those soldiers who had been disabled. Another was passed, ratifying the acts of guardians, trustees, etc., during the war.

The State Constitution was entirely revised and adapted to the changes in civil and social affairs. In this instrument the emancipation of the slaves was expressly recognized, and the Legislature required to make regulations respecting the altered relations of this class of persons. The instrument in its revised form was unanimously adopted by the Convention. The number of slaves in the State in 1860 was 462,198.

The Convention also adopted a resolution requesting the Provisional Governor to order the formation of one or more militia companies, to be organized in each county of the State, to act as a police force, under the approval of the President. On the subject the following despatch was sent from Washington to the Provisional Governor:

WASHINGTON, Nov. 5, 1863.

To James Johnson, Provisional Governor of Georgia:

The organization of a police force in the several counties, for the purpose of arresting marauders, suppressing crime, and enforcing civil authority, as indicated in your preamble and resolutions, meets with approbation. It is hoped that your people will, as soon as practicable, take upon themselves the responsibility of enforcing and sustaining all laws, State and Federal, in conformity to the Constitution of the United States.

ANDREW JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

Subsequently the Governor issued the following proclamation:

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT OF
GEORGIA, MILLEDGEVILLE, Nov. 21, 1863.

Whereas, The late Convention did ordain, that the Provisional Governor should provide for the formation of one or more volunteer companies in each of the counties of the State, to act as a police force, to suppress violence, to preserve order, and to aid the civil officers in the enforcement of the laws, under such regulations as might be consistent with the United States: Now, therefore, I, James Johnson, Provisional Governor of the State, do hereby authorize and request the people of this State to organize, according to law, in each of the counties of this State, a volunteer company, for the purpose of aiding the civil authorities in the execution of law and the suppression of violence.

And it is hereby further declared, that such companies, when so formed and organized, shall be auxiliary and subordinate to the civil officers; that they shall arrest no person, and search the house of no person, without a legal warrant regularly issued by

some magistrate having authority, and shall in no case inflict any punishment except by the judgment and direction of a duly qualified civil officer, having jurisdiction of the offence.

And *whereas*, it is desirable to have uniformity in command, and that there should be no conflict between the military authorities of the State and the United States, it is further declared that said companies, when formed within their respective counties, shall be under the control and subject to the military commanders of the United States commanding the District; and for a violation of these regulations, and for any other offence committed, shall be tried and punished according to the rules prescribed for the government of the army of the United States.

Given under my hand and the seal of the Executive Department at Milledgeville, on this the 21st day of November, A. D. 1865. JAMES JOHNSON,

Provisional Governor of Georgia.

Other ordinances and resolutions of local importance were adopted, and, after a session of thirteen days, the Convention adjourned. Previous to the adjournment, the following address to President Johnson was unanimously adopted:

To his Excellency, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States of America:

The people of the State of Georgia, now in Convention, having repealed all ordinances and resolutions, by them heretofore adopted, with a purpose to separate themselves from the United States, and to enter into another Confederacy, and having adopted a Constitution strictly republican, wherein the supremacy of the Constitution, constitutional laws, and treaties of the United States of America are distinctly affirmed, having therein recognized the emancipation, by the United States Government, of persons previously held as slaves in this State, and ordained in the fundamental law that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude (save as punishment for crime) shall hereafter exist in Georgia; and having, as they conceive, done all things necessary and proper on their part, to the full and complete restoration of their rights and privileges as a State, and as a member of the American Union, respectfully request that all needful executive and legislative measures be taken to effect such restoration as speedily as possible.

We, the delegates of the people, fully informed as to their purposes and desires, assure your Excellency that it is their fixed intention to perform their whole duty as citizens of the United States, that their desire is to live under the Constitution, in peace and harmony with the whole people, and to see sectional strife banished forever from the national councils.

We moreover express to you, sir, their entire confidence in your just and kind intentions toward them; and their anticipations of your conciliatory and trustful consideration of their acts and doings in this Convention.

The State officers and the members of a State Legislature were duly elected on November 15th, as provided by the Convention, and that body assembled at Milledgeville on December 4th. Nearly every county was represented on the first day of the session. An organization was at once effected, by the choice of William Gibson as President of the Senate, and Thomas Hardeman Speaker of the House. The President of the Senate, in his address to that body, said: "Having fought the war through and been conquered, we find the affairs of the State in a most deplorable condition; the whole system of labor sustained by our fathers through successive generations

wholly destroyed, and the capital of the country thoroughly exhausted. But it becomes your duty so to frame your legislation that, upon the ruins of the old, a new system may arise which will contribute to the advancement of Georgia in wealth, prosperity, and power. In order that this system should prove effectual, we must bury our prejudices in the past; we must conciliate the views of those from whom we now widely differ, and with whom we lately stood in hostile conflict. Let us so shape our legislation that while we guard with the utmost caution our interests at home, we shall win the confidence of our late enemies, but, we trust, soon to be our friends of a common country, with a common fate awaiting us all."

The Provisional Governor having been instructed by the President to retain his office until further notice, sent a message to the Legislature, recommending the passage of the amendment of the Federal Constitution, a change in the manner of conducting the State railroad, and one or two other topics of a strictly local interest.

On the next day the amendment to the Federal Constitution, relative to slavery, was brought forward in the House, and, under the suspension of the rules, was passed without debate, and by an almost unanimous vote. The amendment was taken up in the Senate on the next morning and passed. The following despatches from the late Confederate Governor Brown and the Provisional Governor were immediately sent to the President:

MILLEDGEVILLE, GA., December 6, 1863.

To his Excellency Andrew Johnson:

The Legislature has adopted the constitutional amendment, and will pass laws amply protecting freedmen in their rights of person and property, including their right to sue and be sued, and to testify.

J. E. BROWN.

MILLEDGEVILLE, GA., December 6, 1863.

To his Excellency Andrew Johnson, President:

The constitutional amendment has passed each branch of the Legislature.

The House passed a resolution instructing the Judiciary Committee to report a bill to protect persons of African descent in their persons and property, and also to allow them to testify in cases in which they may be interested.

J. JOHNSON, Provisional Governor.

To which the President replied as follows:

WASHINGTON, December 8, 1863.

James Johnson, Provisional Governor:

Your despatch received the 6th inst. Permit me to congratulate you and the Legislature on their action in adopting and ratifying the amendment of the Constitution of the United States abolishing slavery.

ANDREW JOHNSON, President United States.

The manner in which this despatch was received by the House, is thus described by a spectator: "This despatch was read amid profound silence and breathless attention; and the involuntary manifestation of mingled hope, disappointment, and relief which pervaded the whole house, and was expressed in every countenance, afforded a most remarkable and striking exemplification of the moral effect of the changed relation of our people to the national Govern-

ment. In their present position, misrepresented by enemies and misunderstood by friends at the North, members were in doubt as to what might be the purport of the despatch from the President of the United States; and when it was ascertained to be only a congratulatory recognition of their late action, the general feeling of relief was too manifest to escape the notice of the most casual observer. I have not before so sensibly realized what it is to be a subjugated, conquered people. If many hoped and expected that the despatch brought the President's recognition of the reorganization of the State Government, with his authorization of its perfection, by the inauguration of the Governor elect of the people, not a few entertained apprehensions that the communication might be adverse and of more serious import. If the hopes of the first were disappointed, nevertheless all were relieved by the knowledge that nothing worse had come from Washington, and the evidence of that feeling at the close of the reading of the brief missive might have been discerned, not only in the expression of every countenance in that hall, but, as I imagined, by the freer respiration which followed."

On the 10th the Provisional Governor sent a despatch to Washington, asking to be relieved from his duties, and that the Governor-elect might be allowed to enter upon his office. The President sent the following in reply :

WASHINGTON, December 11.

J. Johnson, Provisional Governor :

The Governor-elect will be inaugurated, which will not interfere with the Provisional Governor. You will receive instructions in a few days with regard to being relieved. Why can't you elect a Senator? I would issue no commissions to members of Congress: leave that for the incoming Governor. We are under obligations to you for the noble, efficient, and patriotic manner in which you have discharged the duties of Provisional Governor, and you will be sustained by the Government.

ANDREW JOHNSON, President.

The inauguration of Governor Jenkins took place on December 14th. In his address he presented the following views of the results of the war and the position of the freedmen :

In the recent remodelling of their Constitution, the people of Georgia have acknowledged the Constitution, laws, and treaties of the United States as the Supreme Law. This means something more than yielding of the contest, or an overture for restoration. It implies fidelity to the supreme law in all future legislation, executive, and judicial action, and in all future movement of the people *en masse*. It implies a recognition of duty to and interest in the whole country, as well as to and in the State of Georgia. It is of course predicated upon a reciprocal obligation on the part of those to whom this pledge is renewed.

The institution of slavery—the principal source of discord in the past—has been effectually eradicated from our social and political systems. It can never again disturb the harmony of our national deliberations, without which the Federal Union must be a curse instead of a blessing. If the whole people, repressing all promptings of sectional feelings and interest, will faithfully observe and obey the Federal Constitution, coming events may lift the veil which now covers recent demonstrations of Providence, and disclose to their rectified vision, in striking contrast,

ruin caused by human folly and renovation wrought by divine wisdom.

Let not our people yield to discouragement, in view of the tardy progress of reconstruction, or of the suspicion and distrust so palpably manifested toward them. Sustained by conscious rectitude, let them maintain with calm and resolute dignity the position they have taken, and await the result. A tempest of unsurpassed fury has swept over the land. The elements do not subside into their normal quiet instantaneously with the lull of the wind, the sleep of the lightning, and the hush of the thunder. The smoke of an hundred battles does not vanish in a moment. But the atmosphere will clear ere long; those who cannot now see how men who recently fought with such desperation against the United States, can so soon become its real citizens, will then look at us through a rectified medium. It will occur to them that valor and truth are twin sisters, born of magnanimity, whose womb never did nor never will conceive treachery. They will then remember and appreciate the historical fact, that the State now returning never confederated against the United States, until each for herself had in open day, and in the hearing of all mankind, declared herself separate from that power. And although they will still hold that act wrong in principle and void in fact, they will find in it no taint of duplicity. They will look in vain through all the sanguinary traces of war for the trail of the serpent. In due time consistency will command confidence, and sincerity, like the diamond of the first water, will assuredly win its own recognition. Then our too suspicious judges will marvel less at our approved fealty, than at their own tardiness in discerning it.

Be the process of reconstruction long or short, when consummated, our attitude will and must be that of strict fidelity to the Union, of equality with our associates, and of dignity sustained by our inner sense of unviolated integrity.

Respecting the freedmen, he said :

It is undoubtedly true that during all the years of his enslavement he has been marvellously kind, profoundly content with his condition; and what shall be said of his deportment during the last half decade of sad memories? Whilst you strong men were in the tented field, far away from unprotected wives and children, he cultivated their lands, tended their households, and rendered all servile observances as when surrounded by the usual controlling agencies. And since the fiat of emancipation, which he neither forced nor implored, although sometimes unsettled in his purpose, and inconstant in his service by contract (the natural results of a transition so sudden and so thorough), I take you all to witness that in the main his conduct has been praiseworthy beyond all rational expectation. Tell me not of instances of insubordination as a slave, and of indecorum as a freedman, that have transpired in certain localities or characterized particular individuals. These are exceptional cases, the general rule being quite otherwise. Do our own race render unvarying obedience to the mandates of law? Are our own offspring through the years of minority always subordinate to parental authority? Shall, then, the less cultivated African be held to a stricter accountability or be judged by a higher standard of moral rectitude? Tell me not the race is ungrateful. The assertion is against the truth of tradition and experience. I here declare that, in my judgment, their fidelity in the past, and their decorum under the distressing influences of the present, are without a parallel in history, and establish for them a claim upon our favoring patronage. As the governing class, individually and collectively, we owe them unbounded kindness, thorough protection, incentives by moral suasion, by appeals to their interest, and by just legal restraint to do right, that they may do well. Their rights of person and property should be made perfectly secure

so secure that they may realize their freedom and its benefits, and of it they should be encouraged and stimulated to make benefit. To this end the courts must be opened to them, and they must be allowed in the assertion and defence therein of the rights in civil and criminal cases, the testimony of their own race. As essential to their well-being, they should be guarded on the one hand against the crafty machinations of the designing, and on the other against the fatal delusion of social and political equality.

The condition of the State institutions, both charitable and educational, was represented as greatly depressed, and requiring the fostering care of the Legislature. The obligations of the State are comparatively small, and her future resources will be abundant.

On December 19th a despatch was sent to the Provisional Governor from the President, authorizing him to remit the conduct of the State affairs to the constitutional authorities. At the same time another despatch was sent to Gov. Jenkins, informing him of the instructions to the Provisional Governor, and tendering to the former the coöperation of the Federal Government, if necessary, in the discharge of his duties. Gov. Jenkins replied as follows:

MILLEDGEVILLE, Geo., Dec. 22.

Hon. W. H. Seward:

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your telegram of the 19th inst., together with a copy of a communication to his Excellency James Johnson, Provisional Governor of Georgia. Be pleased to tender to his Excellency the President my grateful return for his recognition of the position in which the people of Georgia have placed me, and assure him of my fixed purpose to observe and obey as well the Constitution of the United States as the Constitution of the State of Georgia. Express to him, also, my thanks for the offered coöperation of the Government of the United States in effecting the earliest restoration and permanent prosperity of the State. Upon this coöperation our people build earnest hopes of a speedy return to their suspended relations with the other States of the Union.

I have the honor to be,

Very respectfully, your ob't servant,
CHARLES J. JENKINS, Governor of Georgia.

The Legislature subsequently passed a resolution regulating contracts with freedmen, and another regulating the mode of taking their testimony. This latter act makes free persons of color competent witnesses in civil cases where like persons are defendant, and in criminal cases where the offence is against the property or persons of freedmen. It provides also that where freedmen are the plaintiff and defendant, they may make and file any affidavit now allowed to citizens, which shall have the same force as if they were whites.

N. C. Barnwell was elected Secretary of State; John Jones, State Treasurer; and J. A. Burns, Comptroller General. On the 15th of December the Legislature adjourned to the 15th of January, 1866.

GERMANY, a Confederation of sovereign and independent States in Central Europe. The object of the Confederacy, according to the first article of the Federal Constitution, is "the preservation of the internal and external security of Germany, and the independence and in-

violability of the various German States." The organ and representative of the Confederation is the Federal Diet, consisting of plenipotentiaries of the several German States, and permanently located in the free city of Frankfort-on-the-Main. The administrative Government of the Federal Diet is constituted in two forms: 1st, as a General Assembly or Plenum, in which every member of the Confederation has, at least, one vote, and the larger States have two, three, or four votes each; and 2d, the Minor Council, or Committee of Confederation, in which the eleven largest States cast one vote each, while six votes are given to the smaller States, a number of them combined having a joint vote. The General Assembly decides on war and peace, on the admission of new members, on any changes in the fundamental laws or organic institutions; but in all other cases the Minor Council is competent to act both as legislature and executive. The presidency of the Federal Diet is permanently vested in Austria.

The present members of the German Confederation, the titles of the sovereigns, the population, according to the latest census, the number of votes cast by each member in the General Assembly (Plenum), and their rank in the Minor Council, may be seen by reference to *ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA*, 1863, page 449.

The Federal army consists of 531,281 infantry, 92,300 cavalry, 59,485 artillery, and 12,979 pioneers.

In consequence of the separation of the duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg from Denmark, the King of Denmark has ceased to be a member of the German Confederation. As the fate of Holstein was at the close of 1865 not definitely decided, its vote at the Federal Diet was suspended. There are still three sovereigns members of the Confederacy who have possessions outside of the limits of Germany: namely, the Emperor of Austria, and the Kings of Prussia and Holland.

In the proceedings of the Federal Diet of Frankfort there has been for several years a marked alienation between the majority of the minor States, headed by Bavaria on the one hand, and Austria and Prussia on the other. The Government of Prussia being charged with the design of undermining and destroying the sovereignty of all the minor States, and of annexing those of northern Germany to Prussia, and those of southern Germany to Austria, it was the aim of Bavaria and the other minor States to vindicate and to strengthen the authority of the Federal Diet. During 1864 and 1865, it was especially the Schleswig-Holstein question which furnished constant material to this litigation. On December 1, 1864, Austria and Prussia proposed to the Diet that the "Federal execution" in the Elbe duchies should be terminated, and the troops of Saxe and Hanover be withdrawn. Bavaria proposed to refer this motion to the committee, but the Diet decided to take a vote upon it in one of the next sessions. Austria, by a circular, dated December

8d, endeavored to quiet the minor States on this subject, by declaring that the withdrawal of the Federal troops was not intended to be prejudicial to the validity of a competent decision of the Diet in the question of succession. On December 5th the Diet adopted the motion made by Austria and Prussia on December 1st, by nine against six votes, the latter being cast by Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemberg, Hesse-Darmstadt, the Saxon duchies, Nassau, and Brunswick. On December 7th, the Federal Civil Commissioners, Von Koerneritz and Von Nieper, resigned, and the Federal troops began to evacuate the duchies. On December 17th, Saxony and Hanover announced to the Diet that the evacuation of Holstein was complete.

On December 12th the Bavarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Von der Pfordten, issued a circular to the minor German States, explaining the policy pursued by the Bavarian Government on the German question, and on that of the duchies. The Prussian prime minister, on the other hand, on December 13th, sent a threatening note to the States which, on December 5th, had voted against the proposition of Prussia and Austria, declaring that if they (Bavaria and the other opponents of Prussia) had obtained a majority, Prussia would have deemed it necessary to consider the decision which would have resulted from such a vote, as a violation of the Federal pact, and that, in the opinion of Prussia, the design to enlarge the limits of the competence of the Federal Diet, would endanger the existence of the Confederation. To this despatch Bavaria replied on December 18th, vindicating for every German State the liberty of voting. Saxony also replied to the Prussian despatch on December 25th, denying to Prussia the right of asking any German State for the reason of the vote it cast, or of deciding the competence of the Diet, which right belonged exclusively to the Federal Assembly as the supreme authority of the Confederation.

On March 27, 1865, a resolution was proposed by Saxony and Bavaria, that Austria and Prussia should be requested to cede Holstein to the Duke of Augustenburg, and to communicate to the Diet their mutual arrangements in reference to Lauenburg. The resolution was adopted on April 6th, nine votes being given in favor of it, and six against it. The representatives of Austria and Prussia thereupon presented separate declarations. The principal points of the declaration of Austria were, that she was prepared to surrender to the Prince of Augustenburg her title to the possession of Holstein should Prussia agree to adopt a similar course; otherwise Austria would maintain her title to the duchies until a solution was arrived at in consonance with the interests of Germany. Prussia announced her willingness to come to an understanding on the subject, but such an understanding must indispensably depend upon a previous investigation of all claims to the duchies, and especially of her own. She would

maintain her right of possession until a solution had been arrived at in accordance with her own convictions, and satisfactory to the other parties interested in the duchies. In conclusion, the Prussian representative stated that Prussia could at once declare herself unable to hold out any prospect of realizing the expectations expressed in the resolution which had just been adopted by the Diet.

On November 4th the representatives of Bavaria, Saxony, and Hesse Darmstadt, proposed that Austria and Prussia should be requested, first, to convoke in Holstein, as soon as possible, a general assembly of representatives elected by the free votes of the inhabitants, in order that such an assembly may coöperate in a definite solution of the still-pending Schleswig-Holstein question; second, to take steps calculated to bring about the incorporation of Schleswig into the German Confederation. On November 18th the above proposal of Bavaria, Saxony, and Hesse Darmstadt, was, in conformity with the demand of Austria and Prussia, referred, by eight to seven votes, to the committee on Holstein affairs. The representatives of the two great German Powers declared that it was still their intention to summon the estates of the duchies, but that they reserved the proper moment for so doing. They further decline to give any positive answer to the question whether Schleswig should be incorporated with the German Confederation. Bavaria, Saxony, and Hesse Darmstadt thereupon declared that, with reservation of the competency of the Federal Diet, they renounced any intention of bringing the matter again before the Diet.

In consequence of the Convention of Gastein between Austria and Prussia (see GASTEIN), the committee of thirty, appointed by the assembly of delegates from the German Legislature, issued the following circular:

To all the members of popular representations throughout the country: "By the Gastein Convention the Governments of Austria and Prussia have violated in the most flagrant manner the clearest principles of right, and especially that of the duchies to settle their own future, only limited by the interest of the German nation. The measures which it was to be foreseen would follow this convention threaten, in addition to shaking the sentiment of right of the German people, to annihilate for years the material and moral prosperity of the duchies, freed from the Danish yoke by German blood. The undersigned committee considers itself, therefore, in duty bound to request the reassembly of the members of the German Diets, already unanimously determined by the special committee of the Schleswig-Holstein clubs, in order to discuss and resolve upon the best means of saving the condition of public right in those lands. The committee expect that the German delegates, who solemnly promised at the meeting of December 21, 1863, and by the protest handed in at the London Conference of April, 1864, to advocate the free right of self-disposal of the duchies and to support their rights generally, will now redeem this promise by their appearance at the new assembly. The undersigned accordingly invite all present members of German Diets to a meeting at Frankfort-on-the-Main, on Sunday, October 1st, at ten in the forenoon. A confidential preliminary meeting is to be held on Saturday, September 30th, in the evening."

The meeting took place on the appointed day, although Austria and Prussia, in threatening notes, had urged the Frankfort Senate to forbid it. The meeting entered a strong protest against the proceeding of the Austrian and Prussian Governments, and renewed the demand that the people of the duchies should have an opportunity to decide of their destiny. Austria and Prussia, in notes to the Frankfort Senate, intimated, that if other meetings of the kind were allowed in Frankfort, it would become the duty of Austria and Prussia to prevent it (see FRANKFORT). The Frankfort Senate unanimously protested against any right of Austria and Prussia to interfere in this matter, and was supported in this protest by the majority of the minor States, which reserved to the Federal Diet the right to decide what steps it might be necessary and legitimate to be pursued toward the Frankfort Senate. The two allies could not agree about ulterior measures. Prussia objected to an appeal to the Diet, as by so doing she would recognize its authority to interfere, and establish a bad precedent in the Holstein affairs; and Austria declined to proceed exclusively against Frankfort.

The Annual General Assembly of the National-Verein took place at Frankfort-on-the-Main on October 29th, when the following resolutions of the committee in reference to the political organization of Germany, and the solution of the Schleswig-Holstein question, were agreed to by a large majority: 1st. The National-Verein maintains its original programme that Germany should be constituted as a Federal State, the central authority of which should be transferred to Prussia upon condition that such transfer be sanctioned by a Parliament representing the whole German nation. 2d. The National-Verein declares that the settlement of the Schleswig-Holstein question can be brought about solely by a vote of the population of the duchies, the free exercise of which can only be limited by the common interests of Germany. It was further resolved that, should a German central authority not be formed, Prussia alone could effectually defend the northern frontiers of Germany. In conclusion, the National-Verein resolved that the convocation of the Schleswig-Holstein estates could no longer be delayed.

GILLISS, Capt. JAMES MELVIN, an officer of the United States naval service, and at the time of his death Superintendent of the National Observatory, born in the District of Columbia in 1810, died in Washington, D. C., of apoplexy, February 9, 1865. He entered the navy as midshipman, March 1, 1827, having enjoyed good previous advantages of education. He spent but little time afloat, his entire sea service amounting to only four years and seven months, his fondness and adaptation for astronomical studies having led to his being employed very early in that department of naval service. In 1838 he organized the first working observatory in the United States, and during the five

following years collected and published his astronomical observations, the first American work of the kind published. In September, 1842, Lieut. Gilliss was appointed to plan and superintend the construction of a naval observatory, which was completed and furnished in 1845. On the 16th of November, 1848, he was ordered to proceed to Chili to make observations for the determination of the Solar Parallax, and remained there three years. Through his influence a naval observatory was established in that country, and he completed a series of observations of great value, not only in regard to the Solar Parallax, but to the constellations of the Southern Hemisphere, and to earthquakes, and other subjects relating to the physical geography of Chili. His observations have been published by the Government in a series of quarto volumes. In 1858 he visited Peru to observe the total eclipse of the sun, which was most complete and protracted in that country, and in 1860 made the journey to Washington Territory for the same purpose. His observations in regard to both were of great importance, and went far toward settling several questions of interest in relation to the form and properties of the sun. On the departure of Lieut. Maury at the commencement of the war, Commander Gilliss was at once placed in charge of the Observatory, which he had constructed and equipped sixteen years before, his appointment bearing date April 22, 1861. This proved a beneficial change to the institution, which, under his charge, soon became one of the few first-class observatories in the world. He found a vast amount of work left in arrears by his predecessor, no reduction of the observations of the previous six years having been made. He applied himself to the work of bringing them up, and of adding new and valuable observations, with great industry, and perhaps with an assiduity which may have caused his untimely death. On the 16th of July, 1862, he was promoted to the rank of captain in the navy. He had won for himself a high reputation among the most eminent astronomers of the world, by his profound astronomical knowledge and his eagerness in the pursuit of his favorite science. Shortly before his death he had made an official report to the Secretary of the Navy, detailing the scientific observations made in various observatories of the world, under his auspices or at his request, to ascertain the parallax of the planet Mars, and the result as approximating the exact distance from the earth to the sun. He possessed a rare degree of mechanical ingenuity, and had contributed many valuable improvements to the instruments of astronomical science.

GILMAN, CHANDLER ROBBINS, M. D., an American physician, medical writer, and professor, was born September 6, 1802, at Marietta, Ohio, died at Middletown, Connecticut, September 26, 1865. His father and his grandfather, who received from Gen. Washington his commission as Judge, were among the earliest

settlers of that region whither they emigrated from New Hampshire. His mother was descended from the Puritans, being a daughter of the Rev. Chandler Robbins, the Congregational minister of Plymouth, Mass. Young Gilman was educated at Andover and Harvard College. He studied medicine in the office of Dr. Parrish, of Philadelphia, and graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1824, coming soon after to New York city, where all his active professional life was spent. At this period he was associated with his relative Charles Fenno Hoffman in the charge of the American Monthly, and in 1835 published two works, viz., "Legends of a Log Cabin," reminiscences of his western life, and "Life on the Lakes," a series of letters describing his journey to the Pictured Rocks of Lake Superior, to which himself and brother were the first white visitors for non-mercantile purposes.

He was elected Professor of Obstetrics in the College of Physicians and Surgeons of New York, in 1841, and continued in this position till his death, uniting with it, after the decease of Dr. Beck, the Professorship of Medical Jurisprudence. In this department he was soon acknowledged as an expert, and on few cases of interest was he not consulted by the ablest members of the Bar. In many he appeared as a prominent witness, and here his clearness of conception, ready knowledge and fearlessness of temperament, enabled him to sustain fully his own dignity and that of his profession. In private practice he endeared himself by his sympathy with the sufferings and anxieties of his patients, while he was much consulted by his professional brethren, and performed many important operations in obstetrics and surgical midwifery, in which his scientific knowledge and practical skill insured him a large measure of success. In lecturing he made no pretence to grace or elegance in measure and style. His attitudes were careless, his language unstudied, his sole aim was to instruct, but his lectures, for practical utility and correct scientific teaching, have never been surpassed. He had a taste for Natural History, great fondness for microscopic investigation; he spoke and read French and German; his classical knowledge was extensive and accurate; with the modern English classics he was thoroughly familiar, and most intimately acquainted with both Ancient and Modern History. He possessed a retentive memory, great aptitude of quotation, quickness of repartee, keen perception of humor, and colloquial powers of the highest order.

He prepared for the press Dr. Beck's "Lectures on Materia Medica," took charge of the two later editions of "Beck's Medical Jurisprudence," wrote "A Sketch of the Life and Character of Dr. J. B. Beck" in 1851; "The Relations of the Medical to the Legal Profession" in 1856; a "Medico-Legal Examination of the Case of Charles B. Huntington," translated from the German of Bischoff; "Tracts on Generation," with numerous contributions to

medical magazines, and one to Appleton's "Cyclopædia." In May, 1864, failing health induced Dr. Gilman to abandon the practice of his profession; he removed to Middletown, Connecticut, where he regained some degree of strength, but disease of the heart suddenly terminated his life on the evening of the 26th of September, 1865.

GLASS. Certain new products in the way of glass-making, as well as also certain principles relative to the structure of glass, its durability, etc., which have recently been noticed in the scientific journals, are deserving of mention in this place.

Crystalline Nature of Glass.—The surface of glass etched by fluorhydric acid presents a different appearance, according as the etching is done with the acid in the gaseous or the liquid form. Dr. C. M. Wetherill (*Amer. Jour. of Science*, January, 1866) disproves the hitherto accepted explanation of this difference, and of the ground-glass appearance in the former case—to the effect, namely, that in etching with the gaseous acid the products of decomposition remain in the corroded cavities. He states the result of examination with the microscope to be, that the gaseous acid corrodes the surface in minute and shallow cavities, in which after cleansing with water no other substance than glass is found; while the depressions are deeper and more irregular as the action has been more prolonged. The vapor must, therefore, apply itself to the glass in minute drops or vesicles, like those formed with moisture by antozone. The liquid acid, however, corrodes the whole surface with a certain uniformity; and examination of such surface, it is stated, reveals in every instance the crystalline nature of glass. The semi-opacity of the glass etched by the gaseous acid appears due solely to the influence of the irregularities of surface on the rays of transmitted or reflected light.

Leydolt first announced (*Wiener Acad. Bericht*, viii., 261) the discovery that glass is to some extent crystalline. His examination seemed to show that in all glass there is an amorphous matrix interspersed in less or greater degree with crystals; and that the distribution of the latter, not less than the general density and composition of the glass, has a marked influence upon its character and optical behavior. M. Daubrée, on the contrary, has asserted that the crystals discovered on the etched surface of glass are really deposited crystals of fluo-silicide of potassium, which then protect from corrosion the parts beneath them. M. Pelouze *devitrified* various kinds of glass, by exposing during 24 to 48 hours to incipient fusion, and afterward cooling slowly: the glass lost its transparency, turning to a porcelain-like mass, which contained numerous opaque acicular crystals. This product could be re-fused into glass, then produced anew from the latter; and so on, repeatedly. Later experimenters have, however, contradicted M. Pe-

louze's conclusion, to the effect that in the transformation from transparent to devitrified glass there was no change of composition or weight.

The results of Dr. Wetherill's experiments, though presenting some points of difference, still confirm Leydolt's view, as to a crystalline structure in ordinary glass. Admitting the presence of deposited crystals in some cases, and the difficulty or impossibility of deciding in certain others, the author's conclusions are—that the window-glass examined contained crystals already formed, of which some are more soluble than their matrix in fluorhydric acid, and other perhaps less so; and that all the specimens of glass submitted to the action of fluorhydric acid yielded crystalline forms. Some of the observations appeared to show that crystals formed at first during the refrigeration of the glass, were subsequently broken by the operations of pressing, rolling, etc., to which the material had been subjected.

Solubility and Erosion of Glass.—M. Pelouze showed, some years ago, that when window, bottle, and other varieties of glass are reduced to fine powder and mixed with water, they are soon acted on, yielding often as much as 8 or 10 per cent. of their weight to the water if cold, and by boiling in water sometimes as much as 86 per cent.—the matter so separated being in many cases a definite silicate of soda. That powdered glass should so dissolve in water, while yet glass in large masses or in plates is in comparison so little acted on, the author explained by differences, in the respects of closeness, extent, and permanence of the liquid contact, in the two sorts of cases.

Dr. F. O. Calvert opposes to the hypothesis just named the fact that aqueous liquids, such as wine, etc., appear to exert very little action upon the internal surface of a bottle, though they may remain in contact with it for many years; and he suggests that a peculiar molecular condition of the surface of the glass, arising perhaps under the circumstances of its manufacture into plates or otherwise, or possibly from the atmospheric pressure, may be influential in enabling it to resist the action of water and aqueous liquids. He cites the apparently parallel facts, that the surface of polished steel, the rolled surface of wrought iron, and the skin of cast iron, resist the chemical action of both air and acids in a far greater degree than does the interior substance of the same masses. Still, admitting this view, there are many facts which go to show that the immunity of any glass and in any part from chemical action is *comparative* only, not absolute, and that different samples of glass possess in very different degrees the power of resisting such action. These conclusions have recently received new confirmation from the observations of M. Weber, now to be referred to.

Efflorescent and Deliquescent Sorts of Glass.

—A paper on this subject, by M. R. Weber, appears in *Le Technologiste* for August, 1864. It has long been observed that many sorts of

glass, especially when exposed to a moist air, undergo with time changes at their surface, their brightness and transparency being impaired, and the surface becoming covered with a thin iridescent layer, or even yielding minute scales, or showing cracks and fissures. Some sorts of glass show these changes in a high degree; but of other sorts the surface and transparency remain unimpaired for great lengths of time, and though little care is taken of them. The changes here referred to depend primarily and chiefly on a slow decomposition of the glass, under the influence of carbonic acid and other atmospheric agents; but, once set up on its surface, their effect is increased, and their occurrence often indicated, by the presence of moisture on the parts and the firmer adhesion of dust upon them.

That the more or less rapid decomposition of different sorts of glass is determined chiefly by their chemical composition, is placed beyond a doubt by such facts as that the ordinary *soluble glass*, which dissolves completely in 4 or 5 times its weight of boiling water, is essentially a compound of sand and potash, in about the proportions of 2 to 1; and that, in various glasses of commerce, the proportion of silicic acid may vary from 45 up to 71 per cent. of the whole, that of the alkali from 8 to 22, and that of the lime from about 9 to 29 per cent. When deposits form on the surface of glass, and from its material, they have an alkaline reaction, and reveal alkalies also by spectrum analysis. The efflorescent product chiefly contains soda; the deliquescent, potash; and it is already safe to assign an undue proportion of alkali in its composition as a chief cause of the easy corrosion and poor quality of glass of certain sorts. Of course, glass thus defective in quality is little suited for use in windows or for mirrors; while for optical purposes it must be rejected.

MM. Vogel and Reischauer proposed to detect poor qualities of glass by exposing samples for several days to the action of a heated and concentrated solution of nitrate of zinc; but this and other proposed tests have the defect that the testing liquid removes more or less completely the product of its own action, and that, though the surface of the glass be actually attacked, the effect is not always evident on subsequent inspection. M. Weber accordingly adopted the plan (more fully described in his paper) of acting on a glass to be tested, in plates or other convenient form, with the fumes of concentrated chlorhydric acid. Having first cleansed the glass with great care, he exposes it during twenty-four to thirty hours to the acid fumes, and then shuts it up within a closet for twenty-four hours longer. Next carefully removing from the samples any ammoniacal vapors and dust, he examines the glass, first by transmitted light, and afterward, if necessary, by reflected light of oblique incidence. If, in the former manner, a whitish crust or deposit is detected on the glass, and which is thin, and

loose, or removable by the finger, the glass should be rejected. If no defect is thus made evident, the second method may be resorted to; and if at the same time a blunt knife-blade be drawn across the surface viewed, the slightest efflorescence that may be upon it will be rendered manifest. With the best qualities of glass no efflorescence is discoverable. The application does not unfit good glass for use or sale; and the author declares that by it he is able to distinguish with certainty a good and durable from a poor glass. The method can be applied to colored glass, except when, as in intensely red glass, the coloring material forms a large part of the entire weight. Still a good flint-glass (containing lead) is not appreciably corroded by the application. The author proposes further to investigate the subject, especially as to how large a proportion of alkali can be introduced into glass without detriment to its durability and value.

Coloration of Glass, as ordinarily manufactured.—M. J. Pelouze has been during some time past engaged in a series of experiments on the manufacture of glass, his papers—some at least of which had been presented to the Academy of Sciences—being published successively in the *Comptes Rendus*. Most of the experiments were performed in Siemens' furnaces, used in glass-making, at Saint Gobain. The crucibles used were generally of a very refractory fire-clay, of a composition for all practical purposes the same with the materials ordinarily contained in glass; though, to avoid every source of error, platinum crucibles protected by fire-clay were sometimes employed.

Observing that the presence of certain admixtures in the materials gave a decidedly yellowish tinge to the glass produced, the author experimented with a view to determine the cause of this result. He proved that the yellow color was not directly due to free silicon; and that it is imparted to glass alike by addition of carbon, sulphur, silicon, boron, phosphorus (introduced in phosphate of lime), or aluminium, and at a red heat even by introduction of hydrogen, however rigidly purified. Neither zinc nor arsenic produced the color. The production of the same tinge by addition of substances so unlike, led to the supposition that the coloration must be due in all the cases to some single cause. Finding, furthermore, that all commercial glasses—window, plate, table, bottle, and Bohemian—contain sulphates, as of soda, potash, and lime, M. Pelouze inferred that the cause sought must be the liberation, by reaction of one or other of the elements above named, of an alkaline sulphuret from sulphates present in the molten glass; and this view a variety of examinations and experiments served to establish. The sulphates in glass can come directly from use of the salts as a flux, or from presence of sulphate of soda as an impurity in the commercial carbonate. A glass from Pompeii was found to contain two per cent. of sulphate of soda. When hydrogen

was passed over plate glass containing much of this salt, and at a red heat, it produced at once a very deep yellow color. But the final proofs were that when the glass materials were first purified from sulphates, the addition of any of the elements already referred to failed to give the yellow color; and that this was again produced when into the pure materials an alkaline sulphuret was introduced.

M. Pelouze also alludes to the fact that the surface of window-glass, for many years exposed to the atmosphere, is frequently found corroded, and in part opaque, while examination with a magnifier shows it to be covered with a crystalline deposit; and he attributes the liability to such change largely to presence of the sulphates named, in the glass. He thinks a glass containing no sulphates would prove more homogeneous and less changeable than any at present known, and especially valuable for optical purposes. He accordingly prepared, by repeated crystallizations, a flux of carbonate of soda freed from all traces of the sulphate, and with 100 parts of this (dried), mixed 250 parts of white sand, 50 of pure carbonate of lime, and 2 of charcoal. The glass obtained by fusion of this mixture was perfectly colorless; and other samples were still so, in which boron, silicon, or hydrogen was substituted for the charcoal.

Coloration of Glass by Selenium.—Upon mixing selenium with the ordinary glass composition, but prepared with the purified carbonate of soda, M. Pelouze obtained a perfectly transparent glass, of a beautiful orange color inclining to red, and resembling certain varieties of topaz, essonite garnet, and hyacinth zircon (its hue the 5th orange-red $\frac{1}{10}$, 9th of Chevreul's scale). Upon varying the proportion of selenium from 1 to 3 per cent. of the mixture, the hue obtained was still always the same and of the same intensity. Thus, while it is proved that sulphur and selenium both directly color glass, it is also shown that the well-known analogies between the two extend to their reactions with alkaline and earthy silicates.

A New, or Chrome Aventurine.—The property in virtue of which the sesquioxide of chrome (chromium) imparts to fluxes, and especially to glass a green color, is under heat exhibited also by the bichromate of potash: this salt is, on heating, decomposed into oxide of chrome and neutral chromate of potash; while, in the fused glass materials, the latter is by reaction with silica decomposed into silicate of potash, oxygen, and oxide of chrome; so that under these circumstances, in the form of such oxide, all the chrome of the bichromate enters into the glass.

Using the glass mixture already mentioned, of sand 250 parts, carbonate of soda 100 do., and calcareous spar 50 do., M. Pelouze fused along with this in different trials, different proportions of the bichromate of potash, and with the following results: adding 10 parts of the bichromate, the glass melts and anneals well,

and is of a green color tinged with yellow; adding 20 parts, the glass worked and annealed as easily, and was of a very dark green, with minute spangles of sesquioxide of chrome visible in it; adding 40 parts of the bichromate, the fusion is much more difficult, and the green glass is filled with extremely brilliant crystals; while, with 50 parts, the fusion is extremely difficult, the crystals are confused, and the beauty of the glass impaired. The *third* of the proportions named may be taken as the most desirable: the resulting glass in this case contains from 6 to 7 per cent. of oxide of chrome, nearly one-half of it combined with the glass, and the other half free in form of scales or spangles.

This glass has been compared for beauty with the Venetian *aventurine*; and the suggested name for it, of *chrome aventurine*, M. Pelouze has retained. It is much more easily prepared than the Venetian glass; and while the last-named is only formed during annealing, the former exists already during fusion. Chrome *aventurine* sparkles in a strong light, being in this respect surpassed by the diamond alone. Its value is enhanced by its great hardness—much exceeding that of the Venetian, and still more that of common glass. Daubrée has detected among its crystals the regular hexagon, which belongs to the crystalline system of sesquioxide of chrome; while many of them closely resemble certain varieties of laminated oligiste iron ore, with which that oxide is isomorphous. The color of the new glass is the 3d yellowish-green, the 13th hue in Chevreul's chromatic circle. Lapidaries who have cut some specimens of it agree that it forms an important acquisition to their branch of manufacture.—Original paper in *Comptes Rendus*, October 16, 1865.

Restoration of the Stained Glass of Windows.—It has long been a question whether the stained glass of windows of old cathedrals could be restored to its original brilliancy. M. E. Chevreul has lately shown that this can be done, having practically demonstrated it in the case of the windows of at least one church edifice—the famous “St. Germain des Près,” of Paris. His process consists in removing the stained glass from the windows, and immersing it first, for several days, in a weak solution of carbonate of soda (sp. gr., 1.068), and next, after having washed it, for several hours in a solution of chlorhydric acid (sp. gr., 1.080). The glass being then washed again and dried, will be found as brilliant and beautiful as when it came from the hands of the manufacturer. The author finds that the dim and dirty appearance assumed in time by stained glass is due, especially in large towns, to the collection on the glass first of all of matters like those contained in smoke, which adhere to it by the agency of fog and rain, and become oxidized there; these matters thus changed serving in the next place as a cement by which various mineral particles, as those of chalk, gypsum,

oxide of iron, etc., become attached to the glass, and so further impair its transparency. His theory of the process he proposes is, that the alkali acts on and removes organic matters on the glass, and that the chlorhydric acid completes the removal of the mineral matters.

References.—Part V. of the extensive and very minute experimental researches of Mr. John M. Ordway, published at intervals during some years past, in the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, under the title of “Waterglass,” appears in that Journal, for September, 1865. The practical glass-manufacturer will also consult with profit two long articles republished from *Newton's London Journal*, of July and September, 1864, in the *Journal of the Franklin Institute*, numbers for December, 1864, and August, 1865, respectively—the former by Mr. G. H. Daglish, “On Machinery for the Manufacture of Plate Glass,” and the latter by Mr. Richard Pilkington, “On the Processes and Mechanical Appliances in the Manufacture of Polished Sheet Glass;” and also two articles appearing in *Le Technologiste*, June, 1865, one by M. H. Pohl, on the “Fabrication of Ruby Glass,” and the other by M. E. Brescius, on the “Preparation of a Gold-Powder for Gilding Glass and Porcelain.”

GOULD, HANNAH FLAGG, an American poet and author, born in Lancaster, Mass., in 1789, died at Newburyport, Mass., September 7, 1865. The family removed to Newburyport in 1800. Her father had been a soldier of the Revolution, and her mother dying young, Hannah became his constant companion, a fact which accounts for the patriotism which inspired her earlier verses. In her youthful days she was known for her vivacity and wit. Her efforts were not marked by the inspiration of genius, or always by easy versification; but they were characterized by true thought, refined and tender emotions, and a pure, calm, healthful, moral tone, which made them favorites, and led to their frequent appearance in print, both at home and abroad. Miss Gould led a quiet life in the homestead where she dwelt for half a century—a life which would have been as secluded as it was unostentatious but for her genial hospitality and the many visitors and distinguished authors who sought her acquaintance. Her literary tastes never led her to neglect domestic virtues, or the courtesies of social intercourse. Miss Gould published three volumes of poetry; one in 1832, a second in 1836, and the third in 1841. In 1846 she published “Gathered Leaves,” a collection of prose articles. “The Diosmas” appeared in 1850, composed of selections from her previously published poems, and from other authors, with some of her own not previously brought before the public. The “Youth's Coronal” was issued in 1851, and “Hymns and Poems for Children” in 1854. She was also a constant contributor to the periodical literature of the day.

GRAHAM, COL. JAMES DUNCAN, of the United States Topographical Engineers, born in

Virginia, in 1795, died in Boston, Mass., December 28, 1865. He entered the Military Academy at West Point in June, 1813, and graduated July 16, 1817, before "class rank" was established. Commissions were then granted only in the artillery service, and he received that of third lieutenant—a grade not now recognized. In October, 1817, he was promoted second lieutenant, in order that he might be made adjutant of the Military Academy, which position he held until February, 1819, and the following September was promoted first lieutenant. On the reorganization of the army in 1821 he was retained with the same rank, to date from June 1, 1821. He was in the following month transferred from the Fourth artillery, in which he had been serving since his retirement from the post of adjutant of West Point, to the Second, in which he remained for several years. It was not until 1829 that his speciality was perceived. He was then (January 15, 1829) brevetted captain, that he might enter the corps of Topographical Engineers, in which he has since remained. September 14, 1834, he was brevetted major of Topographical Engineers, and received the full commission in 1838. In 1839-'40 he was astronomer of the surveying party which, on the part of the United States, established the boundary line between the United States and the then new republic of Texas. In the latter year (1840) he was appointed commissioner for the survey and exploration of the northeast boundary of the United States, and was employed along the Maine and New York frontiers until 1843. In the same year, within a month after closing his surveys on the northeast boundary, he was ordered to duty as astronomer on the part of the United States for the joint demarcation of the boundary between the United States and the British provinces, under the treaty of Washington. This work employed him during the whole Mexican war, so that he was unable to take any part in the campaigns in that country. On the conclusion of this work, he was brevetted lieutenant colonel, the commission reading, "for valuable and highly distinguished services, particularly on the boundary line between the United States and the provinces of Canada and New Brunswick." In 1850 Col. Graham was employed for some time by the States of Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, to examine some disputed questions regarding the intersection of the boundary line of those States. He made a thorough survey of the line originally made by Mason and Dixon (and known to this day as "Mason and Dixon's line"), and published a voluminous report thereon. Though taking no part in the war with Mexico, he was prominently employed in the final settlement of the question resulting from it, and during 1851 was United States astronomer in the survey of the boundary line between this country and Mexico. On his return from the Mexican frontier, Col. Graham was ordered to Chicago,

and placed in charge of the erection of the custom-house at that point; and since 1864 his attention has been turned to improvements along the Atlantic coast. He made a survey of the harbor of Provincetown, and for some months was in charge of the work for the preservation of Boston harbor.

GREAT BRITAIN, or, THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND. Area, 112,406 square miles; population, 29,334,788. Capital, London. Aside from diplomatic questions (for which see DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE) there were a few topics of interest in the relations of Great Britain and the United States in the year 1865. The death of Mr. Cobden on the 2d of April was deeply lamented in the House of Commons, and eulogies pronounced on his character by Lord Palmerston, Mr. Disraeli, and Mr. Bright. On the 1st of May Earl Russell, in the House of Lords, and Sir George Grey, in the House of Commons, moved an address to the Queen expressive of the sorrow and indignation with which the members of each house had heard of the assassination of Mr. Lincoln, which was voted unanimously. On this occasion Earl Russell stated that the Queen had written an autograph letter of condolence to Mrs. Lincoln, from "a widow to a widow." Public meetings, expressive of the grief and indignation of the people at the assassination, were held in all parts of the United Kingdom, and the sympathy between the two nations, who had for some years been gradually becoming estranged from each other, was to a great extent renewed. The close of the war in the United States led to congratulations from large bodies of citizens of Great Britain, and this with the certainty of the emancipation of the slaves, stimulated emigration from the United Kingdom to the United States to an unprecedented degree. Although this emigration was still as usual in large part from Ireland, the number of emigrants from England was greatly increased, and embraced very many of the better class of working people, who, bringing a moderate amount of money with them, sought homes in a land from which the only objectionable feature had now been removed. During the summer and autumn the depredations of the Confederate cruisers, and especially the reception and aid afforded in British colonial ports to the Shenandoah, was a matter of protracted correspondence between Mr. Adams, the U. S. Minister Plenipotentiary, and Earl Russell, the Foreign Secretary. This correspondence was renewed when the Shenandoah, six months after she was proclaimed a pirate by the United States Government, came into the Mersey and surrendered herself to a British man-of-war. The crew were discharged by order of the British Government, and the vessel given up to the United States authorities. The correspondence was renewed again, when, on the death of Lord Palmerston, Earl Clarendon became Foreign Secretary, and although it assumed a somewhat unpleasant tone, yet any

apprehensions of war to result from it were quieted by the declaration on the part of the United States Government, that it was not their intention to push the matter to extremities, inasmuch as the position of the British Government (which had declined arbitration or even a joint commission with full scope) was one which, in the event of a war with any other nation, would be found entirely untenable. For the principal points of this controversy *see* DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE.

In matters pertaining to the administration of the Government at home there were several important events. Among these were the passage of bills by Parliament, making Greenwich Hospital, which had hitherto been an asylum for such naval pensioners as had no other home, a hospital for the sick and infirm seamen who had served in the navy, and increasing the number and amount of the outdoor pensions, so as to encourage the great body of pensioners to find homes elsewhere. Another important bill passed by Parliament was one for conducting away and utilizing the sewage of London, so as to remove the unpleasant and unhealthy odors from the Thames, and at the same time provide for the use of that vast amount of fertilizing fluid upon the lands of the realm. The censure of the Lord High Chancellor, Lord Westbury, for his nepotism and laxity in regard to the public interests in pensioning Leonard Edmunds, a clerk of the Patents, etc., who had been guilty of defalcation, and also for his conduct in the Leeds Bankruptcy Case, passed the House of Commons unanimously, and led to the resignation of the chancellor. Lord Cranworth was appointed Lord High Chancellor in his place. On the 6th of July Parliament was dissolved, and writs issued for a new election.

The new Parliament elected in August comprised a much larger proportion of Liberals than the previous one, and among them some men of great distinction. Westminster, in the metropolitan district of London, returned, among its members, John Stuart Mill, a well-known metaphysician and writer on political economy, although in some particulars he differed openly from the views of his constituents. Thomas Hughes, another well-known literary man, and a liberal of the most advanced class, was also returned. Mr. Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer, was defeated in Oxford, for which he had long sat, but was returned by the South Riding of Lancashire. On the whole, the complexion of the new House of Commons was such as to indicate the necessity of inviting some of the Liberals to join the Cabinet, and to render probable the success of moderate measures of reform in suffrage.

In July the cattle plague was introduced into the United Kingdom, and measures were adopted by the Privy Council for its suppression. (*See* CATTLE PLAGUE.) The cholera made its appearance in September at Southampton, and the Government immediately es-

tablished hospitals and took measures of precaution to check its ravages. (*See* CHOLERA.)

On the 18th of October Viscount Palmerston, First Lord of the Treasury and Premier of the British Government since 1855 (except a very brief period), died at his residence, Brockett's Hall, Hert, after a very brief illness. (*See* PALMERSTON.) His death necessitated a recasting of the Cabinet before the assembling of Parliament; and Earl Russell being sent for by the Queen to reorganize the Ministry, succeeded, after some delay and difficulty, in forming the following Cabinet: First Lord of the Treasury and Prime Minister, Earl Russell; Lord President of the Council, Earl Granville; Lord High Chancellor, Lord Cranworth; Lord Privy Seal, Duke of Argyle; Chancellor of the Exchequer, Rt. Hon. W. E. Gladstone; Secretaries of State, Home, Rt. Hon. Sir George Grey, Baronet; Foreign, the Earl of Clarendon; Colonial, Rt. Hon. Edward Cardwell; War, Earl De Grey and Ripon; India, Rt. Hon. Sir C. Wood, Baronet; First Lord of the Admiralty, The Duke of Somerset; Postmaster General, Lord Stanley, of Alderley; President of Board of Trade, Rt. Hon. T. Milner Gibson; President of Poor Law Board, Rt. Hon. C. P. Villiers; Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Mr. Goschen.

Late in the autumn intelligence reached England of the alleged riot in Jamaica, and its severe and summary suppression by the governor of that colony, Gen. Edward John Eyre; but though there were strong suspicions of bad management, the facts were not fully brought before the people till January, 1866. A commission was, however, sent out to investigate the matter in December, Governor Eyre being suspended from the government of the colony meanwhile, and eventually ordered home for trial, and Maj.-Gen. Sir H. K. Storks appointed temporary governor. There was also, late in the autumn, considerable excitement in regard to an uprising of the Fenians in Ireland, and an invasion of that country by members of that brotherhood from the United States. Many arrests were made, and some of the leaders tried, convicted, and sentenced. (*See* FENIAN BROTHERHOOD.)

We subjoin the usual statistics of the United Kingdom for 1864 and for 1865 where they have been received.—I. FINANCE.—1. *Revenue and Expenditure*.—The revenue for the year, ending December 31, 1864, was £70,125,374 15s. 1d.=about \$350,500,000; of which Customs yielded £22,535,000=about \$112,500,000; Excise, £19,343,000=about \$96,550,000; Stamps, £9,468,000=about \$47,000,000; Property, or Income Tax, £7,999,000=nearly \$40,000,000; Post Office, £4,060,000=about \$20,000,000; Crown Lands (net) £307,500=about \$1,500,000; and the remainder was from miscellaneous sources. The expenditure for the same year was, £67,883,404 18s. 4d.=about \$339,500,000; of which £23,621,612 8s. 8d. or about \$118,000,000, was for interest and

management of the permanent debt, and £2,756,111 7s.=to about \$13,750,000 more for funded temporary loans, making the interest and management of the national indebtedness nearly \$192,000,000. The maintenance of the army cost £14,774,242 6s. 1d., or about \$73,870,000; and of the navy, £11,028,253 7s. 9d., or about \$55,100,000. For the year, ending September 30, 1865 (which is not the fiscal year), the revenue was £69,258,659, or about \$346,260,000.

The income tax was, prior to 1865, 7 pence per pound, with an allowance of £60=£300 on incomes below £200=£1,000. In 1865 it was reduced to 6 pence per pound, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. In 1864, 308,416 persons paid an income tax, and 91 persons paid tax on an income of £50,000=£250,000 and upwards. The amount of the national debt on the 31st of March, 1865, including the unfunded debt and terminable annuities, was £808,289,398=about \$4,041,446,000, a decrease of £4,940,736, or about \$24,000,000, from the preceding year.

2. The *Bank Note Circulation* of the United Kingdom, including the notes of the Bank of England, Private and Joint Stock Banks, and the Banks of Scotland and Ireland, for the month ending October 14, 1865, which was about £1,500,000 more than that of preceding months of the year, was £39,129,789, or about \$195,000,000. There were in 1864, in the United Kingdom, besides the Bank of England with its 11 branches, 140 private banks of issue, with 208 branches, 80 joint stock banks of issue, with 1,226 branches, 142 private banks not of issue, with 64 branches, and 62 joint stock banks not of issue, with 309 branches. The amount of coinage in the year 1864 was £10,088,859 18s. 11d., of which £9,535,597 was gold, £535,193 18s. 3d. silver, and £18,069 4s. 8d. bronze pennies, etc.

3. *Imports and Exports*.—The total imports of the United Kingdom for the year ending December 31, 1864, were £500,920,715, or about \$2,545,000,000; of this amount £274,863,024 was free of duty, and £226,057,691 subject to duty. The total declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures, was £160,436,302, or about \$802,000,000. The value of the exports of foreign and colonial produce and raw material is not given in the reports.

4. *Navigation*.—The number of arrivals of British vessels in British ports during the year ending December 31, 1864, was 31,233, with a tonnage of 9,028,100 tons; the arrivals of foreign vessels during the same time were 23,490, with a tonnage of 4,486,911, making a total of arrivals of 54,723 vessels, and an aggregate tonnage of 13,513,011 tons. The clearances for the same year were, of British vessels, 30,545, with a tonnage of 9,173,575 tons; and of foreign vessels, 23,690, with a tonnage of 4,515,923, making an aggregate of clearances of 54,235 sailing vessels, and 13,689,498 tons. The number of sailing vessels registered in the United Kingdom, in the year ending December 31, 1864,

was 23,142, with a tonnage of 4,930,219; and of steam vessels 2,490, with a tonnage of 697,281. There were registered besides these in the British Colonies 12,157 sailing and steam vessels, tonnage 1,455,477, making the total number of British and colonial vessels, sailing and steam registered, 40,791, with a total tonnage of 7,082,977. In addition to these there were 216 foreign-built vessels (mostly American), with a tonnage of 128,761, registered at various ports of the United Kingdom.

5. *Imports of Cotton*.—The total amount of cotton imported in the year ending December 31, 1864, was 893,304,720 lbs., against 660,583,784 lbs. in 1863. Of this amount 214,703,304 lbs. were exported. Of the whole quantity imported, 14,148,064 lbs. came from the United States, more than double the amount received in 1863; 42,117,264 lbs. came from the United States (running the blockade) by way of the Bahamas and Bermudas; 25,539,024 lbs. from Mexico (nearly or quite all of it from the United States); 1,223,264 lbs. from the British West Indies; 6,500,368 lbs. from New Grenada and Venezuela; 38,017,504 lbs. from Brazil; 21,593,840 lbs. from the Mediterranean; 125,493,648 lbs. from Egypt; 506,527,392 lbs. from British possessions in the East Indies; 86,157,008 lbs. from China; 9,404,304 lbs. from Japan; and 16,581,040 lbs. from other countries.

II. *EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS*.—Aside from the great English Universities, and the local colleges, both of the Established Church and of Dissenting bodies in England and Wales, the Scottish, and some of the Irish Universities and the largely endowed foundation schools, there are several Universities and Colleges, and a system of National Schools throughout the United Kingdom, supported by the Government either wholly or in part. The appropriations for educational purposes are not large, however, as compared with those of the German States, or with those of the United States. For the National Schools of England, Wales, and Scotland the appropriation for 1865-'66 was £693,078=about \$3,465,000; for public education in Ireland, £325,583=about \$1,627,500. For the Universities, Colleges, and Theological Seminaries in Scotland and Ireland (including also an appropriation to the University of London, of £8,773), £38,280, or about \$191,000; the British Museum, £100,164, or about \$500,800. The sum of £161,841, or \$805,000, was appropriated to the Department of Science and Art; £23,836=£116,500, to the National Gallery; and small sums ranging from £7,000=£35,000 downwards, to scientific works and experiments, the International Exhibition at Paris, the Royal Geographical Society, the National Gallery of Ireland, the Royal Society of Ireland, etc. In Ireland the National Schools have proved more efficient and are more largely attended, proportionately, than in England. At the end of 1864 there were 6,263 schools in operation; the whole number of scholars on the rolls during the year was 870,401, the average

number on the rolls during the year was 575,486, and the average number in daily attendance 315,108. The annual cost of schooling per head was £1 2s. 6d.—about \$5.50, of which the parents or guardians paid only 2s. 6d. or about 60 cents. Of the children 81.60 per cent. were Roman Catholics, and 18.40 per cent. Protestants. Normal schools were maintained at an annual cost of about £9,000=\$45,000.

III. JUDICIAL STATISTICS of *England and Wales*. The constabulary force (county and borough police) of England and Wales, at the close of 1864, was 14,793; the Metropolitan, dockyard, and city of London police, 3,056. The total expense of the police and constabulary was £1,700,213=\$8,500,000; of which £1,268,714=\$6,343,500, was for salaries and pay; £125,764=\$629,500 for clothing and accoutrements; £78,655 for superannuations and gratuities; £33,931 for horses, harness, and forage; £36,067 for allowances and contingencies; £127,141 for station-house charges, etc., and £30,001 for miscellaneous charges. The Metropolitan police (6,682 men) cost £527,248=\$2,636,000. The average pay for the whole force, constabulary and police, was £55 10s. 6d. per man = \$277.60.

The total number of the dangerous classes at large in England and Wales, in 1864, was 116,749, of whom 101,303 were over sixteen years of age, and 15,446 under that age; 65,822 were males, and 50,927 females; 23,298 were known thieves and deprecators, of whom 17,650 were males; 8,188 were receivers of stolen goods, of whom 2,560 were males; 28,094 were prostitutes, 1,292 of them under sixteen years of age; 30,237 were suspected persons, of whom 24,564 were males; 31,932 were vagrants and tramps, of whom 21,048 were males.

The number of prisoners in local prisons (not including debtors and military prisoners), 17,346 persons; in convict prisons, 7,975, and in reformatories, 3,186; the total number of persons of the dangerous and criminal classes in England and Wales was 145,256, a decrease of 10,129 from the returns of 1863. In London there is one criminal for 260 persons; the towns engaged in the manufacture of small and mixed textile fabrics, such as Norwich, Nottingham, Derby, Macclesfield, Coventry, Newcastle-under-Lyne, and Congleton, have 1 in 167; the cotton manufacturing towns, 1 in 136; the woollen and worsted manufacturing towns, 1 in 120; the hardware manufacturing towns, 1 in 117; the agricultural towns, 1 in 110; and the pleasure towns 1 in 79; a deterioration from the previous year when there was 1 in 81. In these pleasure towns the number of prostitutes reported is 1 to 231 of the population, an increase from the previous year; the commercial ports have 1 to 220; the agricultural towns 1 to 284; the towns of mixed textile fabrics 1 to 492; the cotton towns 1 to 536; the metropolis 1 to 560; the woollen towns 1 to 634, and the hardware towns 1 to 718.

During the year the police had information of 51,058 indictable crimes, and 28,734 persons were apprehended, a decrease of 1,153 crimes, and 1,676 apprehensions. Of those apprehended, 21,704 were males, and 7,030 females. The total number of convictions was 14,726, out of 18,256 committed for trial.

In the summary proceedings before magistrates, the number of cases was 440,913, of whom 352,809 were males, and 88,104 females; of these 300,731 (249,484 males, and 51,247 females) were convicted, and punished either by fine, imprisonment, or whipping; 100,067 were punished for being drunk and disorderly; 43,817 for larceny or attempts to steal; assaults, 94,374; malicious offences against property, 19,704; offences against the game-laws, 10,117; and vagrants, 29,648. The other offences were generally against local laws or corporation ordinances, laws relating to servants, apprentices, and masters; violation of license laws, nuisances and offences against health, violations of mutiny, poor law, and weights and measures acts. The total number of commitments to prisons during the year ending March 31, 1865, was 139,286, a decrease of 5,933; of these 104,373 were males, and 34,913 females. There were 45,192 recommitments; and of the total 1,173 males and 2,802 females had been committed more than ten times; 31,070 males and 13,862 females could neither read nor write; 54,830 males and 19,892 females could read a very little, and some of them write very imperfectly; 5,866 males and 854 females could read and write well, while 215 males and 19 females had had superior instruction, and there were 602 males and 296 females whose education could not be ascertained.

The number of reformatory schools in 1865 was 51, and the offenders in them were 4,349, 3,432 males and 917 females, of whom 1,007 (797 boys and 210 girls) were admitted during the year; of these 416 boys and 113 girls could neither read nor write, 340 boys and 74 girls could read and write imperfectly, 41 boys and 18 girls could read and write well, and the instruction received by 5 could not be ascertained. Of the whole 1,007, 58 were under 10 years of age, 77 under 11, 128 under 12, 190 under 13, 239 under 14, 219 under 15, and 96 under 16. The cost of support was £49,563=about \$247,500, of which 47,307 was paid by the Government treasury.

There are 29 industrial schools certified under acts of Parliament, containing during the year 1,027 children under detention as vagrants. These children are all under 14, and 56 were under 8 years of age, and 100 under 9. The cost of maintenance was £11,833=to about \$59,000, of which about £2,000 was contributed by the parents.

IV. VITAL STATISTICS. In *England and Wales* there were registered in 1864, 739,763 births, 10,364 more than the previous year, and the highest number yet reached in England. Of these 377,583 were males, and 363,

170 females. The number of marriages was 180,263, being 6,895 more than the previous year; and there were 465,520 deaths, being 19,538 more than in 1863. Of the deaths, 253,882 were males, and 241,638 females. The oldest persons who died within the year were a man at Chelsea one hundred and nine years old, and a woman in the district of West Derby, (Liverpool), one hundred and twelve years.

In *Scotland*, in 1864, there were 112,445 births, of which 57,485 were males, and 54,960 females; and of the total number 11,069 were illegitimate. The number of marriages was 22,675; and of deaths 74,803, an increase of 2,882 over 1863. Of the deaths, 36,957 were males, and 37,346 females. In the rural districts the death rate was 1.84 per cent., the birth rate 3.24, and the marriage rate 0.55. In the town or city districts, the death rate was 2.85 per cent., the birth rate 3.86 per cent., and the marriage rate 0.87 per cent. The illegitimate births were 9.6 per cent. of the total births in the town districts, and 10.1 per cent. in the rural districts.

In *Ireland*, 136,648 births were registered in 1864, 94,075 deaths, and 27,376 marriages. The excess of births over deaths in Great Britain in 1864 was 282,385, and the total emigration from the country to America and the Colonies was 208,900.

GREECE, a kingdom in Europe. King: George I., second son of the King of Denmark, born December 24, 1845, elected "King of the Hellenes" by the National Assembly of Athens, March 18 (30), 1863. The area of the kingdom, since the annexation of the Ionian Isles, is about 19,340 miles; the population about 1,326,000 inhabitants. The capital is Athens, with 41,298 inhabitants. By a royal decree of December 8, 1864, the Ionian Isles were divided into four nomarchies, in order to assimilate their administration to that of Greece Proper, which is divided into ten nomarchies. In the budget of 1865, the receipts were estimated at 28,500,000 drachmas, and the expenditures at 27,000,000 drachmas; but the end of the financial year showed, instead of the expected surplus, a considerable deficit. The public debt (according to Kolb, *Handbuch der vergleichenden Statistik*, 4th ed., 1865) amounted to nearly 202,000,000 drachmas. The army, according to a vote submitted by the Government to the National Assembly in November, 1864, is to consist of 12,000 men. The fleet consists of thirty-two vessels, armed with one hundred and eighty-two cannons, besides two small steamers, which had hitherto carried the Ionian flag. The movement of shipping of Greece Proper, was in 1862 as follows:

FLAG.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Foreign	5,228	606,526	4,961	615,678
Greek	3,236	471,981	6,248	
Total	10,464	1,078,507	11,209	615,678

The merchant navy consisted, in 1862, of 43,385 vessels, having a collective capacity of 275,318 tons.

The Constitutional Assembly of Greece was dissolved on November 24, 1864—the king having on the same day taken the oath to observe the new constitution. Shortly before (November 16, 1864), the National Assembly had complied with the demand of the king to repeal that article of the new constitution which required Roman Catholic priests to be Hellenic subjects. On the other hand, however, they refused, notwithstanding the objections of the king, to modify the article of the constitution providing for the mode of its future revision.

King George did not succeed in 1865 in forming a ministry able and strong enough to secure the confidence of the whole country and keep down revolutionary agitation. On March 14th Admiral Kanaris resigned the presidency of the ministry, and the king charged the Minister of the Interior, Comondouros, with forming a new cabinet.

In May the election of a new National Assembly took place, and resulted favorably to the Government. In opening the National Assembly, on June 9th, the king announced that his Government was engaged in concluding arrangements for the payment of the loan of 1832, guaranteed by the protecting Powers. This would enable them to meet at a subsequent period anterior obligations, and to raise the credit of the country. Several important bills were also announced.

In the latter part of October the Opposition having obtained a majority of seventy-five against sixty-nine votes on a question of confidence, the ministry resigned. M. Bularis having been summoned by the king to form a new ministry, declared that he would only accept the task on condition that Count Sponneck, the Danish adviser of the king, should quit Greece. The king refused this condition, stating that Count Sponneck did not occupy any official position. M. Bularis thereupon declined, and M. Deligiorgi accepted the task. But a few weeks later (November 15th) the Deligiorgi ministry resigned, and the ministerial crisis continued until the close of the year, several new cabinets being in succession formed and dissolved. On December 1st the Chamber decided by one hundred and twenty to twenty-six votes upon the revision of the articles of the constitution relating to the Council of the State. The Chamber abolished that Council by a great majority. Count Sponneck, yielding to the prevailing popular opposition to him, left Greece on December 1st.

The condition of the kingdom in the last months of the year seemed to be so unsatisfactory to the three protecting powers, France, England, and Russia, that they were seriously negotiating about the expediency of a joint intervention, involving, if necessary, the suspension of the Greek constitution.

GREEK CHURCH. No important change occurred during the year 1865, in the mutual relation of the branches of the Greek Churches to each other. In Austria, the Greek Church, which, in accordance with an imperial rescript of November 26, 1864, is henceforth to be officially designated as the "Greek-Oriental," instead of, as heretofore, the "Greek Non-United" Church, is now fully separated into two independent Archbishoprics, one for the Greek Slavi, and the other for the Roumanic nation. For the latter, Andrew Baron de Schaguna was appointed, in 1865, the first Archbishop.

The Moldo-Wallachian Church has been declared, by Prince Couza, to be henceforth wholly independent of and disconnected from the Greek Patriarch of Constantinople. Ecclesiastical communion remains perfect, as before; just as between the Church of England and the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States. This declaration of ecclesiastical independence by the Church of the Principalities did not please the Sultan, and at his instance the Patriarch of Constantinople tried to retain his former subordinates. He despatched a bishop to Bucharest, to declare that the law of civil marriage, the secularization of convent property, and the institution of a National Church, lately decreed by Prince Couza, were contrary to the dogmas of the Greek Church, and involved the penalty of excommunication. Prince Couza, in reply, ordered the bishop to be reconducted to the frontier by gendarmes. The reorganization of the Church has since been completed, by the establishment of a National Synod; and, on the whole, the Church of the Principalities seems to be the most progressive of the branches of the Greek Church.

The movement toward a union between the Anglican and the Eastern Churches has many influential friends in Russia. The most important step which has yet been taken on the part of Russians in favor of this movement was the participation of several men of high position in a meeting held in London, on December 16, 1865, at which about 80 of the bishops and clergy of the Church of England were present. As far as the position of the Anglican participants is concerned, we have referred to the proceedings of this important meeting under the head of **ANGLICAN CHURCH**. Russia was represented on the occasion by Prince Orloff, Minister of Public Instruction in the Emperor's Cabinet, and Count A. Tolstoi, the representative of the Russian Government in the Holy Governing Synod, and author of a work on the Latin Church, together with the Russian Chaplain in London, the Rev. Mr. Popoff. Prince Orloff, in a letter to the "Moscow Gazette," gives the following account of the attitude of the Russian members of the meeting:

Having premised that I was speaking in a private capacity, I said that the Russian clergy, praying daily for the establishment of a common Christian Church, would be always inclined to promote it. In

proof of this I alleged that the study of the English language had been introduced into our ecclesiastical academies, and that our clergy would be prepared to sift privately all disputed points. I added, however, that the most holy Philaret, the Archbishop of Moscow, and lofty Patriarch of our Church, was of opinion that this was a grave and difficult question, which ought to be slowly matured, and, above all, investigated closely and minutely. In conclusion, I moved: 1. That works should be published in England setting forth the history, doctrine, and present condition of the Anglican Church, with a view to proving that it is not a Protestant but a Catholic Church, and, accordingly, related to the Eastern Church. I also remarked that the subject being altogether unknown to the Russian public, it ought to be explained fully and copiously. 2. That Anglican clergymen sympathizing with the cause should be stationed at Moscow and St. Petersburg. 3. That the matter should not be precipitated, or urged with too much eagerness or violence, but that we should trust in the Divine assistance rather than in the success of our human and short-sighted endeavors. What we had to do now was to prepare the ground by elucidating the question. The seed would grow up, and future generations, perhaps, would reap the harvest, if God willed it. Father Popoff, who delivered an eloquent speech, breathing the spirit of Christianity, expressed himself to the same effect. After him some clergymen spoke on dogmatical points. I omit quoting their opinions; they will be probably communicated by Father Popoff in his report to the Chief Procurator of the Holy Synod. They had no immediate reference to the matter in hand.

Before the close of the debates I rose again to declare that the Russian Church being but one of the five branches of the Eastern Catholic Church, the matter was all the more complicated, and that the subordinate members of our clergy were not at liberty to decide any ecclesiastical questions, being entirely guided by the rules and directions of their Church.

In a subsequent letter to the London "Times," Prince Orloff gave the following further explanations concerning this meeting:

It has been insinuated that I was obliged to excuse myself, in the eyes of my own countrymen, for having participated in the prayers with which the meeting opened and closed. The Eastern Orthodox Church has never forbidden its members from joining in any form of prayer with other Christians, more especially with those who pray for "the peace of the whole world and the union of divided Christendom." This insinuation is, therefore, totally devoid of foundation. The Archbishop of Canterbury never expressed any intention to me of sending bishops to Russia. It was rather a suggestion on my part that some learned churchman might be induced to go there whenever the idea of intercommunion should attain a greater development; for in 1864 an eminent member of the Church of England had expressed to me his desire of visiting Moscow in order to sound the opinions of the Russian clergy, but abandoned his resolution on hearing from me how few among them were acquainted with the English language, and how little the question of intercommunion had been agitated at that time.

The "Church Journal" of New York, a devoted advocate of the union movement, regards the part taken in this meeting by Russia as a step more important and significant than any thing that has been placed on record since the time of the Council of Florence. The indications increase that this movement may become one of importance. Our literary intercourse with Eastern Europe is, however, still so re-

stricted, that we are but imperfectly informed about the progress it has made in the Russian and the other Eastern Churches. The London "Pall Mall Gazette" has the following remarks on the history of the movement:

"The project of union, or rather intercommunion, between the Russo-Greek and Anglican Churches, is no new thing. The true author of the scheme was Peter the Great, at whose suggestion the English and Russian bishops entered into correspondence on the subject. The negotiations were protracted, through the inability of the Russian bishops to give satisfactory explanations in reference to the national practice of image worship, and on the death of Peter they were discontinued; a result or want of result, which has often been deplored by the orthodox Russians, and among them by Mouravieff, the historian of the Russian Church. The revival of the project of intercommunion is due, in a great measure, to the journal which distinguished itself during the Polish insurrection by its enthusiastic support of the historian's brother, the 'hanging Mouravieff,' of Wilna notoriety. Five years ago the present editor of the 'Moscow Gazette' published in the 'Contemporary Leaves' (one of several journals directed by him), a remarkable correspondence between the Rev. Mr. Williams, Fellow of a college at Cambridge, and Admiral Putiatin, who had then recently arrived from Japan to take the command of the Ministry of Public Instruction. The admiral sent to the 'Moscow Gazette' a letter he had received from Mr. Williams, pointing out the facility with which Russians might now send their sons to study at the University of Cambridge, and recommending the erection of a Russian church there, and the appointment of a Russian chaplain. Since then the 'Moscow Gazette' has on many occasions urged the desirability of bringing about a good understanding between the Russian and English Churches; and it was this journal that first published the account of the meeting held recently in London, at which Prince Orloff, Father Popoff, and a number of English prelates were present. Admiral Putiatin was well known in the Russian navy for his habits of devotion; but it is no calumny on Peter the Great to say that, in endeavoring to establish intimate relations between the two Churches, he was actuated less by religious than political motives. He wished to counterbalance, as much as possible, the influence of the Roman Catholic Church in Europe, and especially in Poland. The Russians attach much more importance to the London meeting than really belongs to it; and a writer in a St. Petersburg journal has come to the conclusion that the English tourists who visit St. Isaac's Cathedral do so from a pious wish to

make themselves acquainted with the ceremonies of the Russian Church."

The English Church papers which are in favor of the union movement, assert that the advances toward a union made by the Anglicans have met with a particularly favorable reception on the part of the Greek Bishops of Servia. The "London Churchman" expressed joy at being able to "record another instance of the disposition of the Servian Church to resume that Christian intercourse which is paving the way for complete recognition and intercommunion. Three clergymen from London, passing through Belgrade recently, were detained in that city on the Sunday. When the Archbishop knew this, he placed at their disposal the ante-chapel in his own palace for the purposes of holy communion, and supplied them with the necessary elements, altar lights, and other requisites. The Metropolitan expressed at the same time his great regret at not being able to be present in person at the celebration, in consequence of being obliged to go to Racovitza, it being, it would seem, a high festival, but he intrusted the carrying out of the matter to one of the Archimandrites, who remained with them throughout the office."

The "Levant Herald," an English paper published at Constantinople, having stated that the Archbishop of Servia had degraded the Archimandrite of Studenitz for administering the holy communion to an English clergyman, the "Churchman," of October 5, contradicted this report by the following statement:

"We are requested by the Rev. W. Denton to state that the report of the censure and degradation of the Archimandrite of Studenitz for administering the holy communion to a member of the English Church is wholly unfounded. The Archbishop of Belgrade has replied to Mr. Denton's inquiries as to the truth of the assertions in the 'Levant Herald,' and he states that the thought of degrading or censuring the Archimandrite had never entered into his mind. We possess information which leads us to believe, that before long the Servian Church will take a more formal step toward intercommunion with the Anglican Church."

As regards the Church of the kingdom of Greece, a correspondent of the "London Churchman" stated that the Holy Synod was "ready to acknowledge as valid the baptism of the Anglican Church, when intercommunion shall be realized." The "Hemera" (the Day), a journal which has a wide circulation in Greece, the Ionian Islands, Turkey, and Egypt, published, in 1865, a series of letters from Dr. Fraser on the Constitution of the English Church, and on her Synods and Liturgy, which seemed to awaken considerable interest in the question among the Greek people.

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HABEAS CORPUS. The question of the power to suspend the writ of *habeas corpus*, called forth opinions from some of the leading lawyers of the country; and, among others, Hon. Horace Binney, of Philadelphia. In considering the question, it is stated in reference to a pamphlet from his pen, that "Mr. Binney regards as of more than doubtful constitutionality, the act of Congress of March 3, 1863, which gives the President power to suspend the privilege "in any case," without qualification of cause or offence; and which suspends all judicial proceedings on writs of *habeas corpus* after a certificate oath by the keeper of the prison, that the prisoner is detained by authority of the President, without any return of the body of the prisoner, or of the cause of imprisonment. Nor do the Executive Proclamations of 24th September, 1862, and 15th September, 1863, commend themselves any more to his judgment as true constructions of our fundamental law.

"Mr. Binney argues that the benefits of this writ cannot, under any circumstances, be denied except to persons engaged in rebellion or invasion, and that the warrant of arrest should itself assign the cause—treason, generally, or suspicion of treason—some high misdemeanor against the majesty of State. Speaking of the power to suspend the privilege, and to look at any arrest, Mr. Binney says that the Judicial power cannot be altogether displaced or superseded by it; though it may be so far abridged as only to maintain the rights of persons under a limitation which confines the Judiciary to the forms of things rather than to their substance. He argues that the Judicial Department is competent to inquire, not indeed into the particular grounds of the suspicion of treasonable design charged, or to judge whether the imputation upon the party imprisoned be well or ill founded in fact or probability, but to see that the power has, at least ostensibly, been exercised within the constitutional limit."

The extent to which the arbitrary arrest of citizens without benefit of the writ of *habeas corpus* was carried, is indicated by the records of the Provost Marshal's office of Washington, which shows that from June, 1861, to January 1, 1866, the cases of some thirty-eight thousand prisoners have been reported at that office. Out of this vast number the Old Capitol Prison shows upon its record that it has housed for longer or shorter periods sixty-five hundred prisoners of war, forty-five hundred real and fancied offenders against the State, and twenty-five hundred deserters and bounty jumpers.

Even in cases where the writ was granted, there was sometimes difficulty in securing the production of the party under arrest in consequence of his removal before the service of

the process. Mr. Cheshire, of Brooklyn, was tried by court-martial on a charge of malefiance in office, found guilty, and sentenced to imprisonment in the Albany Penitentiary; he was taken to the place of confinement in August, and a writ requiring the production of his body on the 7th of that month, before Judge Lott, was served on the Superintendent of the Penitentiary, General Pillsbury. Gen. P. immediately telegraphed the fact to E. D. Townsend, Assistant Adjutant-Gen. U. S. Army, but receiving no answer within the succeeding few hours, he took the train for New York, with a view of consulting the U. S. District Attorney, and also to see Judge Lott, his purpose in this being to ask of the Judge a delay of one day in making return to the writ. While thus engaged, on Monday morning, the 7th inst, he received a telegram from his Deputy Warden, informing him that the prisoner had been removed from the penitentiary, by virtue of an order from the War Department, directing Deputy U. S. Provost Marshal Frederick Townsend to take him into close custody and convey him to Fort Warren, there to be confined until the expiration of his sentence, unless otherwise ordered.

A somewhat similar case occurred in New York. Under an act of Congress passed March 3, 1863, providing for discharge, on application, of State prisoners, against whom no indictment has been found, Bickley, the leader of the Knights of the Golden Circle, applied for discharge from Fort Lafayette. Before the order to show cause in the matter was made by Judge Betts, he had been removed from Fort Lafayette to Fort Warren. The order to show cause was directed to General Dix, as the commandant of the Eastern District, within whose limit both Fort Lafayette and Fort Warren were, and on their hearing the point was raised in his behalf that the court had no jurisdiction to order the discharge of a prisoner held in the District of Massachusetts.

Judge Betts sustained the objection, holding that the court of this district had no power to make an order which is operative in Massachusetts.

In May an order was issued from the War Department which directed as follows:

That in all cases of sentences by military tribunals of imprisonment during the war, the sentence be remitted, and that the prisoners be discharged.

The Adjutant-General will issue immediately the necessary instructions to carry this order into effect. By order of the President.

(Signed) EDWIN M. STANTON,
Secretary of War.

The case of Col. L. C. Baker, who had been indicted for false imprisonment, and found guilty on the trial of the same in the Criminal Court of the District of Columbia, came up for

review before the Supreme Court of the District on a motion for a new trial. The defendant was charged with false imprisonment, in having placed in custody Dr. Stewart Gwynne; he pleaded in justification of the act, the orders of the Secretary of the Treasury, and relied on the act of March 3, 1863, chapter 81, providing that any order of the President or under his authority, made during the rebellion, should be a defence to any action for arrest, imprisonment, etc., done by virtue of such order. Judge Wylie, who tried the case, instructed the jury that the order of the Secretary was no defence, and that under the act nothing short of a written order of the President would suffice (*see* ANN. CRO., 1864, p. 424). Cartter, C. J., in giving the opinion of the court in the case, in the Supreme Court, February 2d, and granting a new trial, held, that the orders of the Secretary were, in point of law, the orders of the President, and that under the provisions of the statute they were a justification in the case for the acts charged; and further, that the statute did not contravene the provisions of the Constitution securing the right of liberty without due process of law, holding that to be a guaranty against arrest in time of peace and not in time of war, and on the further ground that in the District, Congress was the Executive law-making power; it could declare what should be a justification for acts committed therein. Judge Wylie, in an able decision, dissented from the ruling of the court granting a new trial.

Judge Smalley decided differently in the case *Walker vs. Crane*, in the U. S. Circuit Court in Vermont. The case at issue involved the constitutionality of the act passed by Congress on March 3, 1863, providing that "any order of the President, or under his authority, made at any time during the existence of this rebellion, shall be a defence in all courts to any action or prosecution, civil or criminal, pending or to be commenced for any search, seizure, arrest or imprisonment," etc. The Judge held that the section of the act of March 3, 1863, quoted above, was in violation of the Constitution of the United States, and afforded no protection for acts done under the authority of that section; also, that the opinion of Whiting in regard to the construction of that act was erroneous; and that, martial law not having been declared in Vermont, the civil law remained in full force, and was not subordinate to military authority.

A verdict was rendered in Buffalo against General Scroggs, late Provost Marshal of the Buffalo District, at the suit of Charles P. Davis, for false imprisonment. An action was brought in the Supreme Court at Boston, Mass., by Leonard Sturtevant *vs.* N. H. Allen. The plaintiff alleged that in August, 1861, the defendant accused him of being a traitor to the Government, saying "he is a traitor and secessionist," in consequence of which he was arrested and confined in Fort Lafayette, occasioning loss of health and prop-

erty. The jury rendered a verdict for the plaintiff for \$32,550 (!) damages, on the trial of the cause in May.

William B. N. Cozzens, a citizen of Pennsylvania, was arrested in a public square in Philadelphia, on the 29th of June, on an allegation that he had been convicted by a court-martial of some offence. A writ of *habeas corpus* was allowed by Justice Thompson, of the Supreme Court. The respondents refused to obey the command of the writ or make any return thereto, and an attachment was issued against them; the service of the attachment was forcibly resisted, and the case was adjourned for the day. All of the parties, however, subsequently appeared, and after argument, Judge Thompson rendered his decision, as follows:

The petition sets forth many grievances. This man was arrested, taken to the Old Capitol Prison, deprived of money and property belonging to him, notified through newspapers that he was to be tried, and that he was tried, and that there had been some finding somewhere. All that is outside of the case. I have nothing to do with it here. But there is something for me to consider, and I have acted upon it. He states that he is not guilty of a criminal offence, and that he has been deprived of his liberty. Upon that this return is made. On this return I am to judge, and on nothing else.

The return to this writ of *habeas corpus* is that the relator, as a private citizen, was arrested, and held under the authority of the President of the United States. The return is in accordance to the Act of Congress of March 3, 1863, that wherever the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* is suspended by the President under the authority of the act, no officer shall be compelled to produce the body of the person in custody; but upon certificate under oath that the person is detained under the authority of the President, proceedings under the writ shall stay. The section authorizes the President during the present rebellion, whenever the public safety required it, to suspend the writ of *habeas corpus* as it is provided, and that suspension remain in force so long as the rebellion continued. On this return there arises the important question whether on the 29th of June last the rebellion continued or not. This question I am to determine. It is a fact to be judicially determined, like any other fact that comes under judicial cognizance. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* is the sacred right of every citizen, and we are to observe the strictest scrutiny of any act that threatens to deprive him of it. We have plainly before us the fact that the power of suspension is granted only for the continuance of rebellion. It ceases with the rebellion; and I think and shall so decide, that the courts are bound to give the citizen his right under the privilege. Then there is the one thing to decide. What shall be the evidence of the end of the rebellion? This must be such as is necessary to prove any other fact. I think that we have abundant evidence that the rebellion no longer continues.

The abundance of evidence was then set forth tersely and clearly by the Judge, concluding with the assertion, "I cannot doubt the fact; we all know it, and thank the Good Providence that there is no war in the land." Why, then, should the right of the citizen, limited and controlled by the existence of the war, be limited and controlled when the war has ceased? This being so, the authority of the President merely, waiving all other considerations that bear upon this subject, is not a sufficient warrant for the arrest of a citizen. And when a warrant is issued for the arrest or search of any person or place, for probable cause, it must be supported by oath or affirmation; and there being no oath or affirmation here

charging the crime or offence, nor warrant pursuant to it, to authorize the arrest, the warrant in this case, therefore, is unauthorized, and the relator is entitled to be discharged.

This decision is not one that conflicts as between the civil and military authorities of the country. It is an important clause of our Constitution and right, that the military shall in all cases and at all times be in strict subservience to the civil power, and it will, doubtless, be as agreeable to the military authorities that there should be a return to the normal condition in this respect, as peace happily reigns, as to the civil authorities themselves. On this simple fact, considering the return, and no more, I discharge this claimant. I do not go into the question whether Congress has the right to put into the army contractors or others. It is not necessary to this decision. I must discard all considerations that have been suggested arising out of the fact that Mr. Cozzens has been tried by a military tribunal. It would have presented a different question had it been returned here that he was in execution under the finding of that court. I hope, however, most earnestly hope, now at the end of the long terrible war we have just passed through, that the President of the United States will do speedily what I think he ought to do, refuse his sanction to all trials of offences that are not purely military, and let the citizen be again returned to the tribunals to which he is accustomed to answer, and there to receive the punishment of which he shall be found to be guilty. I make no decision on this question, for the question of trial is not returned as the reason for the arrest, nor will it, therefore, be proper for me to notice it. The return is based simply on the power of the President to order the arrest under the authority of the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*. Therefore, the decision in one great question, must, in my judgment, decide all questions of this kind. That is to say, the time allowed the President to exercise this power is at an end. The bow of peace spans the whole country, and that was to be the sign that all should be secured in their rights hereafter. I have, I believe, nothing further that it is necessary to add. I have thought with a great deal of care on this subject. I have approved the calm and dispassionate manner of the discussions, that was becoming the gentlemen engaged on both sides. I am obliged, therefore, to order the release of the relator.

Cozzens was accordingly discharged, and the case thus ended.

No case has arisen concerning the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*, which gave rise to more comment and created greater interest than that in reference to Thomas C. A. Dexter in the U. S. Court of Alabama, before Judge Richard Busteed. The facts of the case are stated as follows: R. F. Andrews, Esq., counsel for Mr. Dexter, presented a petition setting forth the grounds on which action was requested, and praying that the writ might issue to Gen. Woods and to Col. Brooks, provost marshal, in whose custody it was alleged Mr. Dexter was held. The writ was allowed, returnable November 22d. On that day proof of the service of this writ on Gen. C. R. Woods, and on Hunter Brooks, the provost marshal, was made, and Judge Busteed asked if either of the respondents was present. Neither of them appearing, the Judge caused proclamation for them to be made, and the crier called out the name of each three times. Mr. Andrews stated that Gen. Woods and Col. Brooks had each made a return to the writ, and read to the Court the return of Col. Brooks, as follows:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF ALABAMA,
OFFICE PROVOST MARSHAL GENERAL, Nov. 21, 1863.
Respectfully returned. I am acting under military orders from Maj.-Gen. C. R. Woods, commanding this department.

I do not recognize the authority of Judge Busteed, and therefore decline to respond further to the writ.

HUNTER BROOKS
Brevet Lieut.-Col. and Provost Marshal General.

The following return was made by Maj.-Gen. Charles R. Woods:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF ALABAMA,
MOBILE, ALA., Nov. 22, 1863.
By way of return to the within writ, I, Brevet Maj.-Gen. Charles R. Woods, of the United States volunteers, commanding the Department of Alabama, respectfully show that the said Thomas C. A. Dexter, in said writ named, is imprisoned and detained by me, by authority of the President of the United States, and of Maj.-Gen. George H. Thomas, commanding the Military Division of Tennessee. That by the order and proclamation of the President of the United States, the writ of *habeas corpus* is suspended in the State of Alabama, and that consistently with the orders of my military superiors, the President of the United States, and Maj.-Gen. Thomas, I cannot produce the body of said Thomas C. A. Dexter before any civil tribunal, and protesting due respect for the Honorable the Court of the United States for the District of Alabama, I decline to obey the writ, or to make any other or further return.

CHARLES R. WOODS, Brevet Maj.-Gen.,
Commanding Department of Alabama.

Judge Busteed then asked the counsel if he had any motion to make, whereupon Mr. Andrews argued that both the returns were wholly defective and insufficient, and moved in conclusion for an order directing Gen. Woods and Col. Brooks to make a further and full return to the writ.

The Judge said in answer: "I agree with what counsel has said touching the insufficiency of these returns. That of the provost marshal is not insufficient only, it is disrespectful to the Court. It is not proper in making an answer to a writ of *habeas corpus* to deny the authority of the officer issuing the writ. This is no part of a return. I can but hope that an officer in the military service of the United States of the rank of the respondent Brooks, is not guilty of intentional disrespect to the courts of the United States, and that the language in which he couches his return is the result of his ignorance of what was proper in the premises. If I supposed that the matter complained of proceeded from viciousness, it would be my duty to order that he show cause to-morrow morning why he should not be proceeded against as for contempt. I choose the charitable construction, and pass it over with these observations. The motion that he make a further return will not be granted. It is unnecessary, because in what he calls his return he says he is acting under orders from Gen. Woods, his department commander, and because in the return made by Gen. Woods he assumes the responsibility of the imprisonment of the petitioner.

"The motion will be granted as it respects the return made by Gen. Woods. This return is altogether insufficient. It does not comply in any essential with the requirements of the

law. The writ of *habeas corpus* is the people's writ of right. When issued out of a United States Court the practice upon the return to it conforms to the practice of the Supreme Court of the State in which the district court is situated. It is of the essence of the writ that the body of the petitioner be produced with the return, if the respondent have his custody. The statutes of Alabama require—indeed the statutes of all the States require—that the body of the petitioner be produced before the officer issuing the writ when return is made to it, and that if the party is detained under a writ, warrant, or other written authority, a copy thereof must be annexed to the return and the original produced to the court. In all these respects the return of Gen. Woods is defective. He claims to hold the petitioner 'by authority of the President of the United States and of Maj.-Gen. George H. Thomas.' This authority should be produced.

"This part of the return to the writ made by Gen. Woods which informs the courts that 'the writ of *habeas corpus* is suspended in Alabama,' may be treated as surplusage. The General is evidently a better soldier than lawyer. This Court cannot suppose that an officer of the high military grade of Gen. Woods intended to instruct the Court upon the law of the case, and the very full disclaimer of any disrespect for the authority of the Court which the General makes in his return is in marked and satisfactory contrast to the course pursued by an officer of subordinate rank."

No other return was made by Gen. Woods, and an attachment was issued against him as for contempt, Judge Busted delivering the following opinion:

The writ of *habeas corpus* is more than a century older than the political organization of our country. It was wrested from Power when it was at its meridian, by Freedom when in its infancy. Deprived of it the citizen is a slave, and Government a despot. Although the vast majority of the people know little of the struggle out of which this priceless boon was born, the writ is familiar to them as their daily life, and the sign to them of sure deliverance from unjust restraint. Its behests may not ordinarily be denied without wounding Liberty herself and pensioning her upon Tyranny. In our own land the cases are very few in which the privilege of the writ can lawfully be suspended, and the organic law itself stands guard over the sacredness of the remedy it is designed to secure. The men who made the revolution of 1776, understood too well the value of the writ of Habeas Corpus to leave it to the mercy of mere intendment, or in the gift of discretion or caprice. It is secured to the people of these States as a constitutional right, and who interrupts the enjoyment of the right, except in the cases and specially plainly enumerated, violates the law of the land and is guilty of a high crime. Above all others he is guilty, whatever his rank, who, himself, a servant of the law, attempts to embarrass its administration or divert its benefits from those who claim them. "The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended unless when, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it." This is the mandate of the Constitution of the United States of America, so directly stated that he who runs may read. It is obligatory on us all. Nor the Executive, nor the Legislature, nor the Judiciary can increase, or lessen, or alter its manifest scope.

The language of the mandate is aptly chosen and full of significance. It leaves untouched the great writ itself. The privilege of its use, the right of demanding its benefits and exercise, may be held in abeyance in cases of rebellion or invasion, but even then only when the public safety requires it. A state of rebellion or invasion is a condition precedent to the suspension of the privilege. These, or either of these may exist, and still no necessity arise for its suspension. It is only when either of these exists, that the power to interfere with the writ vests, and even then this power may only be exercised when the public safety requires it. Of the necessity for its exercise, the Government judges *after* the facts exist out of which grows the right to suspend the privilege of the writ.

The question that first confronts us in this inquiry is, do either of the precedent conditions exist upon which the power to interfere with the office of the writ of *habeas corpus* is founded, and how are we to determine this? The invasion of a public enemy or the existence of a domestic rebellion, are patent facts in current history, of which Courts may take judicial cognizance, and the judicial officer who should affect ignorance on these subjects would not gain much credit for any thing save uncommon obtuseness. That no "invasion" of our country has occurred or now exists, is as true as that none is likely to take place. Individuals, anxious to become citizens of the Great Republic, will in the future, as they have in the past, seek our shores and join their fortunes with ours, but the idea of an invasion by an organized enemy, is as chimerical as the experiences of Munchausen, and as empty as the South Sea bubble. Clearly the right to suspend the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* has no foundation in any "invasion" of the country. "The public safety" is not endangered from this cause.

Does a "rebellion" exist here? is the next pertinent inquiry, and this must be met and answered. That is to say, the same general rules for determining if invasion exists, are those for determining if rebellion exists.

It is sadly true that a rebellion has existed in our country—a rebellion so vast in its proportions that belligerent rights were accorded to it by several of the leading Powers of the earth, and to subdue which required years of time, more than a million of men in arms, and millions upon millions of treasure—a rebellion that shook the earth and threatened to engulf an empire. Happily for this people, happily for their history and their posterity, happily for humanity and liberty, that rebellion no longer exists. Our fertile fields, lately barren and fruitless, are again rewarding the husbandman's toil; our ships, so long flapping idle sails, are again navigating the waters; our storehouses and shops, heretofore silent as the grave, are again resounding with the noise of trade and commerce. In all the broad land that constitutes our country there is not an organized opposition to the Government. No forces hostile to it deny its authority. The nation's flag dominates every acre of the nation's demesne. There is now no rebellion here. Let us devoutly thank God!

These views are fortified by the act of Congress of March 3, 1863, entitled "an act relating to Habeas Corpus, and regulating Judicial proceedings in certain cases," which act authorizes the President to suspend the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*, and also by the proclamation of the President of the 15th of September, 1863, suspending it. The Congressional enactment and the proclamation issued by its authority, each recognizes the principle that there is no power in the Government to suspend the privilege except as set forth by the Constitution, and each, in express terms, provides that the suspension so decreed shall not continue longer than the rebellion.

The first section of the act declares "that during

the present rebellion, the President of the United States, whenever in his judgment the public safety may require it, may suspend the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* in any case throughout the United States or any part thereof."

In conformity to this law, and in the exercise of his judgment, President Lincoln, on the 15th of September, 1863, six months subsequently to the passage of the act of Congress, issued his proclamation suspending the privilege of the writ throughout the United States, in certain specified cases; such suspension to continue throughout the duration of the said rebellion, or until by a subsequent proclamation the proclamation of September should be modified or revoked.

This alternative language clearly looks to and was intended to provide for the immediate restoration of the privilege of the writ whenever "the public safety did not require its longer suspension;" and this, even although the rebellion should continue after its restoration, as it did in all the time that elapsed between the passage of the act of Congress authorizing the President to suspend it, and its actual suspension.

It is very important, in this connection, to observe that the proclamation specifically enumerates the persons and cases to be deprived of the benefits of *habeas corpus* during the continuance of the rebellion, or until the withdrawal or modification of the proclamation. These are—

Where, by the authority of the President, any military, naval, or civil officer of the Government, held persons in custody as, 1st, prisoners of war; 2d, spies; 3d, aiders or abettors of the enemy; 4th, enrolled, drafted, mustered, or enlisted officers, soldiers, and seamen, belonging to the land or naval forces; 5th, deserters; 6th, persons amenable to military law, or to the rules and articles of war, or the rules prescribed by authority of the President for the regulation of military and naval services; 7th, persons resisting a draft; 8th, any other offence against the military or naval services.

As to all other classes of citizens, there has been no general suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus* under the authorization of the act of Congress. In one or two individual cases, the writ has been specially suspended by order of the President.

I am additionally fortified in the views I have expressed, by the proclamation of the President appointing a Provisional Governor for Alabama, and by the acts which he thereby authorizes and directs to be performed. Among other things, the United States District Judge for the Judicial District in which Alabama is included, is thereby directed to "proceed to hold courts within said State in accordance with the provisions of the act of Congress." Is any one weak enough to suppose that the President of the United States would order the civil courts to resume their functions in a State in rebellion against the Government, and denying and fighting against its authority?

This proclamation was issued in July last, and as if to place the matter beyond cavil, the President on the 25th of August, 1865, issued another proclamation removing all existing restrictions on trade with the States then recently in rebellion, and allowing the importation into these States of articles which heretofore had been declared contraband of war. Need it be argued that if rebellion existed in Alabama, the Government would not authorize munitions of war to be brought into the State; or can there be much better evidence than this last named proclamation affords, that the President regards the rebellion ended within her borders?

On the 2d day of September, 1865, "General Orders No. 88," issued from the headquarters of the Department of Alabama, by the direction of the respondent, Major-General Charles R. Woods. In these "Orders" the rebellion is spoken of as a thing of the past, and, *totidem verbis*, the restoration of the authority of the United States over the late rebellious States, is an-

nunciated with much emphasis, and it is therein also declared that in every county of the State of Alabama, "Judges and Sheriffs have been appointed, and are, and for weeks have been in the exercise of their functions." And yet this same military commander, on the 22d day of November, 1865, as an excuse for his refusal to obey the process of the Courts of the United States, says, "The writ of *habeas corpus* is suspended in the State of Alabama!"

On the 28th day of October, 1865, the President of the United States issued a proclamation to the people thereof, appointing "the first Thursday of December next, as a day of National Thanksgiving to the Creator of the Universe" for the deliverances of the American people from the terrible calamities of domestic strife. In one of the preambles to this proclamation these words occur: "It has pleased Almighty God, during the year which is now coming to an end, to relieve our beloved country from the fearful scourge of civil war, and to permit us to secure the blessings of peace, unity, and harmony."

The President of the United States, and, in virtue of his office, the Commander-in-Chief of its army and navy, thus officially announces the restoration of domestic tranquillity.

In a letter dated at Washington, on the 10th day of the present month of November, the Lieutenant-General of the United States writes over his own signature as follows: "However we may have differed from our Southern brethren in the events of the last four years, we have now become one people, and with but one interest." This language of the Nation's chosen Military Chieftain, certainly does not favor the idea that Gen. Grant knows of the existence of such a state of public disorder as would justify the suspension of the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* in Alabama.

There being then neither "invasion" nor "rebellion" to menace "the public safety," it follows that the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* cannot now be suspended, and the citizen must be fully protected in his right to invoke its aid.

The case of the petitioner comes within the principles I have stated; and even if it were true that the proclamation of the 15th of September, 1863, is still in force here, this case is not within the class of cases or persons against whom the privilege of the writ was suspended by that proclamation. In his petition, the allegations of which are not controverted, he states that he is not, and has not been for any time, or in any manner, connected with the land or naval forces, or the militia, when called into the military service of the United States; that he is a "citizen of the State of Massachusetts, and has never voluntarily given any aid, countenance, support, or adhesion to any government, power, authority, constitution, or cause, inimical or hostile to the United States; but has been habitually and steadily loyal to them and to their cause and government." That in May last he "came to the State of Alabama as Supervising Special Agent of the Treasury of the United States," under certain acts of Congress, and that he performed the duties of such office until about the first day of November, 1865. That on the 7th day of November instant, he was arrested by the order of Major-General Charles R. Woods, commanding the United States forces at Mobile. That no affidavit accusing him of crime has ever been made, and no warrant for his arrest issued by any magistrate having jurisdiction of offences against the laws. That he has had no hearing, and has not been informed of the nature of the charge against him; but that he is enabled to state that "it arises entirely upon some supposed misfeasance or non-feasance of duty in his office of Supervising Agent of the Treasury Department. That he offered bail for his appearance before any Court having jurisdiction of the alleged offence, which was refused by the military commander."

Such in substance and often in terms, is the petition upon which the writ was issued, and upon the

assumption of the truth of the matters therein set forth, this case presents some very remarkable features.

In this connection it is proper to observe that on the hearing of the matter the counsel for the petitioner filed with the papers herein, what purported to be the charges and specifications against the petitioner, served upon him after the allowance of the writ. That these are not under oath, but merely subscribed by Hunter Brooks, as Provost Marshal of Mobile, and that all of these charges and specifications are only accusatory of the petitioner as an appointee of the Government to an office, which, by no possible construction, can be held military or naval in its character, and for malefascance in which, he is not, in any degree, liable to military discipline.

I have already adjudged the return made to this writ by Brevet Major-General Charles R. Woods as wholly insufficient, and directed this respondent to make a fuller return. This he refuses to do. The responsibility of breaking the laws of the land is his, and the consequences of his contumacy must be borne by him. My own duty in the premises is easily discharged. It is my office to determine whether the petitioner is or not, unlawfully restrained of his liberty. In the present case I have no doubt that his imprisonment is unlawful, and I decide that the petitioner, Thomas C. A. Dexter, is entitled to, and must be discharged from the custody and restraint of the respondent Woods, and from all military custody and restraint. But in view of the fact that no appointment of a United States Attorney for this District of Alabama has yet been made, and having before me these accusations of a grave offence alleged to have been committed by the petitioner against the United States, I order and direct that Brevet Major-General Charles R. Woods forthwith bring the said Thomas C. A. Dexter before me, to the end that he may give bail, with sufficient sureties, in such sum as shall be fixed by this Court for his appearance in the Southern District, at such times and places therein as he shall be required by either the United States Judge, or the United States District Attorney for this District, to answer any complaint or indictment which may be preferred against him touching the matters alleged in the charges and specifications served on him by Provost Marshal Hunter Brooks, and which are on file in this Court.

An attachment against Gen. Woods was issued and served, and the following answer made thereto on the next morning:

To the Hon. Richard Busted, U. S. District Judge:

The undersigned, Charles R. Woods, in the military service of the United States, and Brevet Major-General of volunteers, commanding the Department of Alabama, in answer to an attachment issued against him by your Honor, and served upon him by the United States Marshal, and returnable this 11th day of December, 1865, respectfully says:

That no further proceedings under the said writ of attachment should be had against him, because he says there has not been at any time any intention upon his part to treat with disrespect the authority or process of the Courts of the United States or the Judge thereof.

That the first return made by the undersigned to the writ of *habeas corpus* issued to him to produce the body of the said T. C. A. Dexter before your Honor, was intended to be such a compliance with the exigence of said writ as would discharge the duty that the undersigned owed to his military superiors, and also to the laws of the land.

As it respects the second return made by the undersigned to said writ he says, that before it was ordered to be made, a military commission had been convened for the trial of the said T. C. A. Dexter, and the said return was intended to convey respectfully to the Court the official knowledge of this fact, and was not in any way intended to be disrespectful to the Judge presiding.

The undersigned further says, that he believed himself fully justified in his refusal to produce the body of the said T. C. A. Dexter in Court, or to stay the proceedings of the military commission, so convened by him as aforesaid, and if he had acted otherwise, would have violated his duty of obedience to the orders of the President of the United States and Major-General George H. Thomas, commanding the Military Division of the Tennessee.

The undersigned here annexes a copy of the orders under which he is acting in this matter, and produces now here the originals of said orders, for the inspection of the Court.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

CHAS. R. WOODS, Brevet Maj.-Gen.

HEADQUARTERS, NASHVILLE, — 15.

Brevet Lieut.-Col. Hunter Brooks:

I send you the following telegram from the President of the United States, for your information and instruction in the investigation into the alleged frauds, committed by pretended Treasury agents and officers of the army. Send your report through General Woods:

WASHINGTON, August 14, 1865.

To Maj.-Gen. Thomas, Nashville:

I have been advised that innumerable frauds are being practised by persons assuming to be Treasury agents, in various portions of Alabama, in the collecting of cotton, pretended to belong to the Confederate Government. I also understand that they are connected with the commander of post at Montgomery. I hope you will appoint some efficient officer under your command to proceed, and examine, and ascertain the facts, and if any parties shall be found, whether connected with the Treasury or Military, that you will deal with them in the most summary manner, and report the names of the persons engaged in each transaction and each case. Mr. Dillon, Treasury Agent, will be in town in a few days, and will confer with you upon that subject, and especially Gen. Hatch, at Montgomery.

(Signed)

ANDREW JOHNSON.

President United States.

Official and true copy.

FRED. H. WILSON, Ass't. A. G. Gen'l Dep't Ala.

JACKSON, MISS., Nov. 21, 1865.

Maj.-Gen. Chas. R. Woods, Commanding:

You are right to decline to give up Dexter. He is now being tried strictly in accordance with the law of third of March, 1865.

Official and true copy.

(Signed)

GEO. H. THOMAS, Maj.-Gen.

FRED. H. WILSON, Ass't Adj't Gen'l Dep't Ala.

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, Nov. 26, 1865.

Maj.-Gen. Geo. H. Thomas:

The Commission having Dexter's case under consideration, will proceed to make a thorough and speedy examination of his case, and make such decision as the proof will justify.

If Gen. Thomas left Mobile, forward this despatch to Gen. Woods.

(Signed)

ANDREW JOHNSON,

President United States.

Official and true copy.

FRED. H. WILSON, Ass't Adj't Gen'l Dep't Ala.

This paper was read amid the profound attention of the audience. On the conclusion of its reading, the Court inquired of Mr. Andrews whether he had any motion to make. The counsel then briefly adverted to the circumstances of the case, and said he scarcely knew what motion to make in the premises. That he thought the best disposition that could be made of the whole matter was to leave it to the discretion and control of the Court, confident that whatever judgment was rendered

would be a wise adjustment of the vexed questions.

Judge Busted thereupon delivered the following opinion:

The answer of Gen. Woods to the warrant of attachment issued in this matter is satisfactory. Situated as this officer is, and with the explanations offered for his course, he ought to be excused for his refusal to obey the mandate of the Court. The first duty of a soldier is obedience to orders, and it now appears General Woods has acted in strict and disciplinary subordination to those who have a lawful right to require his literal compliance with their commands. For this he should be praised by them rather than censured by me. The attachment against him will therefore be vacated, and without costs. But while acquitting Gen. Woods, I cannot, even by implication, consent to what I consider an encroachment of the Executive Department of the Government upon one of its coordinate branches. It is worse than useless for the Courts to attempt the exercise of their functions if the President not only allows but directs disobedience to their authority and process.

In the language of a learned juriconsult: "The citizen lives under the protection and is subject to the requirements of a written fundamental law. No department of the National or any State Government can lawfully act otherwise than according to the powers conferred or the restrictions imposed by that instrument. If the citizen believes himself to be aggrieved by some action of either government which he supposes to be in violation of the Constitution, and his complaint admits of judicial investigation, he must be heard on that question, and it must be adjudicated, or there can be no administration of the laws worthy of the name of justice."

I frankly own the embarrassment put upon me by the action of the President in this case. His proclamation of July, 1865, appointing a Provisional Governor for this State, *inter alia*, provides that the District Judge of the United States shall proceed to hold courts in this State, in accordance with the acts of Congress.

Before I left New York, in November last, I agreed with Gov. Parsons, who was then in that city, about to go to Washington, that he should inform the President of my purpose to open the courts, and that if in the opinion of the President it was not discreet to do so, upon my receiving a telegram to that effect from Gov. Parsons, directed to me at Mobile, I would postpone holding them until such time as the President should determine the civil authority might, with advantage to the public interests, be put in course of exercise here. I deemed it my duty, as it was my pleasure, to secure, so far as I could, the utmost harmony of action between the various departments of the Government.

Upon my arrival in Mobile, I received a telegram from Gov. Parsons, dated at Washington, which runs as follows:

"To the Hon. Richard Busted:

"The courts will be held.

"LEWIS E. PARSONS,

"Provisional Governor."

I presumed this telegram was transmitted after consultation with the President, and at once prepared to discharge such of the duties of my office as might be required. Application was shortly afterwards made to me to issue a writ of *habeas corpus* in the case of a person who, it was alleged, was wrongfully imprisoned by the military authorities at this city. The petition in the matter makes out as clear a case for relief as can be imagined, and I allowed the writ. The officer upon whom it was served refused to obey its requirements, on the ground that he had express instructions from his military superiors to assume and maintain jurisdiction in the case. Various judicial orders followed the granting of the writ, all of

which were disregarded. None of the allegations in the petition were controverted, and at this hour their truth remains upon the records of this court wholly unchallenged.

These, taken as admitted, left me no option as to my course. I was obliged to and did order the discharge of the petitioner from military arrest, but, to save the Government harmless, directed his transfer to the civil authorities, to the end that he might be put under sufficient recognizances to answer any indictment or complaint which might be preferred against him. This order was also disregarded, and the petitioner's counsel then moved for a writ of attachment against Gen. Woods, which was issued accordingly, and was made returnable in two weeks from the date of its allowance. In the interim I saw Gov. Parsons at Montgomery, who informed me that before the telegram was sent to which I have referred, he conversed with the President, and told him of our interview in New York, and that I was on my way to this State to hold the National Courts as directed by the act of Congress, and that the President expressed the opinion that it was proper for me to do so.

This summary brings us to the answer of Gen. Woods to the writ of attachment, read and filed this morning. From this answer and the papers annexed to it, and the proceedings herein, four things are now made distinctly apparent. First, it appears that the original arrest and imprisonment of the petitioner was by virtue of a direct order of the President himself without the intervention of the chief or any officer in any of the executive departments. The telegram under which the arrest was made is signed "Andrew Johnson, President of the United States." Secondly, it appears that the continuance of the petitioner's imprisonment, although pronounced to be unlawful by the courts, is by express personal instructions from the President. His telegram to Gen. Thomas, in reply, I presume, to one sent him touching this case, is also signed "Andrew Johnson, President of the United States." Thirdly, it appears that Gen. Woods should not be held to answer criminally in this case, for refusing obedience to the writ of *habeas corpus*. Fourthly, it appears that the imprisonment of Dexter is not for any of the causes in respect of which, and that he is not himself one of the persons as against whom the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* has ever been suspended. If he is guilty as alleged, his offence is malversation in a purely civil office, and it will hardly be contended that the public safety now requires the trial of an offence against the Treasury to be by a military tribunal. Courts-martial are the necessary, but mere adjuncts of a war establishment. Civil judicatories are the appropriate and chosen tribunals established by law, not more for the punishment of the guilty, than the protection of the innocent.

It is under the circumstances thus briefly recapitulated, that this unseemly conflict between the military and the civil authorities has been provoked. I claim exemption from any responsibility for it. And as in our land, no public man and official station is or ought to be beyond the public watchfulness, and as with us, all place and power are held in trust for the people, I deem it due alike to them and to myself, to make the foregoing statements of fact. And upon behalf of the judicial office, I respectfully protest against the act of the President, and assert that the trial of the petitioner Dexter cannot lawfully proceed in any other than the way established, and according to the forms prescribed in the Constitution of the United States; a scrupulous reverence for, and obedience to which, is at once the knightliest and most patriotic service that either citizen or government can render to the country.

The following proclamation, restoring the writ in some portions of the United States, was issued on December 1st:

Whereas, by the proclamation of the President of the United States of the fifteenth day of December, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* in certain cases therein set forth was suspended throughout the United States; and whereas the reasons for that suspension may be regarded as having ceased in some of the States and Territories;

Now, therefore, be it known that I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, do hereby proclaim and declare that the suspension aforesaid and all other proclamations and orders suspending the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* in the States and Territories of the United States, are revoked and annulled, excepting as to the States of Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas, the District of Columbia, and Territories of New Mexico and Arizona.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed. Done at the city of Washington this 1st day of December, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five, and of the Independence of the United States of America the ninetieth.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President:

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, Secretary of State.

(See MILITARY COMMISSIONS.)

HAGANY, Rev. JOHN B., D. D., a Methodist clergyman, born in Wilmington, Delaware, August 26, 1808, died in New York, June 28, 1865. He united with the Methodist Church about the year 1828, and commenced the work of an itinerant minister in 1831. In the following year he was received into the Philadelphia Annual Conference, and was stationed at Port Deposit, Maryland. From 1833 to 1850 he was stationed successively at Elkton, Md., Easton, Md., Burlington, N. J., Kensington, Pa., Pottsville and Minersville, Pa., Philadelphia, Ebenezer, Middletown, and Cantrell's Bridge, Delaware, and at Trinity, Philadelphia. In 1851 he was transferred to the New York Conference, and stationed at Vestry St., New York city, and subsequently at Mulberry St. In 1856 he was at Yonkers, and in 1858 was transferred to New York East Conference and stationed at Sands Street, Brooklyn. In 1860 and '61 he was transferred to the New York Conference and stationed at St. Paul's, afterwards at Bedford Street, and finally at Thirtieth Street, New York, where he closed his labors. In this protracted ministry of thirty-three years he was signally blessed. To him the ministry was not a profession, but a divine vocation. His familiarity with the elder and greater writers of Methodism was a constant surprise to all who knew him, and his apt quotations from Wesley or Fletcher showed that the writings of these great founders had been wrought closely into the texture of his thinking. His studies in the literature of the last century gave character to all his ministrations, imparting to them a finish which contributed largely to his success. On the last Sunday of his life, he preached to his congregation from the text, "Let me die the death of the righteous, and let my last end be like his." Not having finished his discourse, he announced that he would conclude it the next time he preached. The fol-

lowing Wednesday, while reading a portion of a published sermon to his wife, he dropped the book, and, leaning his head upon his hand, expired.

HALIBURTON, Hon. THOMAS CHANDLER (Sam Slick), a well-known English author, died at Isleworth, aged 68 years. He was born at Windsor, Nova Scotia; was educated at King's College, and admitted to the bar in 1820. He was elected a member of the House of Assembly, and in 1829 was appointed Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas. In 1840 he became a judge of the Supreme Court, but two years after resigned the office and went to England, where the remainder of his life was passed. In 1859 he was elected Member of Parliament for the borough of Launceston, which he continued to represent on Conservative principles until the dissolution of Parliament in July, 1865, when, owing to the infirm state of his health, he was not a candidate for reelection. He was a frequent and fluent speaker, but was more widely known by his writings both in Europe and America. His earliest literary undertaking was a series of letters entitled "Lucubrations of Sam Slick, the Clockmaker," which he contributed, in 1835, to a weekly newspaper of Nova Scotia, exhibiting, in a tone of good-natured railery, peculiar features of the Yankee character. These letters were subsequently collected in a volume, and they have been several times reprinted. Soon after his settlement in England he produced a second series, under the title of "The Attaché; or, Sam Slick in England," in which British society is amusingly depicted; and to this a third series was eventually added, but its success was not so great as that of the earlier volumes. Besides these, his best known works, Judge Haliburton published "Historical and Statistical Account of Nova Scotia;" "Letters to Lord Durham;" "Bubbles of Canada;" "The Letter-Bag of the Great Western;" "The Old Judge; or, Life in a Colony;" "Rule and Misrule of the English in America;" "Nature and Human Nature;" "Wise Saws;" etc. He also edited several works, including one on the "Settlement of New England." In 1858 Judge Haliburton received the degree of D. C. L. from the University of Oxford.

HAMBURG, a free city of Germany. According to the new constitution of 1861, the legislative power is vested in the Senate and the "Bürgerschaft" (Council of Burghers). The Senate consists of eighteen members, nine of whom must be lawyers, while of the other nine, at least seven must be merchants. The senators are elected for life; but they may tender a resignation after having served for six years. The Senate chooses annually among its own members a first and a second Burgomaster. First Burgomaster for 1865, Dr. F. Sieveking; second Burgomaster, A. W. Lutteroth-Legat. The "Bürgerschaft" consists of one hundred and ninety-two members, of whom eighty-four are chosen by the

general direct elections, and the others by different corporations. The new constitution grants full religious liberty and makes military duty obligatory on every citizen.

Hamburg has an area of one hundred and thirty-five square miles, and in 1860 a population of 229,941 inhabitants, of whom 175,688 lived in the city (184,023) and the two suburbs, St. George and St. Pauli. At the previous census of 1858, the population had been 222,379. In the "Budget" of 1865, the receipts and expenditures were estimated at 4,293,756 thalers. The public debt, on December 31, 1863, was 22,742,332 thalers. The contingent of Hamburg to the Federal army is 2,163. The value of imports* amounted, in 1864, to 773,016,770 marcs banco,† and in 1863 to 738,665,510. The movement of transmarine shipping in 1864, was as follows: Entered, 5,012 vessels, together of 465,909 lasts (1 last=6,000 pounds); cleared, 5,006 vessels, of 463,074 lasts. The merchant navy consisted, at the close of 1864, of 530 vessels of 79,380 lasts.

HAMLINE, LEONIDAS LENT, D. D., an ex-Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, born in Burlington, Hartford County, Conn., May 10, 1797, died at Mount Pleasant, Iowa, March 23, 1865. His parents were reputable members of the Congregational Church. His father, Mark Hamline, whose ancestors were French Huguenots, was remarkable for decision and energy of character, for moral integrity, and for his strong Hopkinsian views of Christian doctrine. He was a New England farmer on a small scale, teaching school a part of the year. It was a grief to him that his means did not justify educating this son according to his wishes. The parents of Mr. Hamline early designed him for the ministry, and shaped his education as far as possible to this end. Of his early life little can be said. He was very precocious, amiable, and obedient. His habit of intense study was formed very early. On arriving at the age of manhood his high standard of qualification for the Christian ministry was such, that he felt he had not an experience in the divine life that authorized his entering upon the duties of the holy ministry, as designed by his parents, and instead thereof studied law, and became an honorable member of the bar in Ohio. In 1828 he was impressed as never before with the solemn verities of the Christian faith, and from this time dated the period of his conversion. The same year he entered the ministry of the Methodist Episcopal Church. After a successful ministerial career in various parts of Ohio, under the direction of the conference of the M. E. Church, he was removed to Cincinnati, where, in the exercise of his clerical functions, and co-editor of the "Western Christian Advocate," and in 1840 as editor of

"The Ladies' Repository," he remained nearly eight years. His person was commanding, his voice musical, his manners engaging. In the pulpit he was self-restrained, self-possessed, and grave in his attitude, utterances, and tones, showing mingled humility and dignity. His style was faultless, but to say this is not enough, it was charming, it had clearness, energy, purity, and elegance. His sermons were finished. Of Bishop H. one of his peers says: "His rhetoric was faultless, his logic was carefully constructed, yet always sparingly, often brilliantly logic all ablaze. He rarely delivered a discourse which might not have been printed word for word as it fell from his lips, and safely submitted to the critical eye. His manners were courteous and his spirit kind, and although he often unbent, he never lost his dignity." In 1844 he was elected Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church. As a presiding and executive officer he was popular and successful, but under the pressure of disease and infirmities, which in his estimation disqualified him for the arduous duties and heavy responsibilities of the episcopacy, he resigned that position in 1852. Having an ample fortune he devoted his last years, as far as his health would allow, to literary and religious studies and the interests of the Church. Besides many other charities he devoted \$50,000 in one month to two colleges. He was the subject of much physical suffering during the last few years of his life, but his resignation to the Divine will, and expressions of holy trust, were often singularly triumphant and sublime. His last words were, "O children, this is wonderful agony, but it is nothing to what my Saviour endured for me on the cross."

HANOVER, a kingdom belonging to the German Confederation. King Georg V., born May 27, 1819, succeeded his father Ernst August on November 18, 1851. The area of the kingdom is 14,600 square miles; population, in 1861, 1,888,070, in 1864, 1,923,492; increase in three years, 1.88 per cent. According to their religious denominations, 1,584,767 belonged (in 1864) to the Lutheran Church, 98,010 to the Reformed, 226,009 to the Roman Catholic, 12,424 to Judaism, and 2,282 to different Christian sects. The capital is Hanover, which had, in 1864, 79,649 inhabitants. The receipts in the "Budget" of 1865-'66 were estimated at 20,786,950 thalers; the expenditures at 20,748,016 thalers; expected surplus, 38,879 thalers. The public debt, on January 1, 1864, amounted to 48,018,274 thalers. The regular army consists of 26,936 men. The merchant navy was composed in 1863 as follows:

	No.	Lasts*
Sea vessels.....	841	60,143
River vessels.....	2,765	80,733
Steamers.....	13	579
Total.....	3,618	91,450

* One last=6,000 pounds.

* From the United States 13,233,290; from Great Britain, 252,577,680 marcs banco.

† Banco means the value of money at a bank as distinguished from its current value. At Hamburg banco is worth about 23½ per cent. more than currency. A marc banco is equal to about thirty-five cents in United States money.

In the questions of German politics, the Government of Hanover sides usually with Austria and Prussia against the majority of the minor States.

HARMS, Rev. Louis, a Lutheran pastor and reformer, born in Hermannsburg, in the kingdom of Hanover, in 1823, died in that town in December, 1865. His father was pastor of Hermannsburg, a parish in one of the poorer districts of Hanover, surrounded by a barren heath, from which the poor farmers were accustomed to force a scanty living. The population numbered thirteen or fourteen thousand, and there was at least the usual amount of intemperance, and other vices, and pauperism in the community. Educated at the University of Heidelberg, he had been aroused from the spiritual deadness of the Orthodox Lutheranism of Hanover at that period, and though warmly and intensely attached to the doctrines and teachings of the Lutheran Church, he was determined, in his own ministry, to infuse into it a vigorous and earnest spiritual life. He succeeded to the pastorate of Hermannsburg on the death of his father in 1848, and from that time forward, though not possessing a vigorous constitution, he was one of the hardest working men in Europe. He prayed much and often. While other people were asleep at midnight, he was engaged in earnest prayer. He sought, above all things else, to reach the hearts of his people. For this purpose he studied their character, their language, and their habits, and their temptations. His sermons made little parade of learning and did not smack of the University. They were plain, simple expositions of Scripture in the language and adapted to the understanding of the common people; and his illustrations and imagery, though pure and chaste, were drawn from the events and objects of every-day life. In this mastery of the language of the common people he greatly resembled Martin Luther. Everybody understood him, and he knew the road to every one's heart. He preached often and long, sometimes two hours, and often three times a day; yet no one seemed to weary. His large church was always crowded, aisles and all. Many would stand during the whole service for want of room. His sermons were like mirrors, in which the people saw themselves portrayed in their true character, and often in a light which would cause them to weep. He had also evening services during the week, for the study of the Scriptures, something entirely new in Hanover, and these were as fully attended as the services on Sunday.

This was no sudden excitement or excess of labor to be followed by a season of apathy and sluggishness. He was a man of great thoroughness and system, and whatever he undertook he carried forward with the utmost resolution and persistence throughout his whole career. Having showed his people their sins, and led them to repent and break off from them, he watched over them, and brought them constantly under

such influences as would serve to keep them in the right way. He was specially earnest and careful in the training of the young. His parochial school was a model of organization, and both in its intellectual and religious training was surpassed by no school in Hanover, and perhaps by none in Germany. He often examined the children on religious subjects himself, and with a thoroughness and insight into their characters which was very remarkable. His profound scholarship, especially on Biblical topics, exhibited itself by its results rather than by any parade of learning.

As a result of his extraordinary zeal and his abundant labors, it was stated in 1862, fourteen years after he commenced his pastorate, that there was not a house in Hermannsburg where there was not regular family worship, morning and evening; there were no absences from church unless in consequence of sickness, and there was not a drunkard, pauper, or habitually vicious person in the town. But the most extraordinary of Pastor Harms' labors were those connected with the foreign missions established by him in the southeastern coast of Africa. In 1849 he became convinced that the spiritual life and advancement of his flock demanded religious labor outside of the boundaries of their parish, and he began to preach on the duty of bearing the gospel to the heathen. Some twelve of his own parishioners offered themselves as missionaries, when they should have undergone suitable instruction and training. Pastor Harms' brother, also a minister, undertook their training, and a house was set apart for them, which became thenceforth, in some sort, a theological seminary. Others soon after volunteered for the work, and were received. The next point to be settled was the selection of a missionary field, and after some correspondence with the missionary societies of the Continent, none of which seemed fully to sympathize with his enterprise or purposes, he resolved to establish an independent mission, and at first fixed upon the fierce tribes of Eastern Central Africa, as those most in need of the humanizing and Christianizing influence of missionary labor. It was necessary to engage a passage for his missionaries, and the necessary implements of industry and such household comforts as they required. The missionaries were but few of them preachers, the remainder being teachers, artisans, farmers, etc., whose principal qualifications for the work were devoted piety and earnest zeal for the culture and moral and religious improvement of the savages among whom their lot might be cast. Hermannsburg is an inland town on the Lünenburger heath, and they were compelled to resort to the great port of Hamburg in the hope of obtaining a passage to the desired scene of their labors. As they could find no vessel bound to that portion of the East African coast, or willing to take them thither, Pastor Harms thought it best to build a ship of their own. They did so, and on the 28th of October, 1853, the first party of missionaries set

sail for their field of labor. On arriving off the coast of Zanzibar, they found the Portuguese authorities unwilling to show them any favor, and the native tribes so ferocious, that they were compelled to seek elsewhere for a field of labor. They finally landed on the southeast coast of Africa, among the Caffres, near the Zulu country. Here for a time they had a severe struggle. The native language was difficult to acquire, and the natives themselves either hostile or insolent; but in the end the patience, perseverance, and piety of the simple-hearted Hermannsburgers won the day. They have now besides their principal station, which they have named New Hermannsburg, fifteen or more out-stations, and about two hundred in all of the parishioners of Pastor Harms have migrated thither. Large numbers of the natives have gathered into villages and come under the influences of civilization, and many of them have become Christians. This mission, though on many accounts an expensive one, requiring from \$30,000 to \$50,000 a year for its support, was wholly sustained through the efforts of Pastor Harms. All his people were accustomed to contribute toward it according to their means, and a small amount was received from voluntary donations from abroad. To diffuse information on missionary subjects among his people and afford a ready channel of communication between them and their foreign missionaries, Pastor Harms established a monthly missionary periodical called *Missionsblatt*, which he edited, and which attained a circulation of 14,000 copies per annum. But his excessive labors proved too severe for his enfeebled frame, and for the last three years he had been affected by frequent illnesses, which eventually proved fatal.

HAYTI, a negro republic in the West Indies, occupying the west portion of the island of San Domingo, and divided from the Dominican republic on the east by an irregular line drawn from the mouth of the river Anses-à-Pitre or Pedernales, on the south coast to that of the river Massacre, which flows into the bay of Manzanilla, on the north coast. Its territory, corresponding to that of the ancient French colony, extends between latitude 17° 55' and 19° 55' north, and longitude 71° 52' and 74° 38' west, and, including the islands of Tortuga, Gonaïve, etc., contains 10,091 square miles, divided into six departments, subdivided into arrondissements and communes. The population is estimated at about 700,000. The chief towns are Port au Prince, Cape Haytien, Gonaïves, Cayes, Jacmel, and Jeremie. Port au Prince, or Port Republicain, is the capital and principal seaport. It is situated at the head of the bay of Gonaïve, and has about 25,000 inhabitants. Gonaïves, sixty-five miles northwest, is situated at the northeast extremity of the same bay. Cape Haytien, or Cape Français, is the principal port on the north coast. Jacmel and Cayes are the chief ports on the south and Jeremie on the north shore of the southwest peninsula; and on

the same peninsula are found Baint, St. Louis, and Tiburon, the last at the extreme southwest of the island, and facing on the bay of Gonaïve, the ports of Goave and Bon. St. Nicholas is situated at the extremity of a deep bay formed by the cape of the same name and the mainland of the northwest peninsula.

The government of the republic is based on the constitution of 1843; the sovereign power is recognized to be in the people, and is exercised through an elected President. The Legislature or National Assembly consists of a Chamber of Commons and a Senate, the former composed of one or more representatives from each commune, elected for five years, and the latter of six members from each department, elected for nine years. At present the number of Senators is thirty-six, and that of Representatives fifty. The judicial power is vested in a high court of cassation, being the highest tribunal of appeals, with superior courts in the capitals of departments, and subsidiary and primary courts in the arrondissements and communes.

President of the Republic: Gen. N. F. Geffard, elected 1858.

In the budget for 1864 the receipts were estimated at 38,710,800 (Haytien) dollars,* and the expenditures at 37,331,811; surplus, 1,378,989.

The commerce of the island during the years from 1860 to 1863 was as follows (value in piastres fortes):

	Imports.	Exports.
1860	8,787,000	8,682,900
1861	8,938,468	8,523,000
1862	10,456,745	11,728,690
1863	9,986,642	14,748,000

The imports from the United States were, in 1863, 46 per cent., and those from Great Britain 30 per cent. of the whole amount.

The movement of shipping was, in the years from 1861 to 1863, as follows:

	1861.		1862.		1863.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Entered....	676	124,280	850	154,735	815	137,217
Cleared....	675	121,924	843	153,493	800	134,536
Total....	1,351	246,204	1,693	310,228	1,615	271,753

In the beginning of May, 1865, an insurrection broke out in the northern part of the republic, at the head of which was Gen. Turin Salnavet. On May 9th a provisional government was organized, and on May 10th the rebels took possession of Cape Haytien without opposition from the government troops, not a gun being fired by either party. The towns of Gonaïves and St. Mary were also taken by

* Haytien dollars (*gourdes*) are paper money of changing value. In 1863, 12.25 Haytien dollars were equal to one piastre forte—one Prussian thaler, or sixty-nine cents in American money.

* Turin Salnavet, in July, 1864, had attempted to assassinate one of President Geffard's ministers. He was condemned to death by a court-martial, but escaped to San Domingo.

the rebels. On May 20th President Geffrard issued a proclamation granting complete amnesty to the inhabitants of the northern and northwestern provinces, including all officers and men belonging to the military or naval forces who might surrender to the legitimate authorities, the members of the provisional government being alone excluded from the benefits of the amnesty. The sections continuing in rebellion against the government were by the same proclamation declared in a state of siege, subject to martial-law, and to be considered as public enemies. In another proclamation, dated May 27th, the President appealed earnestly to the people and the military to use every effort to speedily crush the rebellion.

Soon two columns of rebels abandoned their leaders and went to the ranks of Gen. Papailleur, commanding the government forces; their renewed allegiance being signified by enthusiastic cheers for President Geffrard. Gen. Marisset, commanding a force of loyal troops, in advancing to attack the town of Plaisance, held by the rebels, was met by a white flag and cheers for Geffrard; and interpreting these symptoms as the preliminaries to the submission of the insurgents, he proceeded with a few men in advance of his corps to receive the seeming flag of truce, when the rebel party fired upon him, killing him instantly. Infuriated by this act of treachery, the national forces charged upon the rebels, and speedily routed them with great slaughter.

At the beginning of June the rebels, everywhere defeated, were shut up in the town of Cape Haytien. All the members of the provisional government soon disappeared, except Gen. Salnave, who kept the city at the head of about six hundred men until November. He captured one of the best blockading steamers, which occurrence greatly increased his power of resistance.

On October 23d the insurgents had a naval engagement with the British gunboat Bulldog. Some Haytiens had taken refuge in the British consulate at Cape Haytien; and the chief of the insurgents demanded that they should be given up to him. A refusal was returned by the consul, but they were taken by force from the consulate, and immediately shot. The Bulldog lying in the port, her commander, Capt. Wake, made remonstrances, which were treated with insolent neglect. He then opened fire on one of the forts, but his ship ran aground during the engagement; and he was compelled to blow her up, and to escape with his crew in his boats to a steamer belonging to President Geffrard's government.

This accident hastened the end of the rebellion. On the 7th of November the British steamers Lily and Galatia arrived from Jamaica, bringing the English Consul General, St. John, from Port au Prince. The rebel leaders, fearing the probable object of their visit, at once sent commissioners on board to learn what conditions were to be proposed to them. These

were none other than the immediate delivery of Gen. Salnave and Mr. Delorme, their head and front. Knowing full well the fate reserved for them, it could hardly be supposed these leaders would voluntarily give themselves up. So they declined the honor, but at the same time replied that as they were unable to offer any resistance, they would quietly give up the city. All efforts at conciliation having failed, fire was opened on the morning of the 9th from both steamers on the water batteries and all the forts held by the rebels, which were soon demolished. After some three hours' bombardment of Fort Madeleine, it was assaulted by Geffrard's troops, and taken without bloodshed, the garrison having evacuated it the night previous, after spiking the guns. All the other forts had been abandoned at the same time, and the guns spiked. Gen. Salnave, having made up his mind at once of the hopelessness of his position, as soon as he learned that the British guns were to be turned upon him, wished to give his devoted adherents a chance to seek their safety in flight and to do the same himself. Together with most of the leaders, he took refuge on board of the American steamer De Soto, which conveyed them to the neighboring Dominican port of Monte Christi.

During the bombardment, and before Geffrard's troops entered the city, some desperate characters set fire to the principal quarters, and all the most valuable retail shops and dwellings around the market and in the Rue Espagnole were soon reduced to ashes. They also tried to destroy the foreign warehouses on the sea-side, but without success, as these were saved from fire, though not from pillage, having been mostly broken open and plundered of every thing they contained, particularly the houses of such persons whose occupants were known to be hostile to the rebellion. These were completely gutted, furniture of every description being thrown into the streets and broken up by the mob.

In opening the Chambers, President Geffrard delivered an interesting speech, in which, after recapitulating various projected reforms, he mentioned the following facts with regard to education: "Public instruction has received fresh developments. A small theological college, where superior education is imparted, has been founded at Port au Prince. At the same time two establishments have been created which promise happy results: one is a school directed by the Brothers of Christian Instruction; and the other a school conducted by the Sisters of the Order of St. Joseph de Cluny. These two institutions have about 300 scholars. Our other scholastic establishments have been augmented to the number of eighteen new schools, and the number of scholars from 14,600 has been increased to 15,697. In Europe we have eighteen students in the colleges at Paris and Versailles, and twenty placed in a grand theological college. The Haytien people, the guide of the African race in the paths of civili-

zation, is destined to prove to the other nations that the descendants of that race are not inferior to the other races disseminated on the face of the globe."

HERRING, JOHN FREDERIC, an English painter, born in Surrey in 1795, died at Tunbridge, Kent, September 23, 1865. His father was a London tradesman, an American by birth. From an early age young Herring displayed a taste for painting, but his juvenile efforts were confined to the filling in of coach panels and shop sign-boards. The first impulse toward that department of art in which he obtained so much success, was given in the enthusiasm with which he witnessed a race for the St. Leger, at Doncaster, to which he went at the age of eighteen in search of employment. For several years after this the laborious occupation of a stage coachman, between Wakefield and Lincoln, and subsequently between London and York, was varied by assiduous application in the portraiture of the animal he drove; and so successful was he in this, that at the instigation of friends he was led to devote himself entirely to art, and obtained in a short time a name and reputation in animal painting second to no artist in England. For thirty years he took the portraits of the winners of the Doncaster St. Leger, and painted a large number of racers and racing scenes for eminent patrons of the turf. He painted for the Queen some of her favorite horses, and executed similar commissions for exalted personages in foreign countries. Mr. Herring's paintings have been extensively engraved, and his popularity has been much increased thereby. Among the number may be mentioned "The Members of the Temperance Society," "The Baron's Charger," "Feeding," "The Country Bait," "The Farmer's Pet," "Quiétude," "Duncan's Horses," and "Pharaoh's Chariot Horses."

HESSE. The name of three German States. I. The Electorate of Hesse-Cassel. Elector: Friedrich Wilhelm I., born August 20, 1802, succeeded his father, Wilhelm II., on November 20, 1847. The area of the Electorate is 4,480 square miles. It is divided into four provinces: Lower Hesse, Upper Hesse, Fulda, and Hanau. The population was, in 1861, 738,476; and, in 1864, 745,063; increase during three years, 0.89 per cent. The capital is Cassel, with (1864) 40,228 inhabitants. The annual receipts are estimated in the "Budget," for the financial period from 1864 to 1866, at 5,108,310 thalers; the expenditures at 5,452,980 thalers.

In no part of Germany has the conflict between the Government and the people been more animated and protracted than in Hesse-Cassel. On December 31, 1864, the Diet, with all votes save two, declared themselves bound by their oaths, in case there should be no improvement in the public affairs, to protect the country against a further neglect of its welfare.

As the Elector has entered into a morganatic marriage, and his children have therefore no right

of succession, the Electorate will after his death fall to a branch line.

II. The Grand-duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt. Grand-duke: Ludwig III., born June 9, 1806, succeeded his father on June 16, 1848. The country is divided into three provinces: Upper Hesse, Starkenburg, and Rhine-Hesse. Area: 8,761 square miles. Population in 1861, 856,907; in 1864, 853,315. As to religion, in 1861, 599,563 were members of the United Evangelical Church; 224,038 Roman Catholics; 28,999 Jews; 4,307 members of other denominations. Capital, Darmstadt, 29,225; largest city, Mainz, 42,704. Yearly receipts, as estimated in the "Budget" for the financial period from 1863 to 1865, 9,292,963 florins; yearly expenditures, 9,081,835. Surplus, 261,128. Public debt, exclusive of railroad debt, about 8,100,000 florins. The regular army consisted, in 1864, of 11,700 men. In questions of German politics, the Government of Hesse-Darmstadt went hand-in-hand with Bavaria and Saxony in opposing the policy of Austria and Prussia.

III. The Landgraveate of Hesse-Homburg: Landgrave Ferdinand, born April 26, 1783; succeeded his brother Gustav, on September 8, 1848. Area 135 square miles. Population, in 1864, 27,874, among whom there were 7,412 Lutherans; 4,950 Roman Catholics; 1,005 French Reformed; 694 German Reformed; 1,138 Jews. The receipts, in the "Budget" for 1865, are estimated at 500,520 florins; the expenditures at 441,166; expected surplus, 59,354 florins. The army consists of 866 men. Hesse-Homburg is the only State in Germany which has no constitution; the one formed in 1848 having again been abolished in 1852. After the death of the childless Landgrave, the little country will be united with Hesse-Darmstadt.

HETHERINGTON, WILLIAM M., D. D., LL. D., a clergyman of the Free Church of Scotland, born in Dumfriesshire, Scotland, died at Glasgow, May 23, 1865. In early life he worked as a gardener both in Scotland and England, which occupation he abandoned in order to prepare himself for the clerical profession, and this he did so effectually that he became exceedingly popular both as a preacher and a writer. Soon after being licensed to preach the Gospel, he was appointed assistant in Hamilton, to the late Dr. Meek, whose daughter he married. In 1836 he was presented by Lord Torphichen, to the parish of Torphichen, in Linlithgowshire, of which he was minister at the time of the disruption. In 1857 when the Assembly came to fill the chair of the Free College of Glasgow, called into existence by the munificence of Dr. Clark, of Wester Moffat, Dr. Hetherington was appointed, on the motion of Dr. Hanna, one of the professors of divinity, which charge he ably filled until laid aside by illness. For two sessions his lectures were read by clerical friends, with the approbation of the college committee; but there being no hope of ultimate recovery, the Assembly of 1864 made permanent provision for the

management of his class by the appointment of Dr. Islay Burns as his colleague and successor. Among his other labors, Dr. Hetherington acted as editor of the "Free Church Magazine," a periodical that enjoyed a wide and deserved popularity under his *régime*, from its commencement till about the year 1848 or 1849. He was the author of a "History of the Church of Scotland," a "History of the Westminster Assembly," and various other works.

HILDRETH, RICHARD, an American author, and late United States Consul at Trieste, born in Deerfield, Mass., June 22, 1807, died at Florence, Italy, July 11, 1865. His father was an eminent Congregational clergyman, and, at the period of his son's birth, was preceptor of the flourishing Academy in Deerfield. Being fitted for college at Phillips' Exeter Academy, his father having removed to that town, Richard graduated at Harvard in 1826, having proved himself a successful student of the prescribed course, without, however, entirely confining himself to it. Besides his extensive readings in history, political economy, and ethics, he became familiar with the whole body of Greek and Latin authors in their original languages. He then entered the office of Theophilus Parsons, afterwards Dane Professor in the Law School of Cambridge, where his remarkable power of close and long-continued application excited the astonishment of all who knew him. In 1827, during Mr. Hildreth's residence in Newburyport, his literary life took its commencement in a series of articles contributed to a magazine then lately started in Boston by Mrs. Sarah Jane Hale. Not long after he became a contributor to Willis' "Boston Magazine"—the first editorial experiment of that popular writer; and still subsequently to Joseph T. Buckingham's "New England Magazine."

In July, 1832, while practising the legal profession in Boston, he was induced to accept the post of editor of the "Boston Atlas," the exponent or organ of Rufus Choate, Caleb Cushing, and other rising politicians, who were then associated together, and for several years Mr. Hildreth's connection with the new paper gave it a decided preëminence among the political journals of New England. His articles were remarkable for the vehemence of their tone, the closeness of their reasoning, their elaborate historical illustrations, and the point and vigor of their diction. If strongly partisan in their spirit, it was impossible, with his earnest nature, to have been otherwise. His perceptions were clear, his convictions of an iron strength, and he hated compromise. His love of controversy was also innate and genuine; it had the force of a passion.

Ill health, in the autumn of 1834, compelled Mr. Hildreth to seek a residence on a plantation at the South, where he lived for about a year and a half, and wrote the story of "Archy Moore," subsequently, in 1852, republished in an enlarged form under the title of "The White Slave." During the summer of

1836 Mr. Hildreth employed his pen in translating from the French of Dumont a work under the title of "Bentham's Theory of Legislation." He also at the same time wrote a "History of Banks," and passing the winter of 1837-'38 in Washington as correspondent of the "Boston Atlas," returned to the editorial chair a warm supporter of the election to the Presidency of Gen. Harrison.

Abandoning journalism, Mr. Hildreth next published his "Despotism in America," and in 1840, for the benefit of his health, again had resort to a warmer climate. During a three years' residence at Demerara, in British Guiana, he acted successively as editor of two newspapers published in Georgetown, the capital of the country, and also found time to write his "Theory of Morals," published in 1844, as well as the "Theory of Politics," printed in 1853. Mr. Hildreth then turned his attention to completing his "History of the United States." This afforded him constant occupation for seven years, during which he wrote little else. The first volume was issued in 1849, and the entire work in the three succeeding years.

The composition of this work had been a favorite purpose with Mr. Hildreth for many years before its actual commencement. His study of American history, without reference to the original sources in public records and other manuscript authorities, had been extensive, if not profound; his habits of research were methodical and accurate; and his fidelity to what he deemed the true functions of the historian was vigilant and alert. Although, from perhaps a deliberate purpose, he had avoided all ornament and elegance in style, the work may justly be considered the most accurate, faithful, and well-digested history of the United States ever published. For several years previous to his acceptance of the consulship at Trieste, Mr. Hildreth was a resident of New York, and during that time was a frequent contributor to the columns of the "Tribune" and the "New American Cyclopædia," and the amount of literary drudgery which he performed while suffering from feeble health attests his singular mental vigor and activity. His industry was a perpetual marvel. With him, mental labor was not a recreation, but a passion. His memory was capacious and exact, and his knowledge of American politics, of legislation, and of legal decisions was both extensive and accurate. In his personal character, Mr. Hildreth had the credit of habitual austerity. He had no morbid love of gaining friends, no cowardly fear of making enemies, always expressing himself honestly without regard to consequences; still, to his intimate friends he daily revealed a disposition of true modesty and sweetness. Having busied himself in his comparatively leisure hours with the writing of his "Japan as it Was and as it Is," his health shortly afterwards entirely gave way, which, in addition to the severe attacks of mental depression to which he had always been subject, prostrated him

utterly. In 1861 he received the appointment of United States Consul at Trieste, being then by the dying bed of his eldest sister, through whose earnest and tender solicitations he was, after much doubt and fear, induced to accept the position, and left her grave to embark for Europe. His wife and son accompanied him, and under the sunny skies of Italy he for a time recovered a good measure of his former health. But it soon again gave way under the pressure of his official and still continued literary labors. During the summer of last year he became almost insane, and recovered his mental consciousness only to sink gradually away into the arms of death.

HILL, Lieut.-Gen. AMBROSE POWELL, an officer in the Confederate army, born in Culpepper County, Va., in 1824, killed in the assault on Petersburg, Va., April 2, 1865. His father was for many years a leading politician and merchant in Culpepper County. The future lieutenant-general entered the Military Academy in 1843, and graduated with fair standing in his class in 1847, in the same class with Gen. Burnside. There being no vacancy, he received the brevet rank of second lieutenant in the first artillery, and on the 22d of August of the same year attained a full second lieutenancy. He was promoted to be first lieutenant in September, 1851, and in 1855 to be captain. In November of that year he was appointed an assistant on the United States Coast Survey, in which he continued till March 1st, 1861, when he resigned his connection with the regular army; and when Virginia seceded from the Union, he sought and received an appointment from Gov. Letcher as colonel of the 13th regiment of Virginia volunteers. He was attached to Johnston's army, and stationed at first at Harper's Ferry, and in the battle of Manassas, or Bull Run, came in with Johnston's troops in season to turn the issue of the battle. At Williamsburg, in May, 1862, he held the rank of brigadier-general, and distinguished himself as a gallant fighter in that battle. For his bravery in this battle he was made major-general, and on the 25th of June, 1862, formed one of the council of war held in Richmond. He took part in the battle of Mechanicsville on the 26th of June, and in the succeeding battles of what is known as "The Seven Days," he was a prominent actor, and gained a brilliant reputation for bravery and skill in the handling of his troops. He was actively engaged in the battles of Cedar Run, or Cedar Mountain, in the Groveton or second Bull Run battle, in the attack near Centreville on the 30th of August, at Chantilly, and in the campaign before Washington, in which Gen. Pope was the Federal commander. On the 14th of September, 1862, he captured Harper's Ferry, and made a forced march to Antietam Creek, where he arrived in season to take part in that severe but indecisive battle, and on the 19th repulsed the Federal troops, who crossed the river in pursuit of the rebels, with heavy loss. In the

battle of Fredericksburg, December 13, 1862, his division formed the right of Jackson's force, and fought desperately, finally repulsing the Federal troops. At Chancellorsville, in May, 1863, his division formed the centre of Jackson's command, and participated in that flank movement by which Hooker's right was so effectually crushed. When "Stonewall" Jackson received his death wound, the command devolved on Gen. Hill, who was himself severely wounded soon after. For his gallantry in this battle he was made a lieutenant-general, and placed permanently in command of one of the three great corps into which the army of Virginia was divided. On the 1st, 2d, and 3d of July, 1863, he led his corps in the severe battle of Gettysburg, and though successful the first day, was unsuccessful on the second and third. In the autumn of 1863 he was concerned in the affair at Bristoe Station with a part of his corps, but was repulsed with serious loss. In the great battles of the spring of 1864, Gen. Hill was, next to Gen. Lee, the most prominent actor in the army of Virginia. On the 5th of May, from 2 P. M. till long after nightfall, he was engaged in a most desperate but indecisive conflict, and the early dawn would have found him in a position of extreme peril had not Longstreet's corps been brought up to reinforce him at 2 A. M. The fighting of the 6th of May was very severe, and in this Hill took a full share, but it was no more decisive than that of the previous day. In the movement toward Spottsylvania, Hill aided by his counsel, but his corps was not engaged. In the battle of Mechanicsville, Hill's corps sustained the brunt of the attack, and under his eye fought with great heroism. In the battle of the 3d of June, at Cold Harbor, the corps was at first in reserve, but supported the other corps before the battle was over. On the 22d of June his corps and Longstreet's repulsed the attempt of the Federal troops to gain possession of the Weldon Railroad, and drove them back with severe loss. At the explosion of the mine on the lines of Petersburg, on the 30th of July, in the engagement at Reams' Station, on the 25th of August, in the battle of Hatcher's Run, October 28-30, and the subsequent movements in that vicinity, in December, 1864, and February, 1865, Gen. Hill led his corps with great ability, and in almost every instance repulsed the Federal troops. When the final attack upon the South Side Railroad and the defences of Petersburg came (March 29-April 2), Gen. Hill was active and indefatigable in his exertions to repel the Federal attack, and on the 2d of April, for the possession of the works in front of Petersburg, his corps was opposed to the 6th, 9th, and part of the 25th Federal corps, almost single-handed, and then, as always, exposing himself to fire without hesitation, he was instantly killed by a rifle-shot, and as time was pressing, the evacuation of the city being determined upon, was buried the same day.

HOLLAND. (*See* NETHERLANDS).

HOLSTEIN. (*See* SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.)

HOOKER, Sir WILLIAM JACKSON, F. R. S., an eminent English botanist and Director of the Royal Gardens, born in Norwich, England, 1785, died at Kew, August 12, 1865. From his early boyhood he devoted himself to botanical pursuits, and with so much success that he was eventually appointed Regius Professor of Botany in the University of Glasgow, where he greatly endeared himself to the students, not only by his ability as a lecturer, but by his kind and genial disposition. With knapsack upon his back and a collecting case at his side, he practically taught his pupils the science he so much loved. In 1809 he visited Iceland, and gave subsequently an account of the botany of that region in his "Tour in Iceland." In 1832 he was removed to a wider sphere of usefulness, being appointed Curator of Kew Gardens, which he may almost be said to have created. In 1835 he was knighted, and in 1845 received the degree of D. C. L. from the University of Oxford, on the nomination of the Duke of Wellington, then the Chancellor. Besides innumerable articles in magazines and reviews, Sir William was the author of "The British Flora," "Flora Borealis Americana," "Icones Filicum," "Genera Filicum," "Musci Exotica," "Muscologia Britannica," etc., and

also the botanical portion of the work of Admiral Beechey's account of his voyage of discovery in the Arctic regions. Sir William Hooker was a member of nearly all the learned and scientific societies both upon the Continent and in America.

HUNGARY, a country of Europe, formerly an independent kingdom, subsequently united with Austria. Before 1849 Hungary embraced, in a constitutional sense, besides Hungary Proper, Croatia, Slavonia, and the Hungarian Litorale (coast land on the Adriatic), and in its widest acceptation also Transylvania, the Military Frontier, and Dalmatia, with an aggregate population of about 15,000,000. In 1849 all these dependencies were detached. Some counties of Hungary Proper were annexed to Transylvania, others were set apart to form the new crown land of the Servian Waywodeship and Banat, and the remainder was to form an Austrian crown land and province. In the most limited sense the crown land would have contained about 9,000,000 inhabitants.

The recent history of Hungary cannot be understood without an acquaintance with the diversity of the races inhabiting the countries belonging to the Hungarian crown. According to the last Austrian census of 1857, the race statistics of these countries were as follows:

	German.	Northern Slav.	Southern Slav.	West's Roumana.	Eastern Roumana.	Magyars.	Other Races.
Dalmatia.....			869,810	45,000			1,818
Hungary.....	1,221,714	2,087,817	598,625		1,171,676	4,388,987	456,943
Croatia and Slavonia.	24,470	6,590	811,757	487	50	12,770	7,689
Transylvania.....	200,364	1,768	880		1,104,829	517,577	102,812
Military frontier.....	83,400	9,320	865,377	400	140,326	4,000	2,349

It will be seen from this table that the Magyars are the predominant race, but that the combined non-Magyar nationalities have a large majority over the Magyars.

The year 1865 marks a turning-point in the relation of Hungary to Austria. The unflinching resistance of the Hungarians to the Diploma of October 20, 1860, and the Patent of February 26, 1861, by which the Government of Austria endeavored to consolidate all the crown lands into one empire, caused, at length, the Government to yield, to abandon the policy of centralization which had hitherto been pursued, and to enter upon a policy of federation, in accordance with the wishes of the Hungarians and most of the non-German crown lands. On September 20th, the Emperor published the celebrated Rescript, by which the efficiency of the Patent of February 26, 1861, was suspended. (*See* the text of the Rescript, under AUSTRIA.) Simultaneously with the Rescript the following documents were published for the more immediate use of the countries appertaining to the Hungarian crown:

Letter of Convocation.—We, Francis Joseph I., etc., etc., animated by the sincere desire for the happiness of our subjects, by strengthening with the royal unction the solemn coronation and promul-

gation of our royal diploma the ties uniting us to our dear kingdom of Hungary, we shall open anew the field presented to us by the possibility of deliberating with the estates and representatives of the country, and by passing with them salutary laws upon the affairs of our countries belonging to the crown of St. Stephen, our glorious apostolical predecessor, upon the just, equitable, and desirable solution of the pending political questions, and upon the assimilation of the constitutional rights of our dear kingdom of Hungary with the existence and unavoidable exigencies of the power of our empire. For this purpose, and also to deliberate according to the desire of our paternal heart, after the happy solution of the above-mentioned questions, upon others concerning the public welfare, the protection and promotion of the material and intellectual interests of the country, we convoke a general Diet in our royal free city of Pesth for the 18th December of this present year, and with God's help will open and direct it in person. In consequence of which, etc.

Rescript to the Royal Government of Hungary.—We, Francis Joseph I., etc., animated by the earnest desire of our paternal heart to bring about a happy solution of the constitutional questions and others of high importance, bound up with the material and moral welfare of our dear kingdom of Hungary, and which equally apply to the vital conditions of the entire monarchy and the interests of the country, we have convoked the Diet of Hungary for the 16th of December, 1865, in our royal free city of Pesth, and have resolved to apply the electoral law approved by our sanction of January 7, 1861. In virtue of our royal sovereign power, we allow the

committees of the counties and the representatives of the royal free towns, dissolved by our autograph letter of November 5, 1861, to meet in place of the county assemblies appointed by article 5 of the law of 1848, in order to form the electoral districts and the central electoral commissions. We therefore hereby desire you earnestly to take without delay all the legal measures necessary to carry out the elections.

Given at our capital of Vienna, September 18, 1865.

(Signed)

FRANCIS JOSEPH.

(Countersigned) GEORGE VON MAILATH.

At the recent electoral campaign, three parties were in the field. Firstly, the *Old Conservatives*, under the leadership of Zsedenyi, who, before 1848, went hand in hand with the Government against the Liberals and Radicals. The leader of the party thus defined the programme for the coming Diet:

1. The historical privileges and the integrity of the Hungarian crown must be upheld, and with them the rights of the Hungarian Diet.
2. The Diet must be completed in accordance with Law 5 of the year 1848 (it provides for a proper representation of the people), and with Law 7 (it relates to the union between Hungary and Transylvania).
3. As the laws of 1848 form the legal basis of the Hungarian Constitution, they can only be altered by the mutual consent of the crown and the nation.
4. The differences between Hungary and the other provinces of the empire must be settled in accordance with the stipulations of the Pragmatic Sanction.
5. There must be an independent and responsible Government.

Secondly, the liberal-constitutional or "Address-Party," under the leadership of Deak and Baron Eötvös. They received the latter name because they proposed and carried at the last Diet of 1861 an "address" to the "King" Franz Joseph, in which the latter was recognized as a ruler of Hungary, upon condition of his fulfilling the duties imposed upon him by the constitution of the country. Their chief organ is the Pesth "Naplo." The views of this party are thus explained by Baron Eötvös, in a speech to his constituents:

It is high time that Hungary should seriously endeavor to come to an understanding with her sovereign, but her representatives must be careful not to lose sight of three things: 1. They must not forget that Hungary with the *partes adnexa* (Transylvania, Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia) is a perfectly free and independent country. 2. They must strenuously uphold the fundamental principles of the Constitution, and take care that Hungary has as great a share as the other parts of the monarchy in the management of the general affairs of the empire. At the same time they must take care not to lose sight of the fact that Hungary, by means of the sovereign, is united to the other parts of the Empire. The very laws which guarantee our independence indissolubly unite Hungary and Austria, and the common interests of the inhabitants of the two countries render it necessary that they should live together in peace and harmony. 3. The representatives of the Hungarian nation must neither interfere with, nor infringe on, the constitutional rights of the inhabitants of the western part of the empire.

At a meeting of the leaders of this party, they designated the following as the chief features of their political programme:

There must needs be for the two countries (Austria and Hungary) one and the same minister for foreign affairs. The two countries must also have one and

the same minister of war, but the Hungarian Diet will only grant to the common army a number of recruits, which number will be determined during the next session. As Hungary cannot possibly allow the Austrian Reichsrath to legislate for her, the two countries cannot have one and the same chief of the finance department. Hungary will take on her shoulders a due share of the national debt, say about two-fifths of it, and will also annually contribute a certain sum toward the expenditure of the war department. There can be no question of the formation of a senate for the management of those matters which concern both countries, "as the Hungarian Diet must treat directly with the sovereign or his representative." The Hungarian laws of the year 1848 were drawn up in a great hurry, and require revision, "but the thing must be done in a legal way. That is, the laws must be changed by the Hungarian Diet, and not by means of an imperial patent. The Hungarian Diet will not be complete unless Transylvania be represented in it, that principality having been incorporated with Hungary in the year 1848."

The third of the political parties of Hungary is the Radical-constitutional or the "Resolution" Party, receiving the latter name from the circumstance that they proposed at the Diet of 1861, instead of an "address," a simple "resolution," plainly declaring the rights and grievances of Hungary. Both the Resolution Party and the Old Conservatives mitigated their distinctive party-principles, and all the three parties agreed upon some of the most important points to be demanded from the Austrian Government. On the other hand, all agreed in highly eulogizing the Rescript of September 20th, and in manifesting a readiness to come to an understanding with the Emperor of Austria. The election resulted in the return of a majority of the members of the "Address" party.

The Hungarian Diet was opened by the Emperor on December 14th, at the palace of Ofen. His Majesty, after greeting the assembled deputies, spoke of the hindrances which had hitherto prevented an adjustment of the relations between the Emperor and Hungary, and of obstacles to be removed. The difficulties which had hitherto arisen were chiefly owing to the different points from which the two parties set out; on the one side forfeiture of rights, and on the other unbending maintenance of rights, as of an uninterrupted lawful inheritance.

The Emperor said he took his stand on the Pragmatic Sanction,* which guarantees the autonomic political and judicial administration of Hungary, as well as the inseparable union of all the lands of the Hungarian crown. The reciprocal position of the lands of the Hungarian crown is therefore to be regulated before all things by the meaning of the Pragmatic Sanction. For this reason the Diet of Transylvania had been summoned to revise the laws of

* The "Pragmatic Sanction" was drawn up by Karl VI. in order to secure to his only daughter, Maria Theresa, the succession contrary to the former law of Hungary, which proclaimed succession in the male line only. It was submitted to the Diet of Hungary in 1723, and only accepted with the express stipulation that that country, and all the lands connected with it, should retain their complete independence as they had possessed it of old, being ruled according to their own laws and customs, which were to be confirmed by every monarch before his coronation.

union; the Hungarian Diet would also be called upon to consider thoroughly the statutes of 1848, relating to the same subject. As to Croatia, the Emperor called attention to what had been said concerning Hungary in his Rescript at the opening of the Diet at Agram, and expressed a wish that both countries might come to an agreement on the matter.

First and foremost, however, it was important that special attention should be paid to the treatment of those interests common to all the lands of the monarchy. Much is said of these in the Pragmatic Sanction, but many changes have taken place since the date of that instrument, and modifications in the treatment of those interests must necessarily be made. Constitutional rights have been granted to the other lands of the imperial realm.

The nature of these interests had been set forth in the October Diploma, and a common constitutional treatment of them was most imperatively required for the sake of the unity of the realm and its continuance as a strong power, to which all other considerations must be subordinate. Regulations for this treatment had been set forth in the February Patent; but, as that had been much objected to, and the Emperor was only anxious to bring about an agreement founded on a general recognition of its necessity, he had suspended the February Patent by that of September.

Both the October and February Diplomas would be laid before the Hungarian Diet for examination and acceptance; and he hoped that if modifications were introduced, they would be made in conformity with the primary and vital requirements of the realm.

In close connection with this matter stands a revision of some of the laws of 1848, to the formal validity of which no objection is made, but the execution of which cannot take place, nor the oath to maintain them be taken, until they have been divested of their prejudicial bearings. When this has been done, the inaugural Diploma may be made out, and when the coronation has taken place, propositions tending to the welfare of the country will be laid before the Diet.

The Emperor referred to the difficulty of the task, and the heavy responsibility attending its accomplishment. He spoke some words expressive of confidence in the members of the Diet, and gave utterance to a hope that with the blessing of the Almighty their task would be brought to a happy termination, and then declared the Diet to be opened. The effect of the speech was good, and great enthusiasm prevailed. All parties, without any exception, expressed the greatest satisfaction with it.

On December 20th the Chamber elected Charles Szentivanyi President by 179 out of 229 votes, and Count Julius Andrássy first Vice-President by 185 out of 211 votes. Both belong to the "Address" party. On December 21st the new President and Vice-President addressed the House. The former confined himself to a few

words, saying that a dangerous doctrine—the doctrine of the forfeiture of the special rights and privileges of the kingdom of Hungary—had been set aside; that the Pragmatic Sanction, to the satisfaction of all the Hungarians, had been reintegrated, and that it would serve as the basis of the statute laws of Hungary and of the hereditary (German) provinces of the empire. The Vice-President made a longer inaugural speech, in which he said that the western portion of the empire should be convinced that the rights of Hungary are in unison with the interests of the empire, but that parliamentary centralization is opposed to those rights. "Our aim," continued Count Andrássy, "should not be the triumph of Hungary, but the consolidation of the power of Austria. I trust that Hungary will keep in view the rights of majesty and the material interests of the empire." The sitting was then adjourned till the 10th January.

The present Upper Chamber of the Hungarian Diet, according to the "Pesth Hirnök," is composed of no fewer than 729 members. They are: Four members of the Imperial family (the Archdukes Albrecht, Joseph, and Stephen, and the ex-Duke of Modena), 27 Roman Catholic and Greek Catholic archbishops and bishops, 10 archbishops and bishops of the Oriental Greek Church, 11 high dignitaries (Reichsbanner-herren), 87 lord-lieutenants of counties, 480 counts, and 188 barons. Ten bishops, two barons, one lord-lieutenant, and fifteen other persons who have seats and voices in the Upper House, sent in excuses for their non-appearance.

The Transylvanians, on December 14th, at their Diet at Kolosvar (Klausenburg), assented to the annexation to Hungary. By an imperial Rescript, dated December 25th, the Diet was summoned to send representatives to the Hungarian Diet, for the purpose of assisting in the revision of the first article of the Transylvanian laws of 1848, which relates to the union of the grand principality with the kingdom of Hungary. In a second Rescript the Emperor orders the Transylvanian authorities to begin with the elections as soon as possible. In consequence of some territorial changes made since 1848, Transylvania was to send seventy-three deputies to the Hungarian Diet, instead of sixty-nine, as before. The Upper House of the Hungarian Diet was also to be reinforced by a number of Transylvanian "Regalisten"—persons of note—who received royal letters patent, authorizing them to sit and vote in the Chamber of Peers.

The Diet of Croatia was opened on November 12th. The Government commissioner, who acted as representative to the King on this occasion, communicated to the Diet the October Diploma and the February Patent, and requested that body to take into consideration the question of a parliamentary union of Croatia and Austria. He also announced that the Emperor of Austria would be crowned as King of Hungary and Croatia, and invited the Diet to send

representatives to the ceremony. He further stated that the question of the future regulation of the Dalmatian administration would be discussed only after the definitive settlement of

the future constitutional relations of Croatia to the central Austrian Government. At the close of the year the Diet had not taken any definite action.

I

ILLINOIS. From the State census taken June 30, 1865, it appears that the population amounted to 2,151,007, a gain of 439,056 since the census of 1860. No returns were received from seven counties, and their population has been given as it was in 1860. The estimated gain in these counties is 19,113, making a total gain of 458,169. The increase in Sangamon County is 15,999, or forty-nine per cent. The population of Chicago was 178,539, a gain of 63,000 since the last census.

The assessed valuation of the real and personal property in the State for 1865 was \$391,683,284—\$34,894,231 more than for the preceding year, and \$8,000,000 less than the exceedingly high valuation of 1857.

The Legislature met on the 31st of December, 1864, the day to which it had been prorogued by Governor Yates. Both Houses were Republican. Governor Yates, in his message, which was a lengthy one, gave the following statement of the financial condition of the State:

Purchased and paid off by the State, with the Central Railroad fund, from December 1, 1862, to December 15, 1864, State indebtedness—	
Principal.....	\$873,983 41
Interest, arrears of interest, etc.....	30,158 98
	<hr/>
	\$906,147 39
Ten per cent. paid on registered canal bonds by Canal Trustees, instalments July, 1863, and July, 1864, five per cent. each.....	
	289,133 83
	<hr/>
	\$1,195,280 72
Permanent debt funded and unfunded—amount of different classes of State indebtedness outstanding December 16, 1864—	
Illinois Bank and Internal Improvement Stock.....	\$31,000 00
Illinois Internal Improvement Stock.....	42,000 00
Internal Improvement Scrip.....	19,570 83
Liquidation Bonds.....	234,650 21
New Internal Improvement Stock.....	1,848,407 85
Interest Bonds, 1847.....	1,206,836 96
Interest Stock, 1857.....	704,404 75
Two certificates for arrears of interest.....	1,002 58
Refunded Stock.....	1,387,000 00
Normal University Bonds.....	65,000 00
Thornton Loan Bonds (act approved February 21, 1861).....	182,000 00
Balance Canal Claims under Thornton Loan Act.....	8,624 58
War Bonds.....	1,679,100 00
Illinois and Michigan Canal Bonds, payable in New York.....	1,618,000 00
Illinois and Michigan Canal Bonds, payable in London.....	1,631,658 89
Interest Certificates, Canal Stock not registered.....	17,661 83
Canal Scrip signed by Governor.....	2,616 97
One hundred and twenty-one Macallister and Stebbins Bonds, which, according to statement of C. Macallister, would amount, January 1, 1865, to about.....	27,000 00
Total.....	<hr/>
	\$11,178,564 45

The amount derived from the two mill tax on the assessment of the year 1863, applicable to the

dividend on State indebtedness, presented to the Auditor January 1, 1865, was \$600,000, which, added to the amount extinguished with the Central Railroad fund, made an aggregate of \$1,795,000 since December 1, 1862. The seven per cent. of the gross earnings of the Central Railroad for the years 1863 and 1864, paid to the State, amounted to \$705,908.62. On the 1st of January, 1866, the State debt was \$10,651,714.31, showing a reduction during the year 1865 of \$526,850.14.

In his message the Governor recommended the creation of a Bureau of Agricultural, Mechanical, and Commercial Statistics.

Richard Oglesby was inaugurated Governor for four years. The Legislature adjourned at the close of the month of January, not having transacted business of any general interest. Richard Yates was elected Senator for six years, receiving sixty-four votes to forty-three for James C. Robinson. At the election held for county officers in November, 1865, Union tickets were elected in twenty-two counties hitherto Democratic, while none were gained by the opposition.

The manufacturing establishments in the State are in a prosperous condition, and new ones are being added to their numbers. Prominent among them are the American Watch Factory, and the Milk and Beef Condensing Establishment at Elgin, and the Pottery Works at Peoria. Owing to the high and fluctuating taxes on spirits, most of the distilleries were closed, and the enormous corn crop of 1865 remained unused. Corn sold for ten cents a bushel, and it was used to some extent for fuel, being found to be cheaper than wood.

The cotton crop of the State for the year is estimated at 5,000,000 pounds, or 10,000 bales, being an enormous increase over the crop of 1864. This cotton is produced principally by negro labor. On an average, one thousand pounds of unginned cotton were raised to the acre, amounting, at ten cents per pound, to \$100 an acre. The seed sells at retail for twenty-five cents per bushel—a quantity was sent to St. Louis for manufacture into oil. It is now regarded by the farmers as the surest and most profitable crop in the southern part of the State.

On the first of November the drill in the new Artesian well at Chicago penetrated a vein of pure water, which flowed steadily, at the rate of 600,000 gallons a day. The water is clear, sparkling, and pure; and though but nine feet from the other well, has no trace of sulphur, and has a temperature of about fifty-eight de-

gress Fahrenheit. The exact depth of the well at the time water was struck was 694 feet 5 inches. The diameter of the bore from the surface to the bottom is five inches. Fragments of the rock last penetrated were brought to the surface, and closely resemble Athens marble. Traces of iron are discernible immediately above this rock. The surface of the ground on which the well is located is two or three hundred feet below the level of the surrounding prairie. While in the first well the stratum of Joliet marble passed through was over one hundred feet thick, in the second well, only nine feet distant, it was over two hundred feet in thickness. The water has a head of about one hundred feet above the level of the city. It is proposed to enlarge the new well to eight inches in diameter, for the purpose of power, and also to enlarge the old well to twenty inches. During the months of November and December the water from the new well was permitted to flow into ponds covering an area of twenty-five acres, in order to obtain a supply of ice, and 12,000 tons have already been stored. The well was bored in accordance with directions given by Spiritualists, on whose charts it was marked down that water would be struck at a depth of seven hundred feet.

On the 17th of April Crosby's Opera-House and Art building was inaugurated. It has a front of one hundred and forty feet, and four stories high, is of Athens marble, and in the modern Italian style. The theatre has an auditorium 86 by 95 feet, and 65 feet high, finished in the composite style. Three thousand persons can make their exit in from three to five minutes. The building cost \$400,000, and occupied a year in erection.

On the 30th of August the Chamber of Commerce building was dedicated. This fine edifice, constructed by the enterprise of the Board of Trade of Chicago, cost \$400,000. The main building is 93 feet wide, 181 feet deep, and 100 feet high. The main hall used by the Board of Trade is 143 feet by 89, and 44 feet from floor to ceiling. It receives light through eighteen colored windows, and is adorned with paintings, frescoes, etc.

Attention having been called to the evils to be apprehended from the discharge of the sewers into the Chicago River, an act was passed by the Legislature on the 16th of February, providing for the completion of the Illinois and Michigan Canal, upon the plan adopted by the State in 1836, which was to make a cut through the ridge dividing the waters of the Mississippi and its tributaries from those of the lakes deep enough to cause the waters of Lake Michigan, to permanently flow into the Desplaines, and finally into the Illinois River. The effect of this would be that twenty-four thousand cubic feet per minute of Lake Michigan water would flow through the city, carrying away all impurities, and absorbing all noxious gases. The length of the work to be done is twenty-six miles. The present level of water in the canal

is eight feet above low water in the lake, and the canal is to be cut down to nine and a half or ten feet below ordinary water in the lake. The work commences at Bridgeport, five miles from the city, and terminates at Lock No. 2 on the summit. The work was let on the 26th of September, for \$997,641.45. The earthwork contains 2,425,865 cubic yards, and the rock-work 364,649 cubic yards. The work is to be finished by the 1st of September, 1868, or the contractors are to forfeit twenty per cent. of the work already completed, to the city of Chicago.

The work on the Lake Tunnel has been steadily continued, and its completion is expected in October, 1866. During the year the seven cylinders at the crib were forced down to their places. They are nine feet in diameter, and were forced down by screws, a pressure of sixty tons being required to drive them through the hard clay. This work was completed on the 31st of November, and operations were at once commenced on the shaft. At each end nearly twelve feet per day are being excavated. The tunnel has been carried out from the shore end 4,280 feet. The soil passed through is a hard blue clay, interspersed with pebbles. It is necessary, however, for the masons to keep close up, or the clay would begin to flake off, and in a short time the water would be admitted. A shaft is to be extended sixty feet eastward from the crib, with the view at some future time, as the harbor fills up, of carrying it a mile further out, to renew the supply of fresh water.

The total cost of the buildings erected in the city of Chicago during the year was \$7,510,000. The valuation of property, real and personal, is \$64,709,177.

The following table exhibits the total amount of flour, and fine and coarse grains, shipped from Chicago during the year :

Flour, barrels.....	957,599
Wheat, bushels.....	8,923,603
Corn, ".....	24,277,221
Oats, ".....	8,773,408
Rye, ".....	717,795
Barley, ".....	460,210

From the first of April to the close of the year there were received 262,374 head of beef cattle, against 279,383 for the same period for the previous year, and 459,871 live hogs.

The losses by fires during the year amounted to \$1,205,006; insurance, \$942,142.

The election held in the State during the year was for the choice of local officers. In the various counties the Republicans retained the control of all which they held during the previous year, and gained twenty in which the opposition had at the previous election chosen the local officers.

The division in the Legislature of the State according to political associations was as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint ballot.
Republicans.....	14	51	63
Democrats.....	11	34	46
Republican majority,....	3	17	20

INDIA, BRITISH, a dependency of Great Britain in Asia. By the act 21 and 22 Victoria, cap. 106, called "An Act for the better Government of India," sanctioned August 2, 1858, all the territories formerly under the Government of the East India Company are vested in the Queen. One of the English Secretaries of State, called the Secretary of State for India, is invested with all the powers heretofore exercised by the Company or by the Board of Control. The Secretary is assisted by a Council of State for India, consisting of fifteen members, of whom seven are elected by the Court of Directors from their own body, and eight are nominated by the Crown. The Executive authority in India is vested in a Governor-General or Viceroy, appointed by the Crown, and acting under the orders of the Secretary of State for India. Governor-General in 1865, Sir John Laird Mair Lawrence, Bart., born March 4, 1811, appointed Governor-General of India, November 28, 1863. The salary of the Governor-General of India is £30,000 a year, exclusive of allowances which may be estimated at £10,000. Under the Governor-General the Government is executed by a Supreme Council, sitting in Calcutta, consisting of five ordinary and from six to ten extra-ordinary members. The ministry is divided into the departments of Foreign Affairs, Finances, Interior, Military Administration, and Public Works, and the ministers form part of the Supreme Council. The ministers, the members of the Supreme Council, the Executive Governors, and Lieutenant Governors of the various territories and provinces, are appointed by the Governor-General. The total revenue for the year 1863-'64 was £44,618,032; the expenditure, £44,534,685; surplus, £78,347. The revenue for the year 1864-'65, as provisionally returned, was £46,284,106; expenses, £46,628,249; revenue for 1865-'66, as estimated in the "Budget," £46,488,760; expenses, £47,186,980; deficit, £698,170. The debt of India, according to a return issued by the Secretary of State for India, in September, 1864, was £116,721,122; but this included £2,081,970 capital of railway companies remaining in the Home Treasury, and, on the other hand, did not include the charge for the dividend on the £6,000,000 capital stock of the East India Company, which is subject to redemption by Parliament under the act of 1833.

The area of the British dominions in India is estimated at 933,722 square miles; and the estimates of the population vary from 135,000,000 to 200,000,000. The English population amount to only 125,945, of whom 84,083 are connected with the army. The actual strength of the army was, on April 30, 1862, 78,174 Europeans, 125,918 natives: total, 204,087. The imports from India into the United Kingdom were, in 1864, £52,287,869; the exports of home produce from the United Kingdom to India, £19,895,145.

At the end of the year 1861, the Master of

the Rolls, the Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, Sir E. Ryan, Mr. Lowe, Mr. Justice Willes, and Mr. J. M. Macleod were appointed commissioners to prepare a body of substantive law for India. The first instalment of the labors of these commissioners, in the form of the law of succession and inheritance applicable to all Christians and others who wish to adopt it, was passed. It is remarkable as being in advance of English legislation, by abolishing the distinction between movable and immovable property, and allowing married women to retain their own property. The machinery of the Small Cause Courts, which have proved most popular, and in some cases self-supporting, was improved in such a way as promises to afford litigants securities for justice without the delay and expense of appealing. The act, so much discussed the previous year, for abolishing the grand jury in the presidency towns, and providing circuit courts and special juries for the trial of European offenders in the interior, was passed. The peculiar position of the 150,000 Parsees in India was cared for, after years of discussion, by creating matrimonial courts in which a high court judge, aided by Parsee delegates, will hear suits relating to marriage and divorce.

Finally, the legislation of the year was marked by a most comprehensive measure for the management and preservation of Government Forests due to the labors of Dr. Cleghorn and Brandia. India now enjoys as enlightened and practically useful rules for the preservation of her great nurseries of timber and fuel, as any European power, while private rights are not ruthlessly interfered with as in some despotic countries.

One of the most remarkable proofs of the advancing civilization of India is the rapid increase of railroads. It appears from the last annual report (1865) of Mr. Juland Danvers, the Government director of the Indian railway companies, that the system of guaranteed railways comprised, in 1865, a length of 4,917 miles, of which 3,186 were open for traffic. The net profits in the year ending the 30th of June, 1863, on 2,151 miles of railway, amounted to £690,834; and to £915,077 in the year ending the 30th June, 1864, on 2,489 miles. The number of passengers conveyed in the latter year was 11,781,683, compared with 9,242,540 in the former. The total expenditure of capital on the lines which were, in 1865, open, or in course of construction, amounted on the 1st of May, 1865, to £54,941,029. The expenditure was estimated at £5,000,000—about £1,800,000 to be expended in England, and £3,350,000 in India. The total amount estimated to be required for the undertakings would reach £77,500,000. The number of shareholders at the end of the year 1864 was 29,803 in England, and 777 in India, the latter number consisting of 884 Europeans and 893 natives. There were also 6,458 debenture holders. Up to the end of 1864 the Government had advanced

£18,160,539 to the railway companies for guaranteed interest, but about £3,300,000 had been paid back out of the earnings of the railways, leaving nearly £10,000,000 still due to the Government.

Very interesting information on current Hindoo literature is given by Garcin De Tassy, member of the French Institute, and professor of Hindoo language and literature at the Imperial School of Living Oriental Languages at the "Bibliothèque Orientale" of Paris, in his last opening discourse of the "Cours de Hindoustani." According to De Tassy, journalism flourishes in the country. A new weekly periodical has lately appeared at Agra, entitled *Bahrat Khand Amrit*, a name of genuine Oriental style, meaning "Ambrosia for India." It has a significant religious design. Its founders recognize, in principle, the divine origin of the Vedas, and enforce their practical teachings, but aim to recall their coreligionists to the purity of the ancient faith. A native society seems to have charge of it, and have issued a book against the "Prodigality of Weddings" and other festive occasions. They appear to be a school of Hindoo Puritans. They have challenged controversy, and have been answered by a publication at Delhi called *Musfil Aam*, "that which is useful to men." A new weekly has appeared at Mirat, called the *Najm Ulakhbar*, "the Star of News." Its field is one of the most important northwestern provinces, and it is an example of European journalism springing up in the densest Oriental life. In Madras flourishes the *Jami Ulakhbar*, "Record of News," and recently has been commenced there the *India Times*, in four native languages, including the Hindostani, Tamil, Telugo, etc. These periodicals are conducted by native scholars. They are but examples of the rapidly advancing journalism of the country. "In fine," says De Tassy, citing a high authority, "native journalism surges on all sides in India, displaying ability and no small acquaintance with English journalism and literature generally. It is independent of the British Government, but defends it ably." Englishmen are acquiring important influence over the native mind by their Hindoo scholarship. For example, Mr. Palmer, of Cambridge University, is the foreign correspondent of the *Aswad-Akhar*—the Hindostani *Gazette* of Oudh. His proficiency in the language, it is said, astonishes the natives, and an Englishman, Mr. Kempton, has given to them a "romance," *Dastan i Jarnila-Khatun*—"History of the Princess Jarnila," said to be remarkably well done. A Mussulman literary society has been established at Calcutta, under the auspices of Ahmad Khan, who has become noted as author of a "Commentary on the Bible" against Colenso, and also a "Description of the Monuments of Delhi." Ahmad calls upon his countrymen to study and appropriate all the learning of the European nations. At Lahore some spirit is shown in behalf of female educa-

tion, the greatest want of India. Baba Khan Singh, an influential native, takes the lead of it. Several books have appeared lately in its behalf. There are native poets singing in the land. *Figan-i Delhi*—"The Lamentations of Delhi," are a collection of poems by different writers, on the last insurrection; and the devastation of the ancient Mogul capital, issued from a publishing house called *Akmal Ulmatibi*—"The most perfect of printers." Quite a catalogue of recent miscellaneous volumes, averaging about five hundred pages, is given by M. de Tassy. Among them is a work in two volumes on natural philosophy; a tale entitled "The Book of Emotion," on the history of the two brothers Bhogwan das and Gapol Ram; a new Persian Grammar; a Manual of Letter-Writing, called "The Key of Enjoyment;" a History of the Prophets, entitled "The Garden of Adam;" a History of Mohammed, called the "Zephyrs of the Gardens;" and "Marvels of the Inhabited World," a description of voyages. In fine, an intellectual fermentation has begun in India, which promises important results. The periodical press can hardly fail to stir up and "modernize" the mind of the country.

Religious reform movements continue to make progress among the Hindoos. The *Indian Mirror* states that there are now fifty-four Brahmo Somajes in India, of which fifty are in Bengal, two in the northwestern provinces, one in the Punjab, and one in Madras, under the name of Veda Samajum. Nearly all these have their representatives in the Representative Council, a body established for the purpose of uniting all the Somajes for the furtherance of Brahmic or deistic knowledge. The Calcutta Somaj has been established nearly thirty-six years, and those of Krishnagur, Dacca, and Midnapore, for nearly twenty years. More than twenty-five have been established within the last ten years. For some time past eight Brahmos have been regularly working as "missionaries."

The war with Bhootan, which had begun in 1864, continued in 1865. The year opened with a series of successful attacks by the Bhootas, headed by Tougso Penlow, upon the principal frontier posts, which the English had taken at the close of 1864 so easily, as to be lulled into security. Owing to the selection of a post from which the water could be cut off, the cowardice of the Sepoys, and the incapacity of Col. Campbell, for which he was called on to resign, the English evacuated Dewangiri on the extreme right, and abandoned two guns. So the English were driven out of Tayagon, in front of Bala, with serious loss. This was the first week of February, and there was still time for the English to hurry troops to Poonakha and triumphantly finish the war. This Sir John Lawrence wished to do, it is believed, but the military necessity for retaking Dewangiri prevailed. A large Sepoy force was kept all the long hot and rainy seasons chiefly in the Terai marshes, where it died, as English soldiers

perished in the Crimean winter. Fully one-third of the entire force was *hors de combat* from malaria, and there was hardly an officer not expecting to get an appointment somewhere else. When the season for resuming military operations came, after enormous expenditures, a peace was signed at Buxa, on November 11th, which was unanimously condemned throughout India, and by all classes, and humiliating and unsatisfactory in its guarantees for the future. The Indian Government is to pay to Bhootan, not only the old "tribute," as the natives call it, but double the sum, or £5,000 a year. Tounso Penlow, who, by insulting the British ambassador, occasioned the war, and who alone fought against the English, was no party to the treaty, and it was regarded doubtful whether the Deb Rajah, a mere boy whom he appointed, or the Paro Penlow, his defeated rival and enemy, could succeed in inducing him to submit.

The continuing progress of the Russians in Central Asia, created nowhere so much alarm as in British India. No one in India doubted that it was the policy of Russia to make the frontier of her empire in Central Asia march with the English. A grave apprehension was entertained of the consequences of such an advance of Russia, in exciting the hopes of disloyal Indians and distracting the attention of England in another European war. To obtain information superior to the meagre facts received from the newswriters in Cabul, and contained in the drawers of the English Ministers in Teheran, the Government of India despatched three intelligent native officials, as pedlars, to Bokhara, Khiva, and Khokand, independently of each other, and by different routes. But Sir John Lawrence refused to give any assistance to the envoys from the despoiled khan of Khokand, who visited Simla and Lahore, or to allow a party of English officials who volunteered for the duty to accompany them on their return to their own country.

A complication with the neighboring authorities of Netherlands India, arose from the latter seizing the principality of Assahan, on the northeast coast of Sumatra, in defiance, as the English maintain, of the treaty rights of both its ruler and England. The merchants of Penang regarded this as such a danger to their trade, that they addressed a vigorous remonstrance to the Governments of India and England.

The Crimean War ten years ago transferred to India the trade of Europe in jute, fibres, and seeds, and at once added enormously to the wealth of Eastern India. The American war four years ago gave India, for a time, the virtual monopoly of the supply of cotton. Contemporaneous with these events, the gold discoveries were affecting seriously the value of the precious metals all over the world; and the rapid progress of railways in India, larger in extent and in the magnitude and solidity of their works than any in the world,

not only attracted sixty millions sterling to the country but caused the influence of commerce to penetrate into the remotest hamlets of the producing districts. In the ten years ending April, 1865, Bombay exported to the United Kingdom 53,868,464 cwts. of cotton, valued at £98,727,141. Looking only at the four years of the American war ending on the same date, Bombay obtained £78,094,563 for 12,627,164 cwts. exported to the United Kingdom alone, or £82,886,724 for 13,844,788 cwts. exported to all places. In the year before the war 1860-'61, Bombay got only £6,978,700 for 355,500,000 pounds of cotton. Last year, the last of the war, she got 30,333,333 sterling (£30,375,076), for little more than the same quantity, or 380,500,000 pounds, at the average rate of twelve annas and nine pie per pound, instead of two or three annas at which she used to sell it. In four years Bombay has received 82,500,000 pounds sterling for what, but for the American War, would have given her only a quarter of that sum. This wealth culminated in the past year, of which it is by far the greatest fact. Nor was this prosperity confined to the Western Presidency. All the ports partook of it in a diminished because healthier ratio. The whole trade of Bombay in 1864-'65 was £79,791,891 in value; that of Bengal was £45,441,738 or five millions more than the preceding year; that of Madras £17,494,356; that of British Burmah £8,819,754, a great but permanent increase; and that of Sindh £5,244,715. Thus the whole sea-borne trade of India, omitting the Straits Settlements, was £156,792,454 in value, or a third of that of Great Britain.

INDIANA. The regular session of the Legislature of Indiana convened at Indianapolis on January 5th, 1865. The House of Representatives, in which the Republicans had a small majority, was organized by the election of John N. Pettit as Speaker; but the Senate, being composed of an equal number of Republicans and Democrats, remained unorganized until the 9th, when the Lieutenant-Governor assumed his seat as presiding officer. On that day, also, Oliver P. Morton was inaugurated Governor. The regular sessions of the Indiana Legislature are biennial, and limited by the Constitution to sixty-one days, which proved in 1865 too short a period for the perfecting and passage of a number of important bills. That the time spent on these unperfected measures might not be lost to the public, an act was passed, providing that the unfinished business of any regular or special session might be transferred to the next special session of the same Legislature, to be there disposed of in the same manner in which it would have been in the session in which it originated. In accordance with this act, Gov. Morton, by proclamation, summoned the Legislature to meet in special session on November 18th, 1865, that being the only method of pushing to completion the unperfected measures of the regular session. The Governor's message was delivered on the

14th. It entered elaborately into the subject of providing for the payment or renewal of the State debt; recommended the establishment of a home for disabled Indiana soldiers and seamen, a bureau of emigration, separate schools for colored children, and the repeal of the statute excluding negro testimony. He also urged an amendment of the Constitution, basing representation on the number of voters, and sustained the reconstruction policy of President Johnson.

The amount of the public debt of the State at this time, consisting of two and a half and five per cent. registered stocks, was \$7,418,960.50, divided as follows:

Five per cent. Stock.....	\$5,842,500.00
Two and a half per cent. Stock.....	\$2,076,460.50
Total.....	\$7,418,960.50

In the hands of the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, and in the State Debt Sinking Fund, the State held \$1,382,880.17 of this amount, leaving outstanding in the hands of the creditors of the State the amount of \$6,036,080.33, of which \$4,107,792.33 were five per cents, and \$1,928,288 two and a half per cents. The face of the stock or the certificates of indebtedness provide that "this stock is redeemable at any time after twenty years from the 19th day of January, 1846, at the pleasure of the State, and until redeemed is transferable upon surrender in the city of New York, in books provided for that purpose by the agent of the State there resident, by endorsement thereon, and according to such other rules and forms as are and may be prescribed for that purpose. And for the payment of the interest and redemption of the principal aforesaid the faith of the State of Indiana is irrevocably pledged." As the twenty years referred to would expire on January 19th, 1866, the question arose as to the interpretation of the words "at the pleasure of the State." The Governor was of the opinion that while the State is not bound to pay the principal of this debt on the 19th day of January, 1866, or be considered in default, yet that she is not at liberty to postpone the payment of it indefinitely, but is bound to make provision to pay the debt within such reasonable time after the twenty years as may comport with the original understanding of the parties, the ability and condition of the State, as left by the war, the faithful performance of her contracts, and the preservation of her good name.

The Governor also showed that by the 1st of May, 1866, enough money could be accumulated in the hands of the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, and in the State Debt Sinking Fund, to purchase State stocks of the value of \$2,650,000, which would reduce the amount in the hands of the State creditors to \$3,386,080.33. The public debt of Indiana would then stand as follows:

Two and a half and five per cent. stock.....	\$3,386,080.33
War Loan Bonds.....	483,000.00
Vincennes University Bonds.....	66,685.00
Floating Debt, estimated at.....	100,000.00
Total Debt.....	\$3,990,765.33

The Legislature passed an act issuing in place of the public stocks then in existence, four millions of six per cent. State bonds, and absorbing the balance by means of the funds in the hands of the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, and in the State Debt Sinking Fund. The board of Sinking Fund Commissioners was abolished, and its business transferred to the Auditor and Treasurer of State, and the State Debt Sinking Fund was established with authority to pay the principal and interest of the two and a half and five per cent. bonds. Another act provided for the distribution of the interest of the Sinking Fund for the support of the common schools, which would add from two hundred and fifty to three hundred thousand dollars annually to the funds previously provided for maintaining the public schools.

Although the Constitution prescribes that an enumeration of the white inhabitants of the State over twenty-one years of age, shall be made every six years, no such enumeration has been made since 1858; and, consequently, no new apportionment, which is also required to be made periodically, has been possible. The result is that many counties which have increased rapidly in population during the last ten or twelve years, are now very inadequately represented. To provide a remedy for this, an act was passed requiring such enumeration to be made in the year 1866, and thereafter at each recurring period prescribed by the Constitution. The law enacted at the last regular session, by which a State tax of thirty cents on each \$100 of taxable property was levied for the support of soldiers' families, for the years 1865 and 1866, was repealed as to the latter year. The proceeds of the tax of 1865, less five per cent. thereof, are to be retained in the treasuries of the counties where collected, and after the first day of March, 1866, become a part of the general county funds. The law under which the tax was levied, set apart \$100,000, to be expended, under the direction of the Governor, for the relief of sick and wounded Indiana soldiers in hospitals. This would amount to about seven per cent. of the amount likely to be realized from the three-mill tax; and in anticipation of its collection, the Governor borrowed considerable sums for that purpose. These loans are to be refunded out of the five per cent. reserve fund; and the residue is authorized to be expended by the Governor, in his discretion, for the relief of destitute, disabled, wounded, or sick Indiana soldiers who may need such relief, and he is required to report the amount and manner of such expenditure to the next General Assembly.

Although no attempt was made at this session of the Legislature to repeal that clause of the organic law of Indiana which prevents negroes from entering or residing in the State, an important modification was made in the law disqualifying them from testifying as witnesses on account of their color. The House of Representatives passed a bill utterly repealing all

such disqualifications; but the Senate having passed a bill, originating with itself, making all colored persons competent witnesses, except such as have come or may hereafter come into the State, in contravention of the Constitution, the House was induced to accept the latter rather than run the risk of no bill whatever passing.

From the report of the State Auditor, dated August 10, 1865, it appears that the net amount apportioned to the several counties of the State, under the act creating a fund for the relief of soldiers' families, was \$1,648,017.99, and the actual amount apportioned to 203,724 beneficiaries was \$3.08 each, making the total sum of \$1,646,089.92. This apportionment is made on the following basis:

The total valuation of the real and personal property in the State, as returned in 1864, was.....	\$516,306,999.00
Which, at 80 cents on each \$100 valuation, will yield.....	1,550,417.99
Polls, at \$1 each.....	197,600.00
Total receipts, should the tax be collected, Deduct Governor's Military Contingent Fund.....	\$1,748,017.99 100,000.00
Net amount to be apportioned.....	1,648,017.99
Actual amount apportioned to 203,724 beneficiaries, at \$3.08 each.....	1,646,089.92
Remainder.....	\$1,928.07

In making the apportionment each mother, wife, or widow, is counted as four; each motherless child as two, and all other children as one, and the number in each county is the aggregate of those thus estimated. Each child, therefore, if none of the enumerated had "otherwise sufficient means for their comfortable support," would be entitled to receive 67 cents per month; each motherless child, \$1.34 per month; and each mother, wife, or widow, \$2.70 per month.

The number of troops furnished by Indiana during the war amounted to 195,147; reduced to a three years' standard the aggregate would reach 152,288. Governor Morton places the total number at over two hundred thousand, although he gives no figures. In November, there were still in the service twenty-one regiments of Indiana troops, viz.: eighteen of infantry and three of cavalry.

By the laws of Indiana, the common school revenue is required to be apportioned semi-annually among the several counties of the State. The apportionment for April, 1865, showed that \$671,794.07 were divided among 566,333 children between the ages of 5 and 21, making the distributive share to each \$1.18. The report of the succeeding August showed a total sum of \$171,245.48 distributed among 552,233 children. The special session of 1865 passed an act providing for a State normal school, the location of which has not yet been determined; and also for the establishment of an agricultural college at Bloomington. An attempt to provide for schools for colored children by general taxation proved unsuccessful, the Senate, by a vote of 34 to 5, declaring that it was opposed to taxing white men's property for the benefit of negroes' children.

In August, a Harbor Convention was held at Michigan City, with reference to the enlargement and improvement of the harbor at that place. The estimated cost of the improvement is \$300,000, about half of which has been pledged by private subscription. Measures were adopted to apply to Congress for aid in completing the work, on the score that it was a national undertaking.

In May, 1865, sentence of death, in accordance with the finding of a general court-martial, was pronounced against William A. Bowles, Stephen Horsey, and Lambden P. Mulligan, citizens of Indiana, who had been found guilty of treasonable designs against the Government during the war. A respite was obtained for them, but before it was granted an application for a writ of *habeas corpus* had been made in the United States Circuit Court sitting in Indianapolis. In consequence of a division of opinion, the matter was certified to the Supreme Court at Washington, where it now awaits a decision. They were subsequently pardoned by the President.

The elections in Indiana, in 1865, were for local officers only, and resulted generally in favor of the Republicans. In the latter part of the year, Governor Morton left the country for the benefit of his health, turning over the government to Lieut.-Governor Conrad Baker.

INDIANS. (See TERRITORIES, U. S.)

INDIUM. To the notice already given of this new metal (ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1863), it may here be added that MM. Reich and Richter, in continuing their researches, have succeeded beyond question in effecting its separation, and have examined it and some of its compounds. Having obtained the metal by reducing it from its oxide upon charcoal by means of the blow-pipe, they find it soft and ductile, white, not easily tarnished, resembling tin in appearance, but melting at about the same point with lead, and marking with even a clearer trace than the latter on paper. Its oxide resembles that of thorium; and its chloride gives the blue line of great intensity. Indium is found also in the zinc obtained from the Freiburg ores. One account met with makes the specific gravity of indium 7.277, and its equivalent 37.07. According to Dr. C. Winkler, the specific gravity is 7.362, and the equivalent (probably) 35.9.

INSURANCE. The general results of the Fire Insurance business throughout the State of New York, and in the country at large, for the year 1865, have not been favorable. The Life Insurance business has become much larger than in former years, and more profitable.

Five new Life Insurance Companies have recently been organized in the State of New York: 1. The New York State Life Insurance Company, of Syracuse, with a capital of \$100,000. 2. The American Popular Life Insurance Company, of New York City. 3. The Provident Savings and Life Insurance Company, of New York. 4. The Atlantic Mutual Life Insurance Company, of Albany, with a capital of \$200,000.

5. The Protection Life Insurance Company, of New York. The vast increase of life insurance in the United States within the last few years affords room for many new companies, and it is hoped that with their increase the benevolent principles of life insurance will be more and more widely spread among all ranks of society, and thus afford the surest provision for the comfort of those left behind that can possibly be adopted.

There were only eight insurance companies brought out in England during the past year, and three of these, though in a measure new, were old companies launched under a new form. Several insurance companies were registered which have not, for various reasons, been brought before the public. The titles of these new corporations are, the Accidental and Marine Insurance Company, Boiler Insurance Company, Financial Insurance Company, General Provident Assurance Company, Hercules Insurance Company, Insurance Corporation of Great Britain, Scottish Commercial Fire Insurance Company, Sea and River Marine Insurance Company. They represent paid-in capital to the amount of £395,000.

At a recent meeting of the New York Board of Fire Underwriters, the subject of fixing uniform rates of insurance, after a protracted discussion, was referred to a committee, who will report such measures as may be deemed fair for the preservation of the companies and protection of the parties insured. Of fifty-eight companies represented, all but four voted in favor of an advance. When the last tariff of insurance rates was agreed to, there were then, as now, a few companies who from various causes were unwilling to consent to a general advance. Had that tariff been strictly adhered to, the balance-sheet of many companies would now, without question, present a more creditable appearance, although possibly so much business might not have been transacted. The present low and insufficient rates are the almost sole cause of the deficiency of many of the companies; and to such companies, whose stockholders will be called upon to make up deficiencies for a further continuance of business, an entire suspension is recommended as the wisest thing for all concerned, unless an adequate advance

in prices of insurance is made at once, and when made, strictly adhered to. The entire insurance business of New York and elsewhere must and will eventually be done with only those companies whose strict adherence to paying rates makes them a certain guaranty in event of loss.

Abstract Accounts of the Capital Stock of the Fire Insurance Companies of the State of New York for the year ending December 31, 1865:

Chartered Capital paid up.....	\$31,157,000
Total Assets, Dec. 31, 1865.....	44,906,675
Net Cash Premiums received in 1865.....	19,635,023
Total Income.....	23,847,430
Losses paid in 1865, incurred before, \$1,156,752	
Losses paid in and for 1865.....	12,702,645
Total loss incurred in 1865, as reported.....	13,859,397
Amount of reinsurance as estimated by Companies.....	15,262,971
Total expenditures for 1865.....	6,258,416
Expenses, exclusive of taxes, losses, and dividends.....	32,271,133
Total liabilities, including estimates for reinsurance as returned, but excluding profit scrip.....	5,807,216
Net surplus over liabilities, exclusive of paid-up capital.....	8,541,023
Net amount of Fire Risks written in 1865.....	5,668,053
Amount of Fire Risks in force at end of 1865..	2,571,846,304
Amount of stock dividends paid in 1865.....	1,663,373,507
Rate of expenses to Income 28.22 per cent.	2,624,769

It will be seen from the following statement that the total disasters exceed those of either of the last five years. In fact, no season since 1854 has equalled this in marine losses, although the increased strength of our Marine Insurance Companies will render the loss comparatively light to them. The following is a summary of disasters reported at New York during the last five years, including total and partial:

	Steamers.	Ships.	Barbs.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
1861.....	49	232	182	163	323	958
1862.....	44	233	219	139	325	1,010
1863.....	71	340	217	206	474	1,308
1864.....	46	230	119	165	290	900
1865.....	75	197	260	357	591	1,480
Total five years.....	285	1,232	997	1,035	2,009	5,661

The amount of loss during 1865 is \$20,000,000, distributed in great part between New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and other American underwriters, whilst a portion will fall on owners and foreign underwriters. The following statement will show approximately the value of the losses each month for five years, with the totals:

ESTIMATED AMOUNT OF LOSSES FOR 1865, COMPARED WITH OTHER YEARS.

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	TOTAL
January.....	\$2,989,600	\$1,825,600	\$1,430,200	\$1,650,000	\$960,000	\$8,795,400
February.....	2,408,700	1,590,200	1,175,000	2,850,000	678,000	8,180,900
March.....	2,648,500	2,340,800	1,340,000	1,480,000	1,947,000	9,786,300
April.....	1,617,550	1,416,800	1,950,000	1,880,000	944,000	7,757,550
May.....	2,835,600	1,735,700	2,100,000	960,000	740,000	8,861,300
June.....	923,500	960,000	2,230,000	650,000	560,000	5,923,500
July.....	923,500	647,000	1,300,000	1,850,000	620,000	5,549,500
August.....	576,900	423,000	1,350,000	1,370,000	1,950,000	5,574,900
September.....	956,450	616,000	1,560,000	750,000	940,000	4,822,450
October.....	700,850	1,412,000	1,075,000	1,230,000	2,375,000	6,842,850
November.....	1,814,500	1,716,000	950,000	1,660,000	4,620,000	10,260,500
December.....	1,100,000	1,964,000	1,750,000	1,956,000	2,960,000	9,786,000
Totals.....	\$18,980,650	\$16,590,600	\$18,610,200	\$17,766,000	\$19,289,000	\$91,196,450

IOWA. The election of a Governor and Legislature in Iowa in 1865 gave rise to an animated political canvass during the summer and autumn, the main question involved in which was the extension of the elective franchise to the colored population of the State. In August a soldiers' convention, which was largely attended, met at Des Moines, and nominated a State ticket, composed of officers recently in the national service, and headed by the name of General Thomas H. Benton for Governor. As the convention was ostensibly called and controlled by opponents of colored suffrage, it passed strong resolutions against the adoption of such a measure, and issued an address to the "soldiers of Iowa who are opposed to negro suffrage," urging them to support the candidates nominated by it. The Democratic convention, which assembled at the same time and place as the above, made no nomination, but endorsed the candidates and resolutions of the soldiers' convention. In a letter accepting the nomination, General Benton avowed himself a Republican, and an opponent of negro suffrage, on the ground that the period had not arrived for so radical a change in the political organization of the State, and that such a change would prove, under existing circumstances, detrimental rather than beneficial to the colored race.

The Republican Convention renominated Governor Stone for office, and among other resolutions adopted one in favor of making the elective franchise conditional only upon loyalty to the Constitution and the Union, and recognizing the equality of all men before the law. An additional resolution, recommending an amendment to the Constitution of the State, so as to give the elective franchise to colored men, was adopted by a large majority.

The election took place on the second Monday of October, and resulted in the return of William M. Stone by a majority of about 16,500 over General Benton. The remaining candidates on the Republican ticket received majorities of 20,000 and upwards. Governor Stone received a smaller majority than his associates on the Republican ticket, from the fact that he was more strongly committed than they in favor of negro suffrage. The Legislature elected stood as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint ballot.
Republicans	49	83	132
Democrats	5	15	20
Republican majority,.....	38	68	106

The total amount received into the treasury during the fiscal year ending November 4th, 1865, was \$977,825.10, and the amount expended for all purposes during the same period was \$952,739.42, leaving a balance in the treasury of \$25,085.68. During the war a tax of but two mills on the dollar was levied for State purposes, and a total indebtedness of only \$300,000 was incurred, which was for military expenditures soon after the outbreak of hostilities. The total amount of State revenue derivable

from a general levy of two mills, and from other sources for the ensuing biennial period, is estimated at \$1,811,005.87, and the disbursements at \$794,923.65, leaving a probable balance of \$516,079.22 to the credit of the State. The debt of the State is exhibited in the following table:

Borrowed from permanent School Fund.....	\$123,293.75
Loan payable January, 1868.....	200,000.00
War and Defence Bonds, payable in 1881.....	300,000.00
Total State debt.....	\$623,293.75

In respect to the number of troops raised by her during the war, the record of Iowa is a highly honorable one. Not only were all her quotas promptly filled by volunteers, but on January 25, 1865, she was credited by the provost marshal general with an excess of 12,080 men over all calls. At the convention of State Adjutant-generals held in Boston in July, 1865, the representative of Iowa reported the whole number of men furnished for different terms of service, of all arms, at 72,348, leaving five regiments and one battalion uncredited. According to the returns of the provost marshal general the aggregate of men furnished by the State was 75,860, which is equivalent to 68,182 men reduced to a three years' standard. By an official statement rendered in October last it appears that the total amount of claims of the State against the United States for expenses incurred in raising and equipping troops, which are properly chargeable against the General Government, is about \$616,739.07, of which \$20,825 had been allowed, \$480,326.70 suspended, and \$165,589.23 disallowed. Against these claims the United States are entitled to a credit of \$484,274.80 on account of direct Federal taxes and money advanced in settlement of military disbursements. A final settlement between the State and General Government has yet to be made.

The population of Iowa, according to the census of 1863, was as follows:

Total number of whites.....	700,949
Total number of blacks.....	1,320

Total population.....702,162

According to the census of 1865, the population is as follows:

Total number of whites.....	751,125
Total number of blacks.....	3,607

Total population.....754,732

This report does not include returns from the county of Winneshiek. The census having been taken in the early part of the year, the emigration which set in largely after the termination of the war is necessarily excluded. The total population at the commencement of 1866 was estimated by Gov. Stone at 775,000, an increase of 100,000, or about 14 per cent. over the United States census of 1860. From the returns of the census taken the following statistics are derived: The blind number 259, deaf and dumb 376, insane 613. The total number of dwelling-houses in the State is 114,351

The number of acres of land enclosed is 5,327,058. Number of miles of railroads finished, 798. Value of agricultural implements and machinery, \$7,707,027; value of manufactures, \$7,100,465. The principal agricultural products are: of spring wheat, 7,175,784 bushels; winter wheat, 116,965; oats, 15,928,777; corn, 48,471,133; potatoes, 2,780,811; rye, 662,888; and barley, 950,696 bushels. The number of tons of hay from tame grasses is 225,349 tons; from wild grasses 718,119 tons. The tobacco crop yielded 753,626 pounds. The women of Iowa in the year 1865 made 14,538,216 pounds of butter, and 1,000,738 pounds of cheese, the yield of 310,187 milch cows.

The schools of the State are in a flourishing condition, and out of 324,338 enumerated school children in 1865, there was an average attendance of 119,598 against 117,378 in the previous year. The University of Iowa, established at Iowa City, opened in 1866, with a largely increased attendance in its several departments. Connected with it is a medical school at Keokuk, and it is proposed by the Governor to add to it a law school, to be located in Des Moines, the capital of the State. During 1865 a Normal department, for the education of teachers, was added to the University. The permanent school fund, of which the Constitution of Iowa makes the State the perpetual and responsible guardian, was originally distributed among the counties and loaned to individuals. The evils of this practice were soon apparent, in a material diminution of the fund. Through the incompetency and mismanagement of county officers a large amount remains unaccounted for, notwithstanding strenuous efforts on the part of the State Auditor to adjust the differences between the sums charged to counties, and the amounts accounted for in their returns. The Legislature of 1864 endeavored to provide for the gradual return of the school money to the State treasury; but by leaving it discretionary with the County Supervisors to return or reloan their part of the fund, failed of accomplishing its object. It is now recommended by the Governor to provide that the county treasurers shall pay over this fund to the State treasurer for safe investment in United States securities; and he further suggests that the outstanding State bonds shall be redeemed with this fund, and that in lieu thereof bonds bearing the same rate of interest and payable to the school fund shall be executed, the principal to be redeemable at the pleasure of the Legislature. "By adopting the plan here suggested," he says, "we could, within reasonable time, liquidate our entire indebtedness by transferring it to ourselves, paying the schools of the State, instead of strangers, the interest accruing thereon, and at the same time make a safe and permanent investment of this sacred fund."

The crops of Iowa in 1865 were generally abundant, and that of corn was so much beyond the demand for home consumption, that in those parts of the State where timber is

scarce, and the facilities for conveying crops to market unfrequent, it was employed as fuel. Seventy bushels of corn in the ear, which are the equivalent of a cord of wood, cost but \$7, while wood, cut and sawed, is worth \$9.50 a cord. Not only is the corn, therefore, cheaper, but it gives, it is said, considerably more heat than the same bulk of wood, or even of coal. This, however, can only be considered an anomalous and temporary employment of this great staple of food, which will cease whenever the country is opened to commerce.

In the latter part of the year the members of the bar of Lee County, Iowa, sent to President Johnson a series of resolutions adopted by them, endorsing his position on the reconstruction question, to which the following answer was returned:

EXECUTIVE MANSION,
WASHINGTON, D. C. Dec. 26, 1865.

GENTLEMEN: The resolutions unanimously adopted at a meeting of the members of the Bar of the District Court of Lee County, Iowa, held at the December term, have been received by the hands of the Honorable Secretary of the Interior, and have afforded me much gratification. Carefully framed, and the formal expression of men whose profession has made them familiar with the laws and political institutions of the land, the resolutions cannot fail to have a salutary influence in upholding the great principles of our Government, so essential to our success as a nation.

Encouragement and approbation from such a source, at this peculiar time, inspire me with confidence and a determination to pursue the policy indicated in my annual message to the Thirty-ninth Congress.

Deeply sensible of the kind wishes of the legal profession of Lee County, Iowa,

I am, gentlemen, very respectfully yours,
ANDREW JOHNSON.

To PHILIP VIELL, Chairman, and J. H. CRAIG, Secretary, etc., Fort Madison, Iowa.

ITALY, a kingdom in Southern Italy; present king, Victor Emmanuel, March 14, 1820; succeeded to the throne of the kingdom of Sardinia in virtue of the abdication of his father on March 23, 1849; assumed the title of King of Italy on March 17, 1861. Heir apparent to the throne, Prince Humbert, born March 14, 1844. The new ministry appointed on December 31, 1865, was composed as follows: General Della Marmora, President and Minister for Foreign Affairs; Signor Chiaves, Minister of the Interior; Signor Scialoja, Minister of Finance; Signor Defalco, Minister of Public Worship and Justice; Signor Jacini, Minister of Public Works. The Legislature consists of two Chambers, a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The Senate consists of the princes of the royal house, and an indefinite number of members above 40 years old, who are nominated by the king for life. The Chamber of Deputies consisted, in 1865, of 443 members.*

Italy has an area of 98,075 English square miles, and, according to the census of January 1, 1862, a population of 21,776,953. The largest cities of the kingdom are Naples, 447,065 in-

* See some further details on the election of the Chamber of Deputies in ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864.

habitants; Turin, 204,715; Milan, 196,109; Palermo, 194,463; Genoa, 137,986; Florence, the capital, 114,863. In the "Budget" for the year 1865, the receipts were estimated at 669,-438,563 lire,* and the expenditures at 873,635,-600 lire. Deficit 204,197,037 lire. The public debt amounted on December 31, 1864, to 4,408,-625,976 lire (nominal value of capital). The army, in 1865, was 222,321 men on the peace footing, and 494,800 men on the war footing. The number of war-vessels was, in July, 1865, 106, armed with 1,468 guns. The commerce, in the years 1862 and 1863, was as follows: In 1862, imports, 729,922,000 lire; exports, 392,497,000 lire. In 1863, imports, 777,158,000 lire; exports, 434,196,000 lire. The movement of shipping inclusive of coasting vessels, was as follows: Entered, 119,604 vessels; tonnage, 8,-535,381. Cleared, 120,704 vessels; tonnage, 8,235,515. The merchant navy, in 1862, consisted of 10,552 vessels, having an aggregate tonnage of 682,886.

The publication of the Papal Encyclical of December 8, 1864, threatened in January, 1865, to bring on a conflict between the bishops and the Government; but the latter wisely put an end to the complication by issuing a decree (February 18th), authorizing the circulation of the Encyclical, its accompanying syllabus, and Cardinal Antonelli's circular—reserving, however, the rights of the State and crown, and without admitting the propositions contained in those documents which might be contrary to the institutions and legislation of the country.

The difficulty of solving the conflict between the Government of Italy and the national aspirations of the Italian people on the one hand, and the inflexible claims of the Papal Government and the Catholic Church on the other, called forth, as in former years, a considerable number of able works. None of these attracted more attention than one by the Duke de Persigny, the intimate friend and adviser of Louis Napoleon. His book, which is addressed to President Troplong, of the French Senate, records the impressions made on his mind by his visit to the Holy City. He is angry at the obstinacy of the Pope and the cardinals, but holds to the theory that it is possible to reconcile the Holy See with Italy. He expresses himself favorable to the consolidation of the kingdom of Italy, scouts the idea that a new kingdom of 24,000,000 of souls beyond the Alps can in any way be dangerous for France, and releases the Italian people from any "gratitude" to their liberators. He thinks it a French interest that the kingdom of Italy should be constituted, for the sole reason that the mere fact of its existence disarms Austria for any aggressive purposes; but he unhesitatingly pronounces against Rome being the capital of Italy. He argues that, although some time ago the Italians wanted Rome, because they thought it essential to prevent divisions

and jealousies between other great cities of Italy, that is not the case now, and the Italians know it. He insinuates that Victor Emmanuel has accepted Florence as his definitive capital. He fully adopts the theory that Rome belongs to the Catholic world, and, acting upon this idea, he threatens the Pope very considerably. He narrates that in a conversation with some high Papal functionaries in Rome, he told them roundly, that they were quite under a delusion if they thought to frighten France by making the Pope run away. France, he said, would scrupulously withdraw her troops at the time fixed upon by the convention, and would care nothing for the Pope's absenting himself. But, he said, "nothing would be easier than to organize Rome in such a way as to reconcile the interests of the Holy See with the Italian sentiments of the population. In concert with the Catholic powers, and with Italy herself, France would establish at Rome a Provisional Government to administer the States of the Church in the Pope's name, and to make all necessary reforms and arrangements in his absence."

The condition of Southern Italy continued to be deplorable, the brigands carrying their operations on in the most impudent and unblushing manner. In March, they carried desolation into the provinces of Frosinone and Velletri. From Mr. Ainslie Murray, and another English gentleman, who fell into their hands, a sum equivalent to £8,000 of English money was demanded, and similar sums were exacted from other wealthy prisoners. In the latter months of the year the French troops, in conjunction with the Italian soldiers, adopted vigorous, and, it seemed, efficient measures for destroying the brigands.

The proceedings of the Parliament which was in session on the opening of the year 1865, did not present many points of interest. The Chamber of Deputies, on March 18th, adopted a bill abolishing the penalty of death for crimes committed under the common law, by 150 against 91 votes, but maintaining it in the military and naval codes, and in the laws against brigandage. The Senate, however, on April 22d, rejected the bill. The bill introduced by the Government for the suppression of religious corporations was withdrawn; but the ministry, at the same time, announced that the concession of the *exequatur* to ecclesiastical benefices would be suspended, and that the Government would soon bring in another bill for the reform of the religious bodies.

The news of the assassination of President Lincoln was received by the Italian Government and Parliament with manifestations of profound sympathy. The Italian Chamber of Deputies was draped in black on the 27th, and would continue so for the three following days in mourning for Abraham Lincoln. The Minister of Finance moved, and the Chamber agreed, to send an address to the American Congress, expressing the grief of the country and the House at Mr. Lincoln's assassination.

* 1 Lira—19 cents.

On March 6th the Pope addressed an autograph letter to the king, requesting the latter's consideration of three points, namely, the return of the bishops to their sees, the nomination of other ecclesiastics to fill the vacant sees, and the admission of the titular ecclesiastics already appointed by the Holy See without the consent of the Italian Government. The ministers were unanimously of opinion that this letter should be followed up, and decided to send, in compliance with the request of the Pope, a layman to Rome, to confer upon the three points above mentioned, and to endeavor to come to some agreement. The mission was intrusted to the Commander Xaverio Vegezzi, with the Cavalier Advocate Giovanni Maurizio as colleague. The instructions confided to them established, before all, that no political question was to be introduced at the conferences; which would also exclude any subject not connected with the three points above mentioned, and particularly any matter which might be within the competence of the legislative power. In the second place, the instructions declared that, while in the course of the conferences on subsequent negotiations, it was not necessary to touch upon the recognition of the Italian Government on the part of the Holy See, in order that the conferences and negotiations should not lose their true character of an arrangement concerning interests entirely religious and spiritual; yet it could not, and ought not, to be allowed, either in the whole or upon any special point, that these conferences and negotiations should imply the negation *de facto* of the existence of the kingdom of Italy. The instructions relative to the three points were—that those bishops would be restored to their sees whose return would no longer be a cause of the disturbance of public tranquillity, and who would undertake to observe the laws of the State, and cause the same to be observed by their clergy; that among the vacant sees those only would be filled up which it might be determined to maintain on the future diocesan circumscription of the kingdom; that the presentation of the prelates would be made by the king, with the preliminary agreement of the Holy See, and that this presentation would be stated in the act of appointment, and the bulls which would be submitted to the royal exequatur; and, finally, that some of the titular ecclesiastics already nominated would be admitted from grave motives of public order and political expediency; others would be admitted not falling under these exceptions, provided the Holy See granted the translation to other sees of the prelates nominated to sees which it might be determined to suppress, and that their presentation by the king be stated in the bulls, which would also be submitted to the royal exequatur. The negotiators arrived in Rome in April. Finding the Papal Government disposed not to request the return without distinction of all the absent bishops, they made it understood that the Italian Government would renounce their

resolution of imposing particular conditions upon their return. And as the Pope had not disavowed the expediency of a new circumscription of the dioceses of the kingdom, they did not feel bound to insist upon the precise number of the sees to be left vacant or filled up. Moreover, the Pope not displaying any marked dislike to enter into the views of the Government relative to some of the bishops already nominated, the negotiators testified the desire of the Government to facilitate to the Pope the means of securing the conditions of all the others in a suitable and honorable manner. Difficulties were raised on the part of the Pope respecting the exequatur for the bulls nominating the bishops and relative to their oath, and the negotiators therefore returned to the seat of their Government, to obtain new instructions. The Italian Government deemed it inexpedient to grant the demands of Rome concerning these two points, as they only vindicated to the Italian Government a right which Italy has held in common with nearly all the Catholic States. The negotiators were therefore instructed to insist on the oath of the bishops and the royal exequatur, being, however, authorized to make concessions as to the form. They returned to Rome in June, but then no longer observed the conciliatory disposition which they believed they had discovered on their first visit. The propositions relative to the oath of the bishops and the exequatur were rejected, and this led to the non-pursuance of the negotiations upon the other points; only it was stated that the Italian Government would not depart from their resolution to consent to the gradual return of those absent bishops who could be restored to their sees without danger of public disturbance, since this was viewed as being only a measure of interior order, which had already been previously determined upon by the Government itself. After this the negotiators returned from Rome, and resigned their mission. The official report made (July 8th) by the prime minister, La Marmora, to the king, on the progress and failure of this mission, closes with this important hint: "The day, perhaps, may not be far distant when the so much desired separation of Church and State will bring with it the complete separation of religious and spiritual from political interests, to the common benefit of both Church and State, and particularly to the advantage of Italy, which, from their confusion, has suffered such long and severe trials."

A royal decree, issued on September 7th, dissolved the Italian Parliament, ordered new elections to take place on October 29th, and convoked the Chambers for the 15th November. A circular addressed by the Minister of the Interior to the Prefects, sets forth the policy the Government intended to pursue. The circular announced that shortly after the assembling of Parliament the ministry would bring forward a measure for the suppression of religious bodies, and the readjustment of ecclesiastical property. This measure would ameliorate the position of

the clergy in the country districts. In the division of the ecclesiastical wealth a portion would be assigned to elementary and middle-class education, and a portion to the communes where religious bodies reside, for works of public utility and for educational purposes. The ministry would also bring forward bills for reforming the system of primary, secondary, and superior instruction. The deficit in the budget for 1864 would amount to about 280,000,000*f.*, if an attempt were not made to reduce the expenses and increase the receipts. The Government would propose a modification of the tax upon incomes not derived from landed property. They would also continue the policy of assimilating the laws of the country, and would introduce bills for promoting the development of the national wealth, and for the modification of the register stamp tax.

A notable feature in the electoral campaign was the active participation of the "Catholic Party" (called by their opponents "Black Party," "Codini," etc.), who had generally abstained from voting at former elections, at least so far as the annexed countries were concerned. This party, who saw all the changes of 1859 with regret, was subdivided into two well-marked sections by a very important line of demarcation. On one side of it were those who absolutely refused to accept or be reconciled to the dynastic changes which have become *faits accomplis*, who were still dreaming of, and laboring for, restorations, and who, utterly refusing to recognize the present constitution of Italy as in any sense a legitimate government, declined to take any part in the elections. The more practical section of the "Black" party admitted the *faits accomplis* to be such, "content," as one of their spokesmen expressed it, "with having taken no part in bringing them about." These men worked hard at electioneering, and directed their efforts to the salvation of the Papacy, its remaining fragment of temporal power, and to the cause generally of the Church in Italy.

The advanced Liberals, "Party of Action," "Radicals," "Reds," etc., who would fain use violent and immediate means for carrying out those changes to their ultimate results, and for the completion of Italian unity and independence by the acquisition of Rome and Venice, and who are especially hostile to the French Emperor and French influence as being the main obstacles in the way of reaching that consummation, were also divided into two well-marked sections; distinguished, these also, by their abstinence, or the reverse, from the elections and the work of electioneering. The extreme Red party, the men of the "Unità Italiana," friends of Mazzini, who deny that the unity and independence of Italy can be completed by, or under the House of Savoy, who abominate monarchy, and hope for the fall of that which exists in Italy, refuse to meddle in any way with the elections. The other, and the more important section of the Left, consist of those who perhaps would fain have seen the reconstitution of

Italy accomplished under the form of a republic instead of under a monarchy, but who on their side are willing to accept the present order of things, to take the oaths necessary to be taken by a member of the Chamber, and who direct their efforts to driving, as far as may be possible, the political and governmental action of the country toward the accomplishment of that completion of Italian unity and independence which all, except a few "Austriacanti," equally sigh for, but which those on whom the responsibility of governing rests think cannot safely be attempted by the means which the men of the Left would fain use.

The Government party, "Moderate Liberals" (also called "Malvi," because the leaves of the malva are used as a common lenitive, and are held to be anti-febrile and anti-energetic), was, of course, divided, like all Government parties, into those who are Government men *quand même*, supporters of those in power, and men of a more independent stamp whose seat is in the moderate centre of the Chamber, because their opinions properly place them there. Beyond this distinction, inasmuch as it is from this third political section that Ministers and Cabinets must be chosen, there were of course a number of factions, distinguished by preferences for individual chieftains. Ricasoli, Ratazzi, Minghetti, had all, as might be expected, their special friends and supporters among the large body of the moderate party.

At the election, the Catholic party met with a crushing defeat, only about a dozen of their members being elected. The Radicals, on the other hand, were eminently successful; for while they had numbered no more than about 50 in the preceding Parliament, they mustered more than 120 tried partisans in the new, besides finding among the Government party a fraction ("Third Party") which was found ready to combine with them in some important questions to defeat the ministry. Garibaldi was elected in three places, Naples, Andria, and Corleto. Three of his officers, Generals Bixio and Fabrizzi, and Colonel Cairoli, were also returned, each for three colleges. Nicotera, another of his followers, and his former dictators in Sicily, Crispi and Mordini, were elected for two districts each. Mazzini, notwithstanding his avowed hostility to the monarchical principle, came near being elected in Genoa.

The session of the new Parliament was opened on November 18th by King Victor Emmanuel in person, who delivered the following speech:

When I opened Parliament in the city which was the first guardian of Italy's destinies I always spoke words of encouragement and hope, and my words have always been followed by prosperous events. It is with the same confidence that I speak to you here, where we also shall be able to vanquish all obstacles for the complete vindication of our autonomy. My Government welcomed, from deference to the Papacy, and for the satisfaction of the religious interests of the majority of the population, the proposals for negotiations, which it broke off

when it judged that they might be prejudicial to the rights of the crown and the nation. Time and the force of events will solve the questions pending between Italy and the Papacy. We must remain faithful to the Convention of September, which France will completely carry out within the appointed time. Henceforth it will be easy to wait. The situation has much improved.

The king then alluded to the good relations existing between Italy and the powers of Europe and North and South America, and spoke of the recognition of Italy by Spain, Bavaria, and Saxony. He then continued:

The Latin nations, united by fresh ties, are acquiring a community of interests and aspirations with the noble people of Germany, thus causing ancient prejudices and rancors to disappear. Italy will take her place among the great States of Europe, cooperating in the triumph of justice and liberty. Liberty has produced favorable results at home; the administration, public works, the laws, and the army have been assimilated with results which in other countries have required the work of generations. This is a good augury for the future. The ministry will bring forward bills to complete the assimilation of the laws of the kingdom, and others relating to the education of the poorer classes, the improvement of the public credit, and the execution of works of public utility. The principal difficulty is to bring about an equilibrium of the finances without impairing the organization of the military and naval forces. It is painful to me that fresh sacrifices must be asked of my people, but its patriotism will not be found wanting. We shall divide the taxes as equitably as possible, reducing at the same time the public expenses as much as lies in our power. Italy must free herself from the ruins of the past. You will deliberate upon the separation of the Church and State, and the suppression of the religious bodies. Nothing will destroy the national work. A complete change is taking place among the peoples of Europe. The future belongs to God. If fresh combats should become inevitable, the sons of Italy will rally around me. If the force of civilization prevails, the wisdom of the nation will know how to profit by it in order to maintain intact the rights and the honor of Italy. We must advance frankly in the path of the national policy, and we are certain of your concurrence. Confiding in the affection of my people and the valor of the army, I will not fail in the great work which we must transmit complete to our descendants.

On December 6th the Chamber of Deputies elected Signor Marini, the candidate of the Government, to the office of president by 141 votes out of 273 members voting, after two ballots between him and Signor Mordini, the candidate of the Left. As the ministry found that they would not control, in all important questions, a majority of the House of Deputies, they tendered their resignation, which, as was announced to both Chambers on December 21st, was accepted by the king. On the same day the Chamber of Deputies adopted the pro-

visional budget for 1866, by 173 against 23 votes, with an amendment reducing the period of its application from three to two months. It also approved the proposal of Signor Mancini for a Parliamentary inquiry into the public administration. Full information concerning its relations to Rome and Austria was communicated by the Government to the Chamber of Deputies on December 12th, by presenting to them the instructions given to the Italian authorities on the Roman question. According to these instructions all attempts to violate the present frontier are to be prevented. There being but little probability of a good understanding prevailing between the Italian and Papal troops, all idea of acting in concert with the latter in order to combine operations against brigandage is to be abandoned; nevertheless, mutual information can be given with a view to suppressing the brigands and tracing their crimes. A circular, dated November 25th, was also laid upon the table of the Chamber of Deputies, addressed to the Italian agents abroad, in which are set forth the difficulties existing as to the renewal of diplomatic and commercial relations with Austria in consequence of the Venetian question. There would only remain for Austria and Italy to negotiate informally, thereby engaging the policy of the two Governments solely with regard to the improvement of their commercial relations, but thus far Austria had not taken up that ground. This document also mentions certain steps lately made by the Venetian authorities for the renewal of commercial relations only with some of the Italian provinces, to which the Italian Minister had replied by declaring that no difference of custom-house system could be made between the provinces incorporated with the kingdom by the treaty of Zurich and those incorporated by the Plebiscite. The kingdom of Italy was formally recognized by Spain in July, and by Saxony and Bavaria in November. All the States of Europe and America have now recognized the new kingdom except the Pope, Austria, and a few of the minor German States.

The withdrawal of the first of the French troops from Rome began in November, 1866, and the French Government repeated its intention of carrying out the September Convention concerning the evacuation of Rome. It offered, at the same time, its services to the Pope for the reorganization of the Papal army. The Italian Government gave new assurances of its determination not to attack the Papal territory, and not to allow any volunteers to enter it with hostile intentions.

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JAMAICA, one of the Great Antilles, and the principal of the British West India Islands in the Caribbean Sea, between lat. 17° 40' and 18° 30' N. and lon. 76° 15' and 78° 25' W., about

90 miles south of Cuba. The island is divided into three counties, Middlesex, Surrey, and Cornwall, and has an area of 6,400 square miles.

At the last census of Jamaica, in May, 1861,

the white population was 18,816 in number, being in the proportion of one white to thirty-two black or colored. Since that time some thousands of Indian coolies have been introduced into the island as laborers. The total population in 1861 was 441,264, while thirty years ago it was only 85,000. The number of children in schools was returned at 26,167 in 1863; the returns for 1861 had shown the exceptionally large number of 40,670, but that was the census year, and it is supposed that returns were taken in that year which included Sunday schools. The island is the seat of an Anglican bishop, whose diocese extends over the Bahamas and Honduras. Commerce is not in a flourishing condition. The cultivation of the staple exports has fallen off from six hundred sugar plantations to three hundred, and the 60,000 hogsheads of sugar formerly produced, have decreased to 30,000.

Jamaica has been several times the scene of negro insurrections. On the 22d of February, 1745, about 900 negro slaves were detected in a conspiracy to destroy all the white inhabitants of the island. In 1795, the Maroons, a community of fugitive slaves who had obtained permission to settle in the northern part of the island, revolted and were not reduced to subjection until March 11, 1796. The most alarming outbreak, however, took place on the 22d of December, 1831, when the island was placed under martial law, and most stringent measures and numerous executions followed.

A fourth insurrection broke out in October, 1865, and, though it was at once suppressed, was attended by circumstances which produced an intense excitement not only in the island, but in England and the whole civilized world. For several years the condition of the majority of the people in Jamaica had been very wretched. In 1864, the Baptist Missionary Society of England sent their Secretary, Dr. Underhill, to Jamaica, to make a report on the decline of the Baptist missions. Dr. Underhill extended his researches to the condition of the island in general, and in a famous letter, dated January 5, 1865, and addressed to the Colonial Minister of England, described the pitiful state of affairs, and pointed to those reforms which, in his opinion, were indispensable to save the island from ruin. The Colonial Minister, Mr. Cardwell, sent the letter to Gov. Eyre, of Jamaica, who had it published in the papers of the island, together with a request to all local authorities to report to him on the condition of their several districts. The agitation produced by this publication was intense. Excited mass meetings of the colored population were held in a number of places, to give expression to their grievances and demands. The most prominent leaders of this agitation were Mr. Gordon, a colored member of the Colonial Assembly, and Paul Bogle, a colored Baptist preacher. Mr. Gordon stated the grievances of the native population in a letter to Mr. Cardwell, the Colonial Secretary, as follows:

JAMAICA, March 24, 1865.

To the Right Honorable Edward Cardwell, M. P.,
Secretary of State for the Colonies, &c.

SIR: I have to bring to your notice, on behalf of the people of this country, the following facts, which are submitted as grievances:

The House of Assembly, as at present constituted, by reason of the restrictions in the election law (which has been amended only to a very limited extent), cannot be said to be a fair representation of popular rights; therefore it becomes more for the mother Government to exercise that vigilance which in former times so greatly tended to the protection of the lately emancipated classes, and it is much to be regretted that such is not continued to be the case.

From gross mismanagement, and for wasteful purposes, the taxation of the country is increased, without corresponding benefit to the general community. A flagrant illustration of this may be found in the history of the "Tramroad" affair, which besides having involved the country in a heavy expenditure of money, creating additional taxation, has also, by interfering with the principal public road, caused serious loss of stock to the passengers, and irritated the minds generally of the people who traffic on this thoroughfare. We here find a sample of the ruinous consequences of misconducting public affairs: but ere this is got over, the Governor, in his opening speech, recommends a project for a "slip dock," which work, if at all necessary, is of a speculative nature, and such as a company may be encouraged by the Government to undertake, but certainly it is not for the public to adventure, nor one for which the people should be taxed. The island has no navy which requires such an undertaking, and therefore it can only be considered as a strictly commercial enterprise. But how then are the people to be taxed for this purpose? As well may any other company more necessary and likely of success be taken up by the Government, such as a "soap manufactory," "a sugar refinery," an "agricultural bank," or a "rail-road to Old Harbor."

The great question is, is it constitutional to tax the people for speculative enterprises? and is the island prepared to undertake the duties of private companies, and to conduct a slip dock, with all its contingencies and doubtful results, in the face of absolute expenditure likely to involve not only a present but a future loss and increased taxation upon the people? It is a laid down principle that no government is justified in acting in this manner. It is contrary to sound political economy, and its tendency is evil; yet we find that, even without detailing estimates or statements of annual expenditure and income, the Governor has sanctioned such a measure, which having been opposed when first introduced into the Assembly, was withdrawn, and subsequently brought forward at the end of the session, when the quorum was reduced to nine—hardly that number being present—and passed, as it were, to the surprise of the good sense of the country. This is a measure which, if allowed to take effect, will create new heart-burnings in the minds of the inhabitants generally, and is a great public wrong.

A bill of a most objectionable nature was passed under circumstances similar to those stated above; it is to inflict corporal punishment for "petty offences." This is a measure unparalleled in the present history of British legislation, and is so degrading and wicked in its tendency as to create feelings of alarm. A public meeting has already been held against it in Kingston. A copy of the resolutions I shall send, and I believe other meetings or memorials are intended. The penal clauses of this bill are confined to second convictions—but for what offence? A shrub, a reed, or plant, in an unenclosed or enclosed land, &c. It will not be hard in a country like this to find a second offence, which may be of a comparatively innocent nature, tortured for malignant purposes. While this is intended to operate for minor

offences, the greater evils of society—forgery, burglary, cattle-stealing, etc.—are all left out, so that this measure is strictly one aimed against the lower classes, who, just now, are in a state of great destitution. And, honorable sir, if you could only behold them, I opine that your feelings of compassion would be aroused to mercy and relief instead of the infliction of corporal punishment, which is death or next to it; and I fear the indignation which may arise from this evil measure will be such as to have serious consequences. Representations unfounded and uncharitable, may be wickedly made against the peasants of this country, but in good truth they are as peaceable, civil, and well-disposed as any people can well be, and their character cannot justly be unfavorably compared with those of the laboring classes of Great Britain, the continent of Europe, or America. What they require is what has been neglected—attention to their sanitary improvement and education, parochial asylums for orphans and adults, and relief to some extent from the excessive taxation on the necessary articles of food and clothing, which in its tendency produces that destitution which leads here as in other countries, to a great extent, to petty larcenies. These are the points which should have been attended to, but which are lost sight of, for the debasing purpose of the whip, as if that will instil principles of morality, or supply the mental and bodily wants of a poor suffering community.

I do trust that, after due reflection, you may be led to consider the measure in its odious and injurious light. It seems to me an evil of the greatest magnitude, and shows to what extent inconsiderate feelings still exist in Jamaica.

But the manner in which the bill passed the Assembly is discreditable to the Government, as may be seen by the division on the question, and by which you will perceive it did not pass with the feeling of the country. The members of the Government, after allowing it to remain on the table of the House for nearly three months, did not give any intimation of its being put up, but seized upon an opportunity, and in two hours passed about four bills of a most important nature, at the same time suspending all the rules of the House in order to put them through all their stages within this time: this did not seem to be a creditable proceeding. A bill was also passed on the same occasion and under similar circumstances, to reestablish a district prison at Port Maria. This bill also provides that hard labor shall include the "treadmill," "shot-drill" and "crank."

Immediately after the emancipation, the treadmill was introduced into use in this island; but soon it was discovered that its severities and tortures, as exercised here, were diabolical, and the Governor of the island, as well as the Colonial Secretary, determined that it should be abolished, and not one was allowed to be used or even to remain in the prison; yet we find after a lapse of thirty years, when we had a right to expect better things, a British Government sanctioning such a thing. But this said Port Maria is really the grave of Jamaica. During cholera its population was nearly entirely swept away by that disease, and Dr. Milroy, the skillful medical inspector sent from England by the Government, condemned it, above all other places in the island, as most unhealthy and death-like; and yet we find that the prison which was abolished is again to be reestablished, with the iron shackles to which the unfortunate prisoners have been consigned by the present Governor, with hard labor.

From the injurious atmosphere of Port Maria, a transfer of patients had frequently to be made to the public hospital of Kingston. From the depreciated health to which the prisoners must be reduced at Port Maria, many of them will leave the prison, forever after to be worthless and a tax on society. When it is remembered that many are sent to prison for very minor offences, under many cases wrongfully, and under long sentences, by erring judgment and

unlearned justices, it does seem that it is a most cruel proceeding. I feel it a bounden duty to bring these subjects to your notice. The consequences I cannot control, but I sincerely trust that notwithstanding any explanation which will, no doubt, be tendered by the Governor on these remarks, the facts only of the points may be considered. I have a conscientious assurance that I intend no undue reflections, and only write from the stern obligations of a sense of justice and common humanity.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,
G. W. GORDON.

In the beginning of October, in the district of Morant Bay, in the eastern portion of the island, an attempt was made to expel the negroes from certain uncultivated lands, of which they had taken possession. This called forth great indignation, and when, on October 7th, a negro was tried on account of this affair before the court of Morant Bay, a mob of negroes collected, threatening to liberate him. The court ordered the arrest of the leader of the mob; but the negroes overpowered the police, and prevented the arrest. On October 9th, the court issued writs for the arrest of twenty-eight negroes, charged with having participated in the riot. The police at first did not succeed in accomplishing their object, but on the following day effected the arrest without resistance. On October 11th, when the prisoners were to be brought before the court, a new riot broke out. A number of volunteers who had been called out were overpowered, and many of them, together with several magistrates, massacred, and the court-house burned. According to an official statement of the Governor, the number of whites killed was sixteen, and wounded eighteen. In several adjoining districts, the negroes likewise rose and plundered the plantations. But as far as known, only two persons were killed.

The Governor, on being informed of the disturbance, at once proclaimed martial law in the insurgent district, ordered out troops, and sent the war-vessel *Wolverine* to Morant Bay. He hastened himself to the scene of the insurrection, and arrived at Morant Bay on October 13th. He despatched several columns of troops into the interior, and as he found every thing quiet in Morant Bay, he went, on October 15th, on board the war-vessel *Onyx* to Port Antonio, situated about twenty miles west of the scene of insurrection. There also he found every thing quiet; and in a despatch to the British Colonial Minister, dated October 16th, he represented the rebellion as "overtaken, arrested, and hemmed in." On October 16th the Governor returned to Jamaica, and as, by this time, six war-vessels had assembled in the waters of Jamaica, and two regiments of regular troops with a large number of militia and volunteers were at his disposal, besides a considerable force which was immediately expected from Barbadoes and other islands, he did not deem it necessary to proclaim martial law in Kingston.

While on his way to Morant Bay, the Governor claimed to have received cogent proofs of the guilt of Mr. Gordon, the above-men-

tioned member of the Assembly, as one of the chief instigators of the rebellion. Gordon was a resident of Kingston; he had not been absent from that place during the disturbances; he was in Kingston when he was arrested; no attempt was made to disturb the peace in Kingston; all the courts were in the uninterrupted exercise of their functions—nevertheless, the Governor deemed himself justified in ordering Gordon to be brought on board the *Wolverine*, and in conducting him to Morant Bay for the purpose of having him there placed before the court-martial. When he arrived in Morant Bay, he found—as he himself states in a despatch to Mr. Cardwell—the rebellion “crushed.” The columns of soldiers who had been sent into the interior returned, and reported that they had not met with armed resistance, that they had not lost a single man, but shot and hung, without the least form of trial, hundreds of persons suspected of being implicated in the rebellion. Notwithstanding, Gordon was placed before the court-martial, and found guilty. The evidence brought forward against him, stated that Mr. Gordon had been seen on a Sunday at a certain chapel at which Paul Bogle, the so-called rebel leader, worshipped; that somebody had said that Mr. Gordon had sent word for the people of a certain district in the parish to hold a meeting; that certain placards in blank had been found in Mr. Gordon's portmanteau; that a placard headed “The State of the Island” (in which there was not a single word of disloyalty or sedition), had been penned by Mr. Gordon; that he had used some strong language in a meeting of the people he had some weeks before addressed in the parish of Vere; and that he had written a letter to one Ohishohn, advising him, with reference to the sufferings of the people, to “pray to God for help and deliverance.”

Mr. Gordon protested solemnly against having had knowledge of or part in the plot. Nevertheless Gov. Eyre sanctioned the finding of the court-martial, and Gordon was hung on October 23d. At the close of October the number of those shot and hung either by the soldiery without trial, or by order of the court-martial, was reported as reaching 2,000.

On November 7th the session of the Jamaica Legislature was opened; the Governor in his opening speech described a startling state of things. Society in Jamaica, he said, was on the brink of a volcano, and had been so for some time past, owing to the systematic political agitation of which the late George William Gordon had been the leading spirit. There was not a district throughout the country, he asserted, in which disloyalty and sedition were not rampant, and murderous intentions on the part of the blacks openly expressed. He justified the extreme measures he had adopted in dealing with the outbreak, on the ground of the imminence of the danger. In their replies to the speech, both the Legislative Council (the upper Chamber), and the House of Assembly (the representative branch), endorsed the Gov-

ernor's views on this point without the slightest qualification; but two or three days after they had done so, the latter agreed to a resolution calling upon the Governor to furnish the House with the evidence upon which he had arrived at such a conclusion. During the debate upon the motion several members expressed the opinion that the House had acted precipitately in endorsing the Governor's statement, and ventured to doubt its correctness. The Governor told the House, in reply, that the best proof he could adduce of the truth of the statement was the fact that it had been endorsed by the House itself, but added that he had been induced to make the statement from information contained in letters that he had received from persons of position and influence living in different parts of the island, all of which agreed in stating that the blacks were in a very excited state, and were assuming a very threatening attitude toward the whites and the colored people.

No sooner had the usual preliminary matters of form been got through in the House of Assembly, than the Government introduced, through its organs in that body (styled members of the Executive Committee), several measures of a most extreme character. Of these, the most notable were a bill to remodel the political constitution of the colony, and a bill to regulate places of worship. The former provided for abolishing the present House of Assembly and Legislative Council, and substituting therefor a single Chamber, to consist partly of elected members and partly of nominees of the Crown to be appointed by the Governor. Under this measure the blacks are almost entirely disfranchised, as the qualification for the franchise is fixed at the payment of £5 per annum of direct taxes, and few of the negroes are possessed of sufficient real estate to be assessed at that sum. The bill deprives the negroes of all political power—excludes them from all share in the government of the country. The House passed the measure without delay, and sent it up to the Council, where it was pushed through in several stages, after which the Governor lost no time in assenting to it. The bill was passed with a suspension clause—that is, it was not to take effect as law until the pleasure of the Queen of England respecting it should have been ascertained.

The bill for regulating places of worship throughout the island, raised such a storm of indignation among the dissenters that the Government made haste to withdraw it before it had reached the second stage in the House. It provided for the registry of all dissenting places of worship under penalty, and required the payment of a registration tax annually.

When the first news of the revolt of the blacks arrived in England, accompanied by accounts of horrible atrocities said to have been committed by the negroes, the measures of Gov. Eyre were not severely criticized, but this feeling became greatly modified as the whole of

the circumstances attending the insurrection became better known, and were more fully analyzed. The Government deemed it necessary to suspend Gov. Eyre, and appointed Sir H. K. Storks as Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of Jamaica during the prosecution of certain inquiries about to be instituted respecting the late disturbances, and for such further time as her Majesty might see fit. The new Governor, together with Mr. Russell Gurney, the Recorder of London, and Mr. John Blossett Maule, the Recorder of Leeds, constituted the "Jamaica Commission" for the conduct of the inquiry. At the same time a private "Jamaica Committee" was organized, "in order to watch the progress of the official inquiry to be instituted by the Government; to bring about a searching Parliamentary inquiry into the past and present condition of Jamaica; and to provide Mrs. Gordon and others who may have unjustly suffered from the proceedings of the civil and military authorities in Jamaica with competent legal assistance to conduct their several cases before the commission." The chairman of the committee is Mr. Charles Buxton, M. P., and among the members are Mr. J. Stuart Mill, M. P., Lord Alfred Churchill, Mr. Bright, M. P., Sir Thomas Powell Buxton, Professors Cairnes and Goldwin Smith, etc.

In February, 1866, the English Government published three Blue-books of "papers relating to the disturbances in Jamaica." The first comprises a correspondence between Governor Eyre and the Colonial Office, ranging from January, 1865, up to the period of the Morant Bay massacre (October 11th). It also embodies the celebrated letter of Dr. Underhill, besides certain documents of a later date than last October, but not immediately bearing on the rebellion or its suppression. The second contains as many as sixty-one despatches from Gov. Eyre to Mr. Cardwell, with many enclosures; and thirty-three despatches from the Colonial Secretary, eighteen of which are addressed to Governor Eyre, and the remainder to Governor Sir H. K. Storks. Of those given in the second Blue-book the first despatch from the Governor of Jamaica is dated October 20, 1865; the last December 9th. Mr. Cardwell's first communication was written on November 17th, and his last to Gov. Eyre on December 16th; his last to Sir H. K. Storks was dated January 1st.

In a despatch, dated October 23d, Gov. Eyre writes that it was evident the "rebellion" had been instigated by the language and writing of persons in a better sphere of life, chief of whom was Dr. Underhill and some of the Baptist ministers in Jamaica. Under these circumstances he (the Governor) had deemed it right to examine the letters coming by the last English mail for certain Baptist ministers. One of these letters from Dr. Underhill to the Rev. J. Henderson, of Montego Bay, Gov. Eyre enclosed, and he quoted from it the following passage: "In Jamaica the people seem to be overwhelmed with discouragement, and I fear that they are

giving up in despair their long struggle with injustice and fraud." To such expressions as these Gov. Eyre attributes the outbreak, and he adds: "If nothing can be done to stop at home the pernicious writings such as I refer to, and if Jamaica is to be retained at all, it will be necessary to pass a law in the colony authorizing the deportation of all persons who, leaving their proper sphere of action as ministers of religion, become political demagogues and agitators."

Extracts from Mr. Cardwell's despatch, dated November 17th (the day after the receipt of the first account of the outbreak), were laid by Governor Eyre before the Jamaica Legislature, and published in the colonial journals. But the Governor omitted some of the most important passages of the despatch. "No doubt," Mr. Cardwell says in his despatch, "you will have much further intelligence to communicate to me hereafter on the subject of the measures of severity to which you have felt it necessary to have recourse. If you had time, in forwarding those enclosures, to make yourself acquainted with all their contents, it will have been evident to you that they contain many passages which will require to be explained as soon as there shall be sufficient leisure for the writers to explain fully the proceedings to which they relate. * * * * *

I entirely agree with you that measures of severity, when dictated by necessity and justice, are in reality measures of mercy, and do not doubt it will appear that you have arrested the course of punishment as soon as you were able to do so, and have exerted yourself to confine it meanwhile to ascertained offenders and cases of aggravated guilt. I observe with pleasure the hope you express that if no further outbreak occurs you will, in a short time, have been able to proclaim a general amnesty, except to actual murderers."

Governor Eyre's rejoinder is apologetic throughout. On November 23d Mr. Cardwell writes again, asking for explanation of certain statements (made by various officers as to their doings in killing and flogging negroes), and adding that, without satisfactory explanation, "the severity inflicted will not appear to have been justifiable." Mr. Cardwell also asks for copies of the proceedings of the court-martial, and full particulars generally. On the same day Mr. Cardwell wrote a special despatch requiring from Gov. Eyre the reasons for his assertions as to Mr. Gordon, and the proofs of his guilt. The fact of his removal to Morant Bay, where martial law prevailed, is pointed out, and the despatch concludes: "I desire also to see it clearly established that he was not executed until crimes had been proved in evidence against him which deserved death; and that the prompt infliction of capital punishment was necessary to rescue the colony from imminent danger, and from the horrors of a general or wide-spread insurrection, and the repetition elsewhere of such a slaughter of the white and

colored colonists as had taken place in the eastern part of the island."

On December 1st Mr. Cardwell writes as follows: "In your despatch of the 20th October, you say that you cannot doubt that the rebellion of the negroes in Jamaica is in a great degree due to Dr. Underhill's letter, and the meetings held in connection with it. That letter was originally addressed, not to discontented persons in Jamaica, but to me; and was by me forwarded to you for your report. I am desirous to know whether it was by your sanction that it first obtained publicity in Jamaica, and if not, what, so far as you know, were the circumstances under which it became the cause of agitation."

On the same day Mr. Cardwell wrote, alluding to the despatch from Gov. Eyre, dated October 23d, and says that while it was in the discretion of the island authorities to open letters arriving from England, it is to be hoped no further interception of letters will take place, and it is added that only in very exceptional cases could such a course be justified. Gov. Eyre is instructed to send the letters he has stopped to the persons to whom they are addressed, unless serious mischief would follow such a course. The despatch concludes: "However reasonable may be the apprehensions which you express as to the general effects of injudicious and inflammatory language upon an excitable and imperfectly instructed people, it is not easy to see what steps can be taken for the prevention of the evil. The measure which you suggest is not one to which I should wish you to have recourse. The repression of overt proceedings might lead to secret proceedings not less, but more dangerous; and the banishment of persons who are known, and may be made responsible to the law, might have the effect of devolving their influences upon persons who are more obscure and less amenable to observation."

The next despatch was as follows:

DOWNING STREET, December 1, 1863.

Sir: In a recent despatch I called your attention to passages requiring explanation in the reports of officers employed against the insurgent negroes, and to the absence of the minutes of proceedings of courts-martial, which one of the despatches addressed to you by Maj.-Gen. O'Connor had purported to enclose. I have now received your further despatches, but they do not contain any minute of the evidence taken by the courts-martial. No doubt the extreme pressure of business, consequent on the insurrection, and attendant on the meeting of the Legislature, must account for the absence of these enclosures, and render your present reports in some points incomplete. I assign to this cause that many important points are still unexplained, on which it is necessary that her Majesty's Government should be in possession of all the information that can be given. I enclose a copy of a letter from the Admiralty, with a copy of a despatch from Commodore Sir Leopold McClintock, dated the 8th November. This officer states that it will be impossible to ascertain the total loss of life in the insurrection, but that 1,500 would perhaps be a moderate computation; that, at the date of his letter, arrests were being daily made, and the prisoners sent to Morant Bay, and a large proportion of

them hanged. I enclose also extracts from a report made by Lieut. Adcock, of the 6th Regiment, dated 25th October, and transmitted to Lord de Grey in a despatch from Maj.-Gen. O'Connor, of which I enclose a copy, dated the 7th November; and I enclose an extract from a newspaper of a letter purporting to have been written by Capt. Ford, in command of the St. Thomas-in-the-East irregular troop. These extracts, equally with those accompanying my despatch of the 23d November, require explanation. I should be glad to learn that the letter in the newspaper is not authentic, and if any official reports have been made by Capt. Ford I should wish to be furnished with copies of them. And in reference not only to the particular reports adverted to in this and in my former despatch, but to the proceedings generally, I am desirous to point to the topics which, in the opinion of her Majesty's Government, demand your report:

1. The number of persons tried, and of those sentenced by courts-martial, specifying the charge and sentence, and whether or not the sentence was executed, and under whose authority, and whether minutes were taken of the evidence on which the sentence was found in each case: all minutes of evidence so taken to be appended to the return. The return should show also at what places and times respectively the offences were charged to have been committed, and the accused persons were arrested or captured and tried, specifying in each case whether the offence was committed before or during martial law, whether the arrest or capture was made during martial law, and in a place to which martial law extended; and if the person accused was arrested or captured in a place to which martial law did not extend, and removed to a place to which it did extend, there to be tried by martial law, and for an offence not committed during and under martial law, it should be stated by whose authority this was done, and whether under the advice of the Attorney-General.

2. Whether any persons were hanged, flogged, or otherwise punished without trial; and if so, by whom and under whose authority in each case, specifying the name, sex, color, and quality of the persons punished, the nature and date of the punishment, and the nature and date of the offence, and the grounds on which it was assumed to have been committed.

3. The number of persons, so far as can be ascertained, who were shot in the field or in the bush, their name, sex, quality, and color, and whether adults or children, specifying in all cases whether they were resisting or flying, whether armed or unarmed, and if armed, with what weapons, whether such as are used only for purpose of offence, or such as are used also in agricultural or other peaceful occupations.

4. Whether any and what oral or written instructions were given to officers in command of detachments sent in pursuit of rebels, whereby they might know on what evidence or appearances, other than hostile action or attitude, they were to assume that those they might meet with were rebels; and whether those officers, or any of them, were led by their instructions, or otherwise, and without authority induced, to assume that all persons flying or hiding from pursuit, or all persons found with plunder, or all persons leaving their labor on plantations were to be regarded as rebels and shot when met with. Copies of all instructions should be furnished.

5. Col. Fyfe being the only officer mentioned as employed with the Maroons, whilst divers parties of the Maroons appear to have been sent in various directions out of the immediate observation of Col. Fyfe, was there any and what control exercised over the operations of those parties, and what was it expected that the nature of those operations would be; and of what nature, in point of fact, did those operations prove to be?

In your despatches, in the addresses of the Legislative Council and House of Assembly, and in the reports of the naval and military officers engaged in the suppression of the insurrection, the loyalty of the Maroons in resisting and defeating the efforts of the rebels has been spoken of in terms of grateful commendation, no doubt sincerely felt and well deserved; and I observe one of the measures now to be proposed to the Legislature by one of the members of your executive committee is entitled "A Bill to employ the Maroons as a permanent Auxiliary Militia Force." I have, however, been greatly concerned to find in the enclosed despatch from Sir L. McClintock the following statement: "At least 800 were shot, chiefly by the Maroons, who entered with fierce zeal into the bush hunt after rebel negroes." I have to request your immediate attention to this subject. I trust it will appear that Sir L. McClintock has been misinformed, and that an impression so unfavorable to the employment of the Maroons—an impression which I certainly should never have derived from your despatches and those to which I have above referred—will not turn out to have been well founded. It appears from your speech to the Legislature, and from the addresses of both its branches in reply, that you and they were of opinion that there had existed a wide-spread and diabolical conspiracy to murder the white and mixed races, and amongst those races themselves this opinion would appear to be almost universal. Proofs of this conspiracy were adverted to as existing, but they are not to be found in the papers yet sent home. I request that you will furnish me with them as fully and completely as you can without delay. In making these inquiries, I beg to be understood as directing your attention to the principal points on which I desire to be informed, and not as prejudging any person concerned in any proceeding. I have, etc.,

EDWARD CARDWELL.

In reply, Gov. Eyre wrote:

As the various officers who were engaged in command of detachments during the rebellion are now more or less scattered, and the chief in command, Brig.-Gen. Nelson, is absent from the colony, it is possible that some delay may take place before all can be referred to, and thus some of the information sought may not be procurable at once. I will, however, transmit to you whatever reports or explanations may reach me as quickly as possible after receiving them, without waiting until the whole are ready. In the mean time I forward a report from Col. Fyfe, in command of the Maroons, in reference to the very extraordinary allegations made against them in Sir L. McClintock's official report to the Admiralty. I can only say that until I saw that despatch I never heard even the most distant rumor that the Maroons had behaved in the way alleged, and I cannot imagine upon what data Sir L. McClintock based his opinion. I have written to Vice-Admiral Sir J. Hope to request he will call upon Commodore Sir L. McClintock to explain the grounds upon which his statement was made, but there is little probability of my receiving it in time for the present mail. In colonial communities fabrications and exaggerations of the grossest kind are constantly being circulated either for sheer wantonness, from a desire to appear important in the eyes of those to whom the statements are made, or from worse motives. These *canards* are very generally circulated by the local press, and often obtain currency and credence at a distance; but an officer in Sir L. McClintock's position ought not to take notice of any such unauthorized rumors, or embody in an official report opinions conveying such injurious reflections upon a race which had so recently rendered such valuable service to the colony without being very sure that his opinions were well founded. That improprieties or acts of wrong have been committed during the existence of martial law I do not doubt. It was only to be expected this

should be so, but I trust it will be found eventually that these instances have been comparatively few, and have either been unknown to and unsanctioned by the officers immediately in command, or have taken place under the pressure of circumstances which, if not justifying, may, at least in some degree, palliate the irregularities committed. In reviewing the acts of the military and naval authorities in dealing with any rebels who were found in arms or in summarily disposing, after trial by court-martial of those who were taken prisoners, it is necessary to bear in mind that there were no prisons or gaols to which to send prisoners, and that some five hundred men were engaged in quelling a rebellion in districts, St. David, St. Thomas-in-the-East, and Portland, tenanted by a population of some forty thousand, and comprising upwards of five hundred square miles of country. Nor must it be forgotten that nearly the whole of this population, if not in actual rebellion, was sympathizing with the rebels, and taking no steps to arrest its progress or aid the authorities. It was impossible, under such circumstances, that they could either take charge of and guard any large number of prisoners, or make long delays to institute more formal trials. The administration of summary justice became a necessity, and any hesitation would have been fatal to the success of the military operations. Whilst regretting the necessity of, and deploring the evils unavoidably resulting from such a course of action, I do not see how it could have been avoided.

Further information enabled Gov. Eyre to add a postscript as follows:

Sunday, December 24th.

Since writing this despatch I have received an express from the Admiral containing Sir L. McClintock's explanation. You will be glad to learn that his opinion rested on no better grounds than mere rumors or unauthenticated reports and newspaper statements. I trust this instance will show how little to be depended upon information or opinions are when expressed by persons not having the opportunity of personal knowledge or of referring to authentic reports, and when the grounds are not given upon which such information or opinions rest. No doubt the tone and terms used in some of the reports by officers engaged in the field are not such as could have been wished, considering the grave events to which they relate; but great allowances must be made for the circumstances under which these reports were written, when harassed and worn out by the duties and anxieties of the day, and whilst the minds of the writers were still freshly impressed with the atrocious occurrences that had then so recently taken place, and which might again occur in other districts at any moment. But it is very hard that our soldiers and sailors, whose courage, zeal, and exertions have been the saving of Jamaica, should be so misrepresented and traduced, as I see they are, by a large section of their countrymen at home, who know nothing of the dangers or difficulties which had to be surmounted, or of the pressing necessity which existed for the most prompt and decisive action. I have now only to thank you for the confidence you have been pleased to express, pending further information, in my own character and in that of the military and naval officers concerned. As regards myself, I rest upon the conviction that I did my duty faithfully in not shrinking from undertaking a responsibility which few men would have accepted, and in doing which I was quite aware of what the consequences would be, so far as regards misrepresentation and vituperation, on the part of a very powerful party at home; but which action, on my part, I believed to be, and still believe to have been, essential to the preservation of Jamaica. I do not pretend to have acted within the strict trammels of the law, no man could under such circumstances; but I do not doubt being able to justify myself fully.

to her Majesty's Government, and those who are willing to take an unprejudiced view of all the circumstances and events. As regards the military and naval officers, I feel assured that they will be able fully to explain and justify occurrences which, from being insufficiently narrated, at present may appear to be of a somewhat doubtful character; and if in some of the details unavoidable irregularities or improprieties have occurred, the general nature of the operations will be found to have been just and necessary, and consistent with the high character so deservedly enjoyed throughout the world by British soldiers and sailors. I must ask your indulgence for any shortcomings in my correspondence, or for any omissions to transmit any documents which you may have thought ought to have reached you, as well as for the delay which must necessarily take place in procuring for you replies to the inquiries which you have made. During the existence of the rebellion there was no time to examine critically the hurried reports which were submitted to me for a very hasty perusal, and I had no reason for supposing that any unjustifiable acts were being committed. I have also stated in former despatches that nearly all these reports were transmitted to you immediately on their receipt, and that I had no copies of them, or any opportunity or time for referring to them again until the receipt of your despatches made it necessary for me to call for fresh copies. For the last ten weeks I have had an overwhelming pressure of work arising from the rebellion, and from the arrangements having to be made for the safety and tranquillity of the island; from the labors incidental to a most important session of the Legislature, under which a total alteration of the constitution has been effected; from all the ordinary current business of the island, and from the correspondence connected with the subordinate Governments of British Honduras and Turks Island. There has scarcely been a day, Sundays even not excepted, that I have not labored from ten to sixteen hours, and often have been called up in the middle of the night to do so also. This pressure and the anxiety attending my position have seriously affected my health, and I am sure that you will therefore view favorably any deficiencies which may have occurred in my correspondence relative to the late occurrence.

The third series of despatches is less important than the second. Gov. Eyre transmits two more addresses to himself from the inhabitants of the parishes of Manchester and Tre-lawn, referring to the riot at Morant Bay as a diabolical rebellion, and his replies, in which he states that these addresses will show her Majesty's Government that the foul aspersions of the English press are undeserved. He also forwards a despatch signed by five Missionaries of the Wesleyan, London, and Baptist Societies, in which, after expressing their unfeigned attachment to the Queen's person, the petitioners say: "We deeply lament the lawless and ferocious outbreak, which, as your Majesty must have been given to learn, took place in the eastern district of this island in the month of October last," and readily acquiesce "in the righteous condemnation and punishment of all who were wickedly concerned in it." At the same time, however, having been pained by the rumored cruel and barbarous proceedings of some of those who were engaged in the suppression of the riot, the petitioners implore the Queen that she "may be graciously pleased to direct a full and impartial investigation, by a special commission from England, to be made into the

matter, and also into the reasons for the allegation that there is scarcely a district or a parish in the island where disloyalty, sedition, and murderous intentions are not widely disseminated, and, in many instances, openly expressed, and that a seditious and disloyal spirit pervades the entire island."

In another despatch, Gov. Eyre, referring to Mr. Cardwell's inquiries respecting the manner in which Dr. Underhill's letter obtained publicity in the colony, denies Dr. Underhill's statement that he (Gov. Eyre) published it, and states that it is not surprising, considering the number of persons in whose hands the letter was placed for remark by the Governor, a copy should have got abroad.* The despatch covering the memorial of the missionaries, dated January 8th, is the last bearing Gov. Eyre's signature. On the same day Sir Henry K. Storks encloses the proclamations he issued on assuming office.

The despatches from Mr. Cardwell are fourteen in number, and are chiefly interesting on account of their enclosures. Among the latter is a letter to Mr. Cardwell from Mr. F. A. B. Vinen, complaining that he was arrested at Kingston without warrant or reason assigned, that not a semblance of a charge was ever made against him, that he was kept in prison, his health injured, and his practice broken up, and all this although he had carefully held aloof from public affairs. In two other despatches Mr. Cardwell disallows two Acts of the Jamaica Legislature, one establishing whipping as a punishment for larceny, and another enabling magistrates to "apprentice" persons under the age of sixteen convicted of petty larceny. Mr. Cardwell transmits to Sir Henry K. Storks a copy of a petition to the Queen from the inhabitants of the parish of St. Thomas-in-the-East, dated five weeks before the riots which broke out there, and which is as follows:

ST. THOMAS-IN-THE-EAST, Sept. 5, 1865.

To the Queen's Most Excellent Majesty:

We, your Majesty's most dutiful subjects, the freeholders of St. Thomas-in-the-East, Jamaica, having been informed that your Majesty has been pleased to investigate in the state of this island by some informations have been laid before the throne, upon which investigation the planters complain that the black people are lazy, and will not work, unto which we most humbly beg to implore your Majesty's attention to our humble communication. The planters give us thirty chains for our day's task, which we are unable to finish. We must state that when we were slaves we never had such heavy work, and after having finished those number of chains, with the expectation at the end of the week to obtain the amount of 6s., we generally gets 1s. 6d. to 2s. 6d. for the whole week's pay, which can't purchase us one day's food. Can this support our family? The island has been ruined, consequently, of the advantage that is taken of us by the managers of the estates. Another subject, which we most pitifully begs to implore your Majesty's attention. Whenever we have a case which may be taken before the planter magistrates they gives us no satisfaction whatever, but combines

* The Jamaica newspaper in which the letter first appeared, stated that it had received it from one of the custodes

with each other and takes away our rights. We must humbly beseech your Majesty that it may please your Majesty to appoint a stipendiary magistrate to sit at every court-day, as may enable us to obtain satisfaction. We have also to state that consequently the island has been abolished, all the sugar estates, coffee mountains, feeding and grazing farms, that were in cultivation in former days, have been thrown up, which has actually brought a famine upon the lands. There are many young persons that were from respectable connections have suffered very great adversities by not having to do, whereas if all those properties were in cultivation they could have had something to do. We pray that it may please your Majesty's grace to send the Americans to cultivate those thrown up properties, as may enable us to get something to do. All we ask is, that your Majesty may be pleased to consider over the state of this island, and render the poor some assistance. And that your Majesty's life may be long spared, and that the blessings of those ready to perish may rest on you. This is the sincere wish of your most humble petitioners.

(Signed)

ANDREW ROSS.
(And thirty-nine others).

JAPAN, an empire in Eastern Asia. The name of the Mikado is only known by the imperial princes. He resides at Miaco, in the principality of Kioto. The name of the Tycoon, or Temporal Regent, is Mino Motto; his residence Yeddo. The population is estimated at from thirty-five to forty millions of inhabitants.*

The Paris "Moniteur de l'Armée" gives the following information concerning the Japanese army: "The Japanese army is composed of two distinct elements, comprising:—1. The troops maintained by the feudal chiefs termed Daimios, for the purpose of defending their domains; and 2. The troops maintained by the Tycoon, which constitute the imperial army properly speaking. The number of the Daimios having troops in their service is 200, and these troops form an effective force of 370,000 infantry and 40,000 cavalry. These constitute the federal army, and are placed at the disposition of the Tycoon whenever the independence of the country is menaced. The imperial army usually maintained by the Tycoon was supposed to be 100,000 infantry and 20,000 cavalry, but its effective force did not in reality exceed half that number. The present Tycoon has, however, reorganized it. It will henceforth comprise 80,000 men—infantry, cavalry, artillery, and engineers. The infantry will be divided into regiments, they will manœuvre like our soldiers, and will also be armed *à la Française*. A certain number of Japanese officers and subalterns have been instructed by us at Yokohama, and are now going to instruct their countrymen."

The European settlements, during the year 1865, made marked progress. According to an English paper published in Japan, the Japan "Herald," a railroad, with a locomotive engine and tender, is now in operation on the Bund, at Nagasaki, and excites a great deal of attention

among the Japanese, who come from far and near to see it. The Prince of Satsuma has planted 40,000 mulberry trees during the past year, a significant fact, which shows his estimation of foreign commerce. He is also making considerable preparations for the improved manufacture of sugar at the Loo-choos, and is reported to have engaged a Scotch overseer to the works there, and imported the latest improved machinery. If reports be true, the local Daimios in the southern portion of Japan are all anxious to open their ports to foreigners, and to give them every encouragement and protection in their trading operations. In Yokohama a chamber of commerce was formed. Letters from that city describe changes made during the past twelvemonth as having been very great. That which was cultivated ground ten months before is now built over with camp huts and hospitals. Latterly the Japanese have made a good carriage road for the English, six or seven miles long, and there may be seen every afternoon all the *élite* of the place, riding, driving, or walking. Six months before there was not a carriage to be seen. The French Government decided to establish in Yokohama an arsenal.

According to a report of the British Consul, the value of the imports and exports of the three ports opened to foreign trade was, in the year 1863 and 1864, as follows: Imports for 1863, £755,871; exports, £1,667,741. Imports for 1864, £1,879,757; exports, £2,788,004.

The movement of shipping was, in 1863, as follows: Entered, 170 vessels (100 British, 40 American, 13 Dutch, 8 German, 7 French, 2 Russian); together, of 64,328 tons: Cleared, 168 vessels, of 61,210 tons.

The relations of Japan to the foreign Powers underwent, in the latter part of the year 1865, a most important change, which was expected to be the final death-blow to the exclusive anti-foreign policy of the Japanese Government. The representatives of Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands, being unable to obtain the fulfilment of former treaties, and their ratification by the Mikado, a fleet, consisting of five English, four French, and one Dutch vessels left Yokohama, on November 1st, for the Inland Sea. The British, French, and Dutch Ministers accompanied the expedition. The following account of the progress and result of the expedition is taken from the "Japan Market Report," which declares to have received it from an unquestionable source: "The Tycoon and his government had information (more or less) of the intention of the foreign representatives to visit Osaka. On the arrival of the fleet, the Tycoon was at Kioto, awaiting the final orders of the Mikado respecting Nagato. On the very day on which the foreign ships dropped anchor off Hiogo, he received a *djeen baori* (war dress) and a *tatehi* (war sword). The foreign ministers at once sent officers to Osaka to take to the Gorogio letters, in which were stated the requirements of the treaty

* For further information concerning the Government, commerce, etc., compare ART. JAPAN in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864.

powers, viz.: 1st. The ratification of the treaties by the Mikado. 2d. The opening of Osaka and Hiogo. 3d. The revision of the tariff. Two or three days afterwards the members of the Gorogio came themselves to Hiogo, and had an interview with our ministers. After relating what had been done to induce the Mikado to sanction the treaties, after having repeatedly asserted that without this sanction the execution of the treaties was almost impossible, they added the declaration that the question was a very dangerous one, on account of the hostile feelings entertained by many toward foreigners. At the close of a very long conference, the Gorogio promised to add their exertions to those of the Tycoon, and spare no trouble to obtain this sanction, which, they said, was 'as necessary to the Tycoon himself as to the foreigners.' Accordingly, the following day high officials were sent to Kioto; and meanwhile the officers of the various legations were at work at Osaka, busily employed in explaining and illustrating the intentions and fixed resolutions of the representatives. Our ministers considered that a prompt and energetic diplomatic action was requisite to effect the desired end. The Gorogio called again, and agreed with the ministers that the utmost efforts of the Tycoon and his government were indispensable, and that no time should be lost in discussing the matter with the council of the Mikado. Ten days were then given for a final reply. Whilst these negotiations were going on at Osaka, Kioto was in an indescribable state. Emissaries of the Daimios rushed in to counter-order the departure of the Tycoon. The Ronins made horrible threats against the life of the Tycoon, and even of the Mikado himself. The Mikado begged that the men-of-war should be removed at once, and declared he would not sanction the treaties. He then ordered the removal of Abe Bouno no Kami and Matsmai Idzumi no Kami from the Gorogio, and took from them their title of Kami. These two Daimios were ordered at once to retire to their dominions, and to express their regret for the favor they had shown to the foreign cause. The Tycoon and his government were stupefied at this unexampled audacity of Kioto; they thought that from such an act to the deposition of the Tycoon by the Mikado the distance was small. Osaka and Kioto were in a state of revolution. The foreign representatives were informed of all these changes, but they became more determined than ever, encouraged by the Tycoon and his ministers. A letter, which we hope we shall be permitted to publish in a few days, was to be sent to the Mikado. In this letter the Tycoon offered to retire, and begged that the Tyconate might fall into the hands of Stots-bashi, and the command of the army be intrusted to his relatives, the Daimios of Owari and Kichou. In order to prove to the Mikado and his court that he was in earnest, he ordered the eight Japanese steamers, at anchor before Hiogo, to move at once to Osaka, to be

ready to convey him to Yeddo. Happily this letter was stopped, and the Tycoon was told that it was a shame for himself, and a disgrace to his ancestors, to abdicate, when he was at the head of an army numbering 800,000 men—and to yield to a miserable faction, tyrannizing over the Mikado and his council. Another most remarkable document, which we shall probably be hereafter authorized to publish, was at once prepared and despatched to Kioto. In this masterpiece of Japanese literature the Tycoon entreats the Mikado to give his sanction; and, to support his diplomatic note, he moved with 84,000 of his best troops to Fou-chimi, about eight miles from Kioto. There he sent for some members of the Mikado's council; but the reply was, that the emissaries of hostile Daimios and the Ronins were in such a rage that it was unsafe for them to undertake the journey. The Mikado, indeed, gave the Tycoon to understand that his presence was necessary to protect his own sacred person. The Tycoon at once proceeded to Kioto, with 2,000 troops, ordered some Daimios' officers, apparently Ronins, and in the employ of high members of the Mikado's council, to be apprehended, and assembled all the representatives of the Daimios actually at Kioto. The excitement was great—the crisis fearful. The officers of the legations sent to Osaka, on a special mission, met only the stern and sorrowful faces of the Tycoon's followers, all more or less ready to perform the hara kari, should the Tycoon be compelled to retire. This painful excitement lasted three days. The representatives of the four powers, almost hourly informed of the state of affairs, were during all this time busily engaged day and night. The Japanese fleet was now ordered to leave Hiogo and Osaka, and take refuge in the Bay of Youra. The crisis was hourly approaching. The member of Gorogio, Ogasawara Iki no Kami, throughout the whole of the night of the 22d November discussed with thirty-six deputies of the Daimios the question of the sanction of the treaties. He succeeded in persuading them; but there were invisible enemies round the Mikado, and he himself feared for his life. At last, all the members of the Gorogio, the great metisks and high officials of the Tycoon, with Stots-bashi at their head, called on the Mikado, and prostrated themselves at his Majesty's feet. The Mikado was moved; but messages containing threats were brought in every minute, and the Sacred Emperor was still hesitating, when all the high officers declared they would die at once, should they not obtain what they had been sent for. Stots-bashi went so far as to take hold of the sleeve of the Mikado, respectfully swearing that he would not loosen his hold until his Majesty sanctioned the treaties. Finally, Kuambaku, the first officer of the Mikado, was directed to bring him the Book of the Irrevocable Wills—and the sanction was given. The change was instantaneous. Where all was fear and distrust, confidence and resolution became triumphant.

All congratulated each other on the issue of their patient labors—all expressed the strongest confidence in the future, and they could well say with the utmost truth, 'We have accomplished a good and a great work.'"

The accuracy of some parts of the above account has been questioned by some of the English papers of China and Japan, and later reports from Japan state that it was even doubted whether the Mikado had really ratified the treaties at all; but the Governments of England and France officially announced the fact, and seemed to be determined to enforce, if necessary, the treaties.

The representatives of the foreign Powers in Japan expected that the opening of the ports of Osaka and Hiogo would prove to be of more consequence than all the other privileges conferred by the treaties. Osaka is a very large town, covering a semicircle of nearly ten miles, at the eastern end of the Su-Wo Nada, or Inland Sea of Japan, and at the mouth of the river Engawa, which runs down from Miaco, the residence of the Mikado. Large white palaces, surrounded with trees, are scattered through it, and the thick line of junks constantly pressing into the river indicates that its trade is already very great. It is the port of Miaco, and by far the largest commercial emporium in Japan; but large vessels would have to anchor a considerable way off the shore, and would be exposed to the winds blowing up the Inland Sea. There are too many Daimios residing in this city, and the native population is too dense, to render it a desirable place of residence for foreigners. Hiogo is situated in a small protected bay at the feet of some fine mountains on the north shore of the Su-Wo Nada, and about twelve miles distant from Osaka. Large vessels can anchor off it, within biscuit-throw of the

beach; and were the bay only a little larger few places in the world would be more convenient for shipping and transshipping goods. The climate is exceedingly healthy, and the beautiful series of sea lakes in the neighborhood will afford fine opportunities for yachting.

One of the results of the above expedition is said to have been a more accurate knowledge of the true authority of the Tycoon, who, it is said, is not *the*, or *a*, Temporal Emperor of Japan, but a Daimio, who holds an hereditary office and rank, which has been for two hundred years vested in his office. He is almost always a son-in-law of the Mikado, a distinction of which only a few in Japan can boast. Being now able to negotiate on a clear basis, and having approached so near the capital of Japan, the foreign representatives expect greater stability in trade, as well as general advancement for the future.

Two new embassies were sent, in 1865, to Europe. The one to France, consisting of six members, was represented by the Paris "Pays" as coming to visit the arsenals, and study the questions relating to the armament and defence of forts, as well as to purchase all that is required for the arsenal which is to be established by the Tycoon at Simonosaki. The other, sent to England by the Prince of Satsuma, consisted of two officers of high rank, an interpreter, and eleven young men of good family and education, who are to remain in England for some years, in order to acquire a knowledge of the English language, and an insight into the literature, arts, and sciences which form such important elements in European civilization. For this purpose they were placed in the care of Professor Williamson, of the London University, under whose able guidance their studies were at once begun.

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KANSAS. The Legislature of Kansas met on January 12, 1865, and was organized by the choice of Republican officers in both branches by large majorities. Samuel J. Crawford was at the same time inaugurated Governor for the term ending in January, 1868, succeeding Thomas Carney, the previous incumbent of the office. The only elections held during the year were for members of the Legislature, which resulted largely in favor of the Republicans. More than half of the successful candidates, it is said, were persons who had served in the late war. In January the Legislature reelected James H. Lane U. S. Senator for six years from March 4, 1865.

The liabilities of Kansas for the year ending November 30, 1865, were as follows:

Amount of 7 per cent. bonds.....	\$204,000 00
" 6 per cent. funding.....	54,400 00
" 7 per cent. military.....	98,000 00
" 6 per cent. bonds, refunding taxes...	39,675 00
State warrants outstanding.....	50,455 92
Territorial warrants.....	10,963 11
Military.....	5,920 60
Penitentiary bonds.....	50,000 00
Total.....	\$517,413 73

The resources of the State at the same date were—

Liabilities for the year ending November 30, 1865.....	\$517,413 73
Amount of uncollected State tax.....	\$101,586 74
Territorial (uncertain).....	71,050 88
State military expenditures, General Government.....	100,000 00
Taxes levied for 1865.....	216,756 79
Due from General Government.....	12,852 00
Funds in the treasury.....	26,079 21
Territorial funds.....	85
	<u>557,776 43</u>

Balance of resources..... \$10,262 70

The State Auditor's estimate of current expenses for the year 1866 was \$98,738.10. The interest on the public debt and sinking fund, amounting to \$48,351.36, added to this, would make an aggregate of \$137,089.46 to be provided for.

In May, 1865, a census of the State was taken as a basis for a new apportionment. In all the counties but three, from which complete reports had not been received at the close of the year, the population was 135,807 against 100,749 in

1860, showing a gain of 85,058 in five years. In four counties there was a slight decrease of population; all the others showed an increase, varying from nearly a hundred per cent. in Leavenworth and Douglas Counties to two or three per cent. in Davis and Marshall. The above figures, however, do not adequately represent the population of Kansas at the present time. Since the census was taken the greater part of the volunteer soldiers from the State have returned to their homes, and the annual immigration, larger than for several years, is also to be taken into account. From these sources and from the natural increase, it is fair to suppose that the population has received sufficient accessions to bring it up to 150,000, a gain of fifty per cent. over the census of 1860.

Kansas furnished to the war seven regiments of infantry and nine of cavalry, and three batteries, all composed of white troops; also two colored regiments of infantry and one colored battery, making an aggregate of 19,584 men, classified as follows:

Original enlistments.....	13,381
Recruits.....	4,954
Veterans.....	777
Veteran recruits.....	40
Recruits in veteran organizations.....	179
Drafted men.....	102
Substitutes.....	258
Total.....	19,584

In addition to these, 228 men were enlisted in organizations not belonging to the State in 1865, bringing the aggregate of enlistments up to 19,812; and there were 3,190 men belonging to other States enlisted in Kansas organizations, which makes the grand total 23,002 men, equivalent to nearly a fourth part of the entire population at the commencement of the war. The entire vote of Kansas in 1861, as shown by the returns, was 11,971, and the entire vote by the returns of 1864 was 20,835, whence it appears that the State furnished nearly double as many soldiers for the war as the entire voting population in 1861, and almost as many as shown by the returns of 1864. On this subject Gov. Crawford remarks: "The State has furnished the Federal army more troops in proportion to her population than any other State in the Union; and the entire militia was always in readiness for immediate action in the field, and was all engaged in rendering efficient service in repelling the rebel army under Price from our border; and upon several occasions regiments and independent companies were in actual service, defending the border and frontier." A partial report of a Board of Commissioners appointed "to audit claims arising out of the Price raid in 1864," gives the following amounts:

Services rendered by regular and irregular militia.....	\$177,317 04
Material furnished.....	80,818 94
Transportation.....	14,846 46
Damage sustained.....	91,770 58
Miscellaneous.....	32,687 77
Total.....	\$396,941 04

The geological survey of Kansas by Professor

Swallow had not at the close of 1865 extended far beyond the southern and eastern portions of the State, but the results of his partial examinations indicate resources which can scarcely fail within a few years to build up a prosperous commonwealth. The soil is of a richness unsurpassed in any part of the territory of the United States, and capable of many years' culture before being exhausted; and the climate is healthy, and well calculated to cure many of the diseases prevalent in the Eastern States. The popular impression that a sufficient quantity of rain for agricultural purposes does not fall in Kansas is asserted to be entirely erroneous. From records kept at the military posts it appears that during the last forty years there has been a sufficiency of rain except in 1860; and the drought of that season would have been less severely felt had Kansas been provided, like the older States, with a surplus of food from former years. The coal formation of the State is of great extent and richness. One vein alone, having an average thickness of six feet, extends over an area of 17,000 square miles, and it is estimated will yield a hundred thousand million tons. There are besides this a number of others ranging from one to five feet in thickness. The central and western portions of the State contain apparently inexhaustible beds of gypsum, varying from fifteen to one hundred feet in thickness, and the value of which is incalculable. Of not less importance than the coal veins are the beds of iron ore which underlie a large portion of Kansas, and which are capable of producing a fine quality of metal. In several rivers in the southern part of the State which were explored by Professor Swallow, the crude ore had washed out from the banks and was scattered in their beds in enormous quantities. Kansas has also rich deposits of lead, and in several counties traces of petroleum have been discovered.

With a view of developing these great agricultural and mineral resources, the people of the State are now actively employed in establishing railroad communications with the Eastern and Pacific States. By the close of the year nearly fifty miles of the eastern division of the Union Pacific Railroad, which commences at Wyandotte, at the mouth of the Kansas River, and is destined to connect with the main line in western Nebraska, were completed. Surveys have been extended to the one-hundredth meridian, a distance of about three hundred and eighty-one miles, and there is now a party in the field making surveys of the Smoky Hill route, who are to extend their labors to Denver City, about five hundred and eighty-one miles from the eastern terminus of the road. The Atchison branch of the Union Pacific road is also well under way, and the first forty miles, it is supposed, will be completed by May 1, 1866. In addition to these enterprises, projects are already advanced for lines terminating at Galveston, on the Gulf of

Mexico, and Santa Fé. The troubles incidental to the first settlement of Kansas, the exigencies of the late civil war, and more recently the disturbances caused by the neighboring Indian tribes, have hitherto prevented the execution of any of these projects; but it is supposed that they will now be prosecuted with a degree of vigor which will insure their completion at no distant day. In aid of these enterprises a bill proposing to divide five hundred thousand acres of land, given to the State by Congress, among three railroad companies, has recently been introduced into the Kansas Legislature.

An important branch of industry in Kansas promises to be the production and manufacture of wool. A large portion of the State is well adapted to sheep-raising, and so profitable has this already proved that woollen mills are now in process of erection in Atchison. In addition to the stock now in the State, it is estimated that during 1866 from 75,000 to 100,000 sheep will be imported from various parts of the Eastern and Middle States.

Besides the great capabilities of Kansas for agricultural purposes, stock-raising, and wool-growing, she has another source of wealth, in relation to which but little is known, in the salt springs, which exist above Fort Riley, in the valleys of the Republican, Solomon, and Saline Forks. So abundant are these surface brines, and of such uncommon strength, as sensibly to affect the quality of the large streams of water which run through those valleys and empty into the Smoky Hill. These salines, which are of great benefit to the stock-raiser, whose flocks and herds require no salting, as in the Eastern States, have their centre, probably, near the confluence of the Solomon and Smoky Hill. This fact, however, can be determined only by sufficient borings. While the strength of the brines in this section has not as yet been tested from the wells beyond the influence of fresh water, there is little doubt as to their great strength and purity at a limited depth below the surface. This is evident not only from the geological features of the country, but from the great strength of the surface brines, and also from the incrustations of pure salt on the top of the ground, covering hundreds of acres, from three-eighths to half an inch in thickness. These remarkable formations come from brine oozing up from below, and not from surface flowings. The whole subsoil seems thoroughly impregnated with a constant upward tendency, so that crystallization succeeds crystallization on the removal of the salt already formed. Ordinary wells in this region, sunk from 25 to 30 feet below the surface, produce a brine more than three times the strength of sea-water, and from which a salt of remarkable purity is obtained. Chemical analysis proves that the brines of Kansas contain less than four per cent. of impure matter, showing in this particular a marked superiority over those of New York, Michigan, and other States. The dryness of the climate is also a favorable circum-

stance in aid of the successful manufacture of salt by what is now considered the cheapest and best method, evaporation. From these facts the conclusion is evident that Kansas is destined to become one of the greatest salt-producing States of the Union.

Early in October a convention of colored men met in Leavenworth for the purpose of memorializing the Legislature to submit to the people the question of striking the word "white" from the suffrage clause of the constitution. A resolution was framed to that effect, and the Convention adjourned to meet at Topeka in January, 1866. The Rev. Mr. Twine, a member of the Convention from Atchison, was in favor of asking the Legislature to submit the question in such form as to make intelligence the standard of qualification of suffrage among the colored people. He said he was satisfied that the loyal people of the country were ready to do justice to the colored people, but he did not want to admit to the ballot-box men of color who were wholly uneducated, and who were so ignorant as to be unable to comprehend the duties of citizens. He believed it to be not only the duty of the colored people to modify their action on the suffrage question in this form, but it was policy for them to do so; they would reach the object aimed at far sooner than by asking that all colored men should be admitted to suffrage without reference to their fitness to exercise that high privilege.

KENTUCKY. The effect of the war upon the population of the State of Kentucky is shown by a decrease. Official returns from the various counties previous to the war, made the number of the white males above twenty-one years to be 191,891. The number of white males between eighteen and forty-five years, called the "Enrolled Militia," numbered 137,211. The returns of the population at the beginning of the year 1865 showed the number of males over twenty-one years to be 169,749, and those between the ages of eighteen and forty-five 103,401; being a diminution in the former case of 21,642, and in the latter, representing the military strength, 33,810. This increased diminution of the latter is accounted for in part by the absence of the soldiers in the Federal armies at the time when the returns were prepared, and by the number who joined the Southern armies, which was estimated between fifteen and twenty thousand.

The enrolment of 1863 by the United States authorities of white males between the ages of 20 and 45 years numbered 112,742; and in 1864 numbered 113,410. The enrolment of "colored" males between the ages of 20 and 45 for 1864 numbered 20,083. Making an aggregate within the military age, of white and "colored" males, of 133,493.

The muster-rolls of the Adjutant-General's office make the number of men furnished by the State to the Federal armies, most of whom were three years' men, to be 63,975 white soldiers, on an enrolment of 113,410. The rolls

in the same office further show that 20,438 colored troops were mustered into the Federal service from the State. In addition, about 5,000 were enlisted preparatory to being mustered in; making the aggregate of colored troops 25,438. The increase in the colored troops above the enrolment was attributed to the disregard of age in their enlistment. Color was considered a sufficient qualification.

Thus, with a white and black population, between eighteen and forty-five years of age, amounting to 133,742, the State contributed to the Federal armies 89,413. Apart from this force, there were employed in the service of the State for various periods 13,526 militia, or State troops.

During the progress of the war, Kentucky expended in aid of the Federal Government, \$3,268,224. Of this sum there had been refunded to the State by the close of 1865, the amount of \$1,109,230. Leaving a balance in favor of the State of \$2,159,994. From this amount there is to be deducted the sum of \$713,695, being the State's proportion of the direct tax laid by act of Congress in 1861. Thus making the final balance against the United States \$1,553,353. In addition to these sums, the State expended nearly one million of dollars in maintaining home troops for local and State defence.

Notwithstanding these extraordinary expenditures, the public debt of the State on October 10, 1865, was smaller than on the same date in 1859, as appears by the following statement:

Amount, October 16th, 1859, of original State debt.....	\$5,098,356 80	
Amount of military debt.....	2,212,000 00	
Making.....	\$7,910,356 80	
Amount of original State debt redeemed.....	\$861,010 00	
Amount of military debt redeemed.....	1,795,000 00	
Making.....	2,656,010 00	
Leaving State debt outstanding and unpaid 10th October, 1865, Of this there is military debt...	\$417,000 00	\$5,254,346 80
Original State debt.....	4,837,346 80	5,254,346 80
Military debt as above.....	\$417,000 00	
Military loan from Sinking Fund.....	200,000 00	
Military loan from Enrolled Militia.....	20,000 00	
Military loan from Farmers and Bank of Kentucky.....	140,000 00	
Total military debt, 23d November, 1865.....	\$777,000 00	

To meet this indebtedness, the resources of the Sinking Fund are estimated by the Auditor at \$7,510,487.

The assessment of taxable property in the State has steadily declined from 1861 to 1866, until the aggregate depreciation reaches \$109,046,461. This decline has been ascribed to the destruction of slave property, to the reduced rates at which property was held at the date of assessment, owing to the insecurity of person

and property, and to the immense amount swept away by the movement of armies in the State. This steady decline in the value of taxable property is strikingly shown by the following statement from the Tax Commissioners' books:

YEAR.	Land.	Value of Land.	Town Lots.	Value of Town Lots.	Slaves over 16.	Total Slaves.	Value of Slaves.	Horses and Mares.	Value of Horses and Mares.	Males.	Value of Males.	Females.
1861.....	21,709,353	\$224,656,910	47,471	\$51,508,004	99,488	213,724	\$38,704,693	838,227	\$22,087,718	95,532	\$5,694,621	5,181
1862.....	21,145,231	174,187,968	45,731	41,143,788	95,605	213,247	57,293,493	839,120	17,949,088	93,840	4,242,408	5,125
1863.....	20,919,189	183,151,296	46,744	47,087,010	95,545	208,715	57,511,770	855,959	16,842,508	88,683	4,095,815	5,564
1864.....	18,129,109	193,145,226	45,451	56,145,757	92,603	206,937	84,179,246	823,165	17,024,945	71,851	4,409,908	4,459
1865.....	17,773,146	197,676,721	43,560	61,888,473	86,553	153,514	7,924,831	299,160	16,641,515	53,873	4,176,246	3,983

STATEMENT CONTINUED.

YEAR.	Value of Females.	Cattle.	Value of Cattle over \$50.	Value of Slaves.	Value of Valuable.	Value of Cattle and Valuable.	Value of Gold and Silver etc.	Value of Farms.	Total value return.	White Males over 21 years.	Enrolled Militia.
1861.....	\$506,701	692,797	\$4,510,666	4,513	\$1,933,565	\$1,911,285	\$587,416	\$684,319	\$468,568,623	191,391	137,311
1862.....	500,851	670,777	3,492,631	4,109	1,420,771	\$21,411	504,896	500,298	384,917,160	182,246	120,893
1863.....	274,610	661,563	3,849,618	3,705	1,381,118	974,523	512,050	594,815	372,963,049	177,374	119,889
1864.....	283,852	563,797	3,940,288	4,038	1,247,281	976,685	515,908	601,390	375,123,766	169,180	104,125
1865.....	167,528	520,703	3,267,247	4,230	1,097,132	1,023,719	500,308	703,259	339,717,161	169,749	103,401

STATEMENT CONTINUED.

A system of measures for the reorganization of the militia was commenced during the year. It was intended that each county shall organize a company of good men who would be ever ready to support the civil authorities when any occasion might require their services.

At the commencement of the year many circumstances existed which produced an unsettled condition of affairs in the State. The guerrilla bands were active, notwithstanding the efforts of the Federal authorities to expel them. The question of emancipation was still undecided, and the tendency of the military operations in the State was to demoralize the slave and render him worthless to his master; thus, from interest, bringing him to the side of emancipation. The railroads, especially of the State, were at this time all in the hands of Government agents, and every negro was allowed to pass over them to the borders of the State. The political parties were without organization or a system of policy to be pursued. The Union Convention, which assembled at Frankfort on June 4th, requested the representatives of the State in Congress to vote in favor of the Constitutional amendment abolishing slavery, and expressed its opinion that the slave code of the State should be revised, repealed, or modified so as to be in accordance with the state of affairs in Kentucky. In February Maj.-Gen. S. G. Burbridge, who had been in command of the Federal forces in the State, was relieved, and Maj.-Gen. John M. Palmer appointed to succeed him. The former was in sympathy with the extreme radical men, who were very much displeased at the change. But it was made on other than political considerations, and in compliance with an application from the Governor and Legislature. The State troops had proved most efficient and successful in hunting down guerrilla bands, and met with success where the Federal troops had failed. This success was explained by saying that in fighting guerrillas it would not answer to adhere to the regulations which governed an army. A different school of tactics was required. The outlaws must be fought on their own principles. The soldier educated in his profession feels perfectly lost while engaged in "bushwhacking," which requires a thorough knowledge of the country and great despatch in movements. The retiring General opposed these State organizations, and was not sustained by the Government in his opposition.

The great evils resulting from guerrillas and internal disorders is more clearly manifested by the action of the State Legislature, which appointed a committee to proceed to Washington, to confer with the President and Secretary of War on the defence of the State. Their report was made on February 14th, in which they relate their conference with the Federal authorities. The President and Secretary of War manifested every reasonable desire to extend to Kentucky the protection which the committee desired, and requested plans to be submitted. The committee proposed to raise State troops for the destruction of guerrillas and the pacification of the State, on the ground that the citizens generally were unarmed, and the victims daily of rapine and murder. Discharged soldiers could not go home through fear of being

robbed and murdered. If the militia of the State were called out for the purpose, it was proposed that the Federal Government should arm, equip, supply, and pay them, and a Federal commander should be appointed over them. Again it was proposed that the troops already raised under the sanction of the Secretary of War, should be retained in the service and not disbanded, and Gen. Burbridge had ordered that in future the commander of the district should "be inhibited from interfering with, or controlling any portion of the militia of the State, when in the service of the State, at the expense of the State, and under the provisions of its constitution and sanction of the State Laws." The reply of the Secretary was that a plan for the military administration of the State and for the necessary protection of the people, was a subject to which the attention of the department was earnestly devoted, and no effort would be spared to accomplish the desired object. He further added: "It is obvious that without a concurrence of the Federal and State authorities, little can be done by the Federal Government to relieve the troubles in Kentucky, which, if they do not originate in, appear to be greatly aggravated by, domestic disputes and controversies. While no efforts will be spared, on the part of the Federal Government, to conform its views and action to the pressing exigencies presented by the state of affairs in Kentucky, it is hoped that there will be a cordial disposition to aid those efforts by the State authorities and the people."

The Legislature of the State, however, in March, adopted an act for reorganizing the militia, which it divided into three classes: 1. The active militia; 2. The enrolled militia; and 3. The militia of the reserve. The latter was composed of all white males less than eighteen and over forty-five years of age, and such persons as were otherwise exempt from service in the enrolled militia, and were liable to be called into service only in case of extreme danger.

The active militia was styled the "Kentucky National Legion," and was composed of all companies organized under the act. It was organized into companies, battalions, regiments, and brigades, and could be called into active service by the Governor at any time during the continuance of the war, in case of actual or threatened invasion, or apprehended insurrection and obstruction of the execution of the laws.

The enrolled militia consists of all able-bodied white male residents or citizens between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, except members of the active militia and such persons as are exempt from military service by the laws of the United States or of the State, to be enrolled by the assessor in each county, and recorded by the county clerk, who should, prior to the 1st day of September in each year, make return to the adjutant-general, stating the number of the enrolled militia in the county, and a list of such of them as were members of the active militia. On every enrolled militia-man who does not

become, within ten days after the passage of the act, a member of the active militia, there should be assessed in lieu of military service the sum of five hundred dollars annually, to be collected as the county levy, and to be paid into the State treasury, to be kept as a distinct militia fund. This act was repealed at the extra session in May.

Subsequently, on April 29th, Gen. Palmer issued the following order:

HEADQUARTERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF KENTUCKY, }
April 29.

The functions of the civil courts in this Department being, to a certain extent, suspended by martial law, makes it the duty of every officer to be scrupulously observant of public and individual safety, and to afford, as far as possible, complete protection to the people.

The power of arrests will hereafter be sparingly exercised, and directed against the real offenders. There is no justice in pursuing foolish people for a foolish word. There is no longer in this Department, hostile to the Government, an organization which deserves to be characterized as a military band. Those patrolling through the country are simply guerrillas and robbers, and are to be treated as such. They will be allowed to surrender for trial.

The people of this Department are to be protected without regard to color or birthplace. Complaints reach these headquarters of the beating of women for claiming the benefit of the amnesty oath, and the act of Congress freeing the slaves of all persons who have been in rebellion against the Government of the United States; and who have aided the rebellion against the Government of the United States; and who have aided or given any comfort to those in rebellion; and the joint resolution freeing the wives and children of enlisted men, and others who have acquired the right under the laws, the executive proclamation, and military orders.

All such persons are under the protection of the Government. Colored people within the laws, resolutions, proclamations, and orders referred to, are free; and, whether free or not, are to be protected from cruelty and oppression in all cases.

When the state of the country and the organization and rules of civil tribunals will permit them to enforce justice, offenders against the local laws will be handed over to them for trial.

In no case, however, will any person or court be allowed to deprive any one of his or her liberty under the acts, resolutions, proclamations, and orders above referred to, or to harass, by persecution or otherwise, those who may desert the enemy, in earning a support or maintaining their rights.

By command of Maj.-Gen. JOHN M. PALMER.

J. BATES DICKSON, Captain, A. A. G.

The disturbance from guerrillas, however, continued until the surrender of the Confederate armies; and on May 1st the old command of Gen. John Morgan surrendered to Brig.-Gen. E. H. Hobson, at Mount Sterling.

The force consisted of about one thousand men and one hundred and five officers, and was commanded by Col. Giltner. For some days they held out against Gen. Hobson's terms, demanding to be received and treated as prisoners of war, to retain all private property, horses, side-arms, etc., to take no oath to support the Government, but return to their allegiance to the United States Government whenever the Confederate Government should no longer claim an existence, or the right to re-

move to some other country, claiming a safe transit thereto.

These terms Gen. Hobson declined to grant, and they not being exactly in a position to dictate terms, finally surrendered unconditionally. The officers, however, were allowed to retain their side-arms. The men appeared as if they had seen hard service, scarcely one having a complete uniform. An order was also issued by Maj.-Gen. Thomas, offering the same terms as those upon which Gen. Lee surrendered. It produced the desired effect. The leaders, Patterson and Norwood, surrendered at Decatur, Ala., on May 8d, and Gen. Roddy accepted the same terms. Col. Malone, at the head of a considerable command near Clarksville, Ky., and afterwards at Springfield, also Harper, in the vicinity of Gallatin, took advantage of the same order. In a short time the invaders entirely disappeared.

On the return of disbanded Southern soldiers to their homes in Kentucky and other States which had resisted the South, the question was at once raised, "whether the Confederate officers and soldiers surrendered under the terms agreed upon by Gens. Grant and Lee had a right to return to their homes in loyal States." The terms of surrender provided for the surrender of arms, the paroles to be given by the officers, etc., and said, "This done, each officer and man will be allowed to return to their homes, not to be disturbed by the United States authorities so long as they observe their parole and the laws in force where they may reside." Nothing is said in this agreement about the locality of the homes of the officers or men. But the Secretary of War soon submitted to the Attorney-General (Speed) this question for his opinion. In reply, he says:

The rebels were dealt with by Gen. Grant as belligerents. As belligerents their homes were, of necessity, in the territory belligerent to the Government of the United States. The officers and soldiers of Gen. Lee's army, then, who had homes prior to the rebellion in the Northern States, took up their residences within the rebel States and abandoned their homes in the loyal States; and when Gen. Grant gave permission to them, by the stipulation, to return to their homes, it cannot be understood as a permission to return to any part of the loyal States.

This was followed by the following order from the War Department:

General Order No. 63.

WAR DEPARTMENT, ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE, }
WASHINGTON, April 24, 1865.

The attention of all commanders of military divisions, departments, districts, detachments, and posts, is drawn to the annexed opinion of the Attorney-General, which they will observe, and regulate their action in accordance therewith.

By order of the Secretary of War.

W. A. NICHOLS, A. A. G.

By taking the oath of allegiance the force of the order was set aside, and finally caused no practical restraint.

But the disorganization of labor continued. The inevitable tendency of events was steadily toward emancipation. The negroes were prac-

tically free, although this freedom was unsanctioned by the State. The master could no longer hold his slaves or depend upon their labor for a single day, hence producers could not estimate their crops or pursue agriculture with any certainty. Becoming restless and dissatisfied the slaves would forsake their homes and direct their steps toward the Federal headquarters at Louisville, as the Mecca where freedom might be found. Thus they became outcasts and wanderers. The cities and towns throughout the State were, in the spring, crowded with these refugees from labor, and the numbers still continued to increase. The inhabitants found themselves unable to feed the large surplus population suddenly thrown upon them, and want and suffering soon began to appear, and to be followed by demoralization and crime. By enlistment over 22,000 of the most valuable slaves in the State had gone into the Federal service, and recruiting officers were actually at work to gather up the few thousands of this class still remaining. Even old men and boys were found to be fit for duty in invalid regiments, and were taken, in March from seventy to one hundred men enlisting daily. At this time General Palmer issued the following order:

General Order No. 10.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF KENTUCKY, }
LOUISVILLE, Ky., March 12, 1865. }

The General commanding announces to the colored men of Kentucky that by an act of Congress passed on the 3d day of March, 1865, the wives and children of all colored men who have heretofore enlisted or who may hereafter enlist in the military service of the Government are made free.

This act of justice to the soldiers claims from them renewed efforts, by courage, fortitude, and discipline, to win a good name to be shared by a free wife and free children. To colored men not in the army it offers an opportunity to join freedom for themselves and their posterity.

The rights secured to colored soldiers under this law will, if necessary be enforced by the military authorities of this Department, and it is expected that the loyal men and women of Kentucky will encourage colored men to enlist in the army, and, after they have done so, recognize them as upholders of their Government and defenders of their homes, and exercise toward the helpless women and children made free by this law that benevolence and charity which has always characterized the people of the State.

By command of Maj.-Gen. PALMER.
J. P. WATSON, Captain and A. A. G.

At the same time camps of rendezvous for the reception of colored recruits were established at Bowling Green, Covington, Henderson, Maysville, Smithland, Columbus. At an average of five persons, wife and children, per man, there were from three to five hundred made free daily through the instrumentality of the army.

This state of facts was presented as an argument for the adoption by the State Legislature of the amendment to the Federal Constitution abolishing slavery. It was said that the adoption of this measure would quiet the minds of the negroes. Those who had forsak-

en their homes would return, and those still at home would remain to till the soil. While in a state of transition, the present disturbed relations of capital and labor must continue, but by freeing the slaves at one blow and getting at the bottom of the question, it would end. A reorganization of labor could then be made on a new basis. It was further urged that it was clearly the intention and policy of the Federal Government to make every black person in the country free, and to secure to every one his own body and his own labor; and the sooner Kentucky made up her mind to accept the new order of things and to establish labor upon a free and paid basis, the better it would be for her.

In reply, it was admitted as one of the facts wrought out by the war, that slavery must end, and that the proposed amendment to the Constitution was the most direct, practical, and legitimate mode by which to escape the existing and impending evils of an interregnum in labor, a dearth in industry, and a suspension of production. But by thus acting, the people of Kentucky would have to give up what they valued at many millions of dollars, and to overcome the educated habits and prejudices fostered by the country. Kentucky had contributed her proportion with all the Northern States to the war. The emancipation of slaves cost those States no sacrifice of interest, no immolation of habits, no conquest of prejudices, no disturbance of social relations, no breaking up of economical arrangements, no inconvenience or loss whatever. Besides the direct loss to Kentucky, she also incurred the perils, inconveniences, and additional losses which ever result from the sudden breaking up of long and peacefully established social and economical relations and interests.

Notwithstanding all considerations of a military, civil, social, or economical nature that had been raised up, the Legislature of the State, on February 23d, refused by resolution to adopt the amendment. The resolution was sent to Gov. Bramlette for his approval, which he declined to give, as he considered the action of the Legislature complete without his assent, and that the question would only be remitted to their successors. He believed that the amendment would continue an open question until it was finally ratified, and added:

The destruction of \$108,000,000 of slave property by the direct and indirect action of our Government, our unyielding fidelity to our Government, and loyal submission of our people to such action, though we could see no real necessity for or benefit to be derived from such destruction to our national cause, would constitute such strong claim upon the justice and magnanimity of the Congress of the United States as to justify the reasonable expectation that an appropriation would be made to free Kentucky immediately and forever from this disturbing question.

The act of Congress of February 24, 1864, entitled every Union master whose slave enlisted, a compensation of three hundred dollars. This sum was to be awarded by a commission

which "the Secretary of War shall appoint." In pursuance of this law, commissions were appointed for Delaware and Maryland, but none for Kentucky. In January, 1865, the Senate of the United States adopted a resolution making inquiry respecting the appointment of these commissioners as provided; and in response to that resolution, Secretary Stanton said, that, while appointments had been made for Maryland and Delaware, "in the other slave States, by the President's direction, no appointments have yet been made."

The act further provided that the compensation should be paid out of the commutation fund, which in December, 1865, amounted to more than twelve millions of dollars.

The emancipation question continued to be the most exciting topic of discussion in the State, until it was finally settled by the ratification of the constitutional amendment by the number of States required to make it valid. The effect of the agitation, together with the military measures of the Government, upon the value of slave property, caused a decline from \$34,179,246 in July, 1864, to about \$3,850,000 in July, 1865. This was the result of the returns on the books of the tax assessors. On the other hand the friends of emancipation urged as follows:

As to the effect of emancipation in Kentucky, no argument can be so convincing as the rapid increase in the value of real estate in the State of Maryland and the District of Columbia since the abolition of slavery there.

The value of the land in Maryland has enhanced already to an extent that more than compensates for the pecuniary value of the slaves emancipated; and in the city of Washington the increase in the value of real estate and taxable property since the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, has been unparalleled and unprecedented. Nor is this prosperity merely apparent and attributable to the inflated condition of the national currency, as some are ready to charge. The gold valuation of real property in the city of Washington is now more than fifty per cent.—perhaps a hundred—greater than it was four years ago. Such also will be the effect in Kentucky. Nor is anything to be feared from the temporary disturbance to the labor system of our State which the extinction of slavery will effect. The laws of labor, like the laws of trade, will regulate themselves. The freed slave must have bread, and to get it he must work. He will work where his labor is most in demand and best requited, and the cost of his labor to his employer will be much less than it ever has been to his owner. The examples of the States of Indiana, Ohio, and Illinois, where negroes have long performed a large part of the unskilled labor of the city and the country, may be cited in proof of this. Negroes have never been drones upon society there, and they never will be here.

The State election was held on August 7th. The issue was between those who advocated the amendment of the Federal Constitution abolishing slavery, who were termed Unionists, and those opposing the amendment, who were termed Conservatives. The latter, at one of their conventions to nominate a candidate for Congress, thus expressed their views:

That no power has been delegated by the Constitution to the Government of the United States to

emancipate the slaves of any State; that such power is, therefore, reserved to the States respectively, or the people; and that we, as Kentuckians, claim the same right on this subject which has been heretofore exercised by the non-slaveholding States, constituting a part of the United States, and a part of our National Government and Union, and that we are now unwilling to delegate any such power to the Government or Congress of the United States, or in any manner to place it in the power of that body to prescribe the terms upon which the slaves of Kentucky shall be emancipated, and determine the social and political rights they shall enjoy. We are, therefore, decidedly opposed to the adoption and ratification of the amendment recently proposed by Congress to the Constitution of the United States, granting powers to the National Government on the subject of slaves and slavery in the United States.

That the enlistment of slaves to serve in the armies of the United States, and compelling them to serve, is the taking of private property for public use, and for which the Constitution requires that a just compensation shall be made, and we cannot perceive the justice of that policy on the part of the Government which continues the enlistment of slaves when vast armies of white men are about to be discharged; nor can we perceive the justice or the humanity of the policy which congregates thousands of negro women and children, at different posts and camps in Kentucky, to be supported at public expense, when the wives and children of white soldiers actively engaged in putting down the rebellion have not been in any manner provided for.

At the Union Convention at the capital for the nomination of a State treasurer, Gen. Palmer, the Federal military commander, was present, and made an address as follows:

You will receive the assistance of the General Government in the proper use of the Government patronage. I am authorized to say, that I know it is true, that the Administration desires that its powers will be employed for the support of the true Union party of this State. But that patronage must be directed and controlled by you.

The next point is, you will be protected all over the State of Kentucky. To secure this, there must be an active political organization, to the support of which these forces can be directed. It must be active in all parts of the State; and I take it upon myself to say, and I say what I know to be true, that wherever in this State of Kentucky, during the coming canvass, the true, earnest Union men wish to appear and to speak, they shall be protected in speaking. The time has passed, in this country, when free speech is to be understood as the liberty of mouthing treason. If I desired an inscription upon my monument, after I have passed from this earth, it should be, "Here lies the champion of free speech." But that free speech does not imply that the traducer of the Government, and the defamer of the principles upon which it is founded, shall be protected in his lying utterances.

There are a certain class of questions that men may discuss, but there are questions that do not admit of discussion. You have the right to discuss the principles of the Government, and you have the right to freely criticize the actions of every public man, but you have no right, either with the bayonet or with a lying, slanderous tongue, to stab the vitals of the Government; and when the recording angel shall, at the last day, inquire into the conduct of men with respect to the deeds done in the body, the darkest and blackest recorded there will be the lying villainies embodied in words uttered by the friends of the traitors who have brought this war upon the country. I would not judge a man very closely by what he said. I would give him the benefit of a literal construction in the matter of words, but my idea is

that a man has no right to utter treason, not believing it, nor to utter treason, believing it. In one case he is simply a liar, and in the other he is a traitor. In either case those in power owe it to the loyal people of this State that his mouth shall be closed.

The freedom of elections will be maintained in this State. I am for the right of free suffrage to every man who has the right to exercise it. But there are some men who have forfeited that right. I understand that a gentleman from down the river, whose first name is that of the man who sat at the rich man's table, says that he has got the law so passed that shoulder-straps cannot interfere in the elections. Well, the shoulder-straps that would interfere illegally, ought to be taken off. It is true that once in a while the public safety is the law, and it may be necessary to lay the military hands gently upon traitors, that they may not get the advantage of the Union men; but that is an exception, just as the exercise of the right of self-defence is an exception in the case of individuals. The rule is, that the freedom of elections must be maintained and the laws of elections must be enforced. By the laws of your State certain classes of men are not entitled to vote. They are bound to keep the peace; and I am in favor of their continuing in bonds. I would propose that these bonds shall operate in the nature of naturalization laws.

The following order was also issued by the same commanding officer:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF KENTUCKY, }
LOUISVILLE, KY., July 26, 1865.

GENERAL ORDERS No 51.—The near approach of an important election, to be held in all the counties of the State and Military Department of Kentucky, renders it proper in the judgment of the General commanding to require all officers commanding troops to give to the officers of the State, charged by law with the duty of conducting elections, and to the legal voters of the State, the most complete protection.

Martial law prevails in the Department of Kentucky, and certain classes of persons are especially under military surveillance and control. These are:

1. All rebel soldiers, whether paroled or not, and without regard to the fact that they have or have not taken any of the oaths prescribed by law, or executive or military orders, or have registered under orders from the headquarters of the Department of Kentucky.

2. All guerrillas and others who, without belonging to regular rebel military organizations, have taken up arms against the Government, or have in any way operated against the Government or people of Kentucky, or any other State or Territory.

3. All persons who, by act or word, directly or indirectly, gave aid, comfort, or encouragement to persons in rebellion. This applies to all persons who have voluntarily acted as scouts or spies for rebel or guerrilla forces; who have voluntarily furnished any rebel force or person with information, food, clothing, horses, arms, or money, or have harbored, concealed, or otherwise aided or encouraged them.

4. All deserters from the military or naval service of the United States who did not return to said service or report themselves to some provost marshal within the sixty days limited in the proclamation of the President of the United States, dated the 11th day of March, 1865; and all persons who deserted from the military or naval service of the United States after the 3d day of March, 1865, and all persons duly enrolled who departed the jurisdiction of the district in which they were enrolled, or went beyond the limits of the United States to avoid any draft. All persons who were, or have been, directly or indirectly engaged in the civil service of the late so-called Confederate Government, or of the so-called Provisional Government of Kentucky, or who have in any way voluntarily submitted to either of said

pretended governments—all agents or contractors with or for either of the said pretended governments—all such persons are disqualified from voting by the laws of the State of Kentucky and the act of Congress of March 3, 1865. All persons of the classes aforesaid are required to abstain from all interference with elections, and will, if they shall in any manner interfere therein, by voting or attempting to vote, or by persuading any other person to vote, or by appearing at the polls, be at once arrested and held for military trial.

It will be given to the civil authorities to enforce the laws and to preserve the peace. Any person who shall counsel, advise, or encourage any judge of any election, or any other person, to disregard or disobey the law, as declared in the proclamation of the Governor of the State, will be at once arrested. The peace of the country can be secured only by obedience to the law.

By command of Maj.-Gen. JOHN M. PALMER.

E. B. HARLAN, Capt. and A. A. G.

Official: BEN. W. SULLIVAN, Lt. and Act. A. A. G.

Gov. Bramlette also issued the following proclamation:

COMMONWEALTH OF KENTUCKY, EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, }
FRANKFORT, KY., July 19th, 1865. }

To the Officers of Elections:

The purity of the elective franchise can only be preserved by a faithful enforcement of the laws governing the same. For their enforcement the officer will be held responsible. Every free white male citizen, twenty-one years of age, who has resided in Kentucky two years, and whose residence has been in the district where he offers to vote for sixty days preceding the election; and each male white citizen who, not having two years' residence in the State, but has resided one year in the county and sixty days in the precinct where he offers to vote, next preceding the election, is entitled to vote; provided he has not expatriated himself and lost the elective franchise by coming within the provisions of the following act:

CHAP. 509.—An Act to amend Chapter 15 of the Revised Statutes, entitled "Citizens, Expatriation, and Aliens."

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the Commonwealth of Kentucky, That any citizen of this State who shall enter into the service of the so-called Confederate States, in either a civil or military capacity, or into the service of the so-called Provisional Government of Kentucky, in either a civil or military capacity, or having heretofore entered such service of either the Confederate States or Provisional Government, shall continue in such service after this act takes effect, or shall take up or continue in arms against the military forces of the United States or the State of Kentucky, or shall give voluntary aid and assistance to those in arms against said forces, shall be deemed to have expatriated himself, and shall no longer be a citizen of Kentucky; nor shall he again be a citizen, except by permission of the Legislature, by a general or special statute.*

SEC. 2. That whenever a person attempts, or is called on, to exercise any of the constitutional or legal rights and privileges belonging only to citizens of Kentucky, he may be required to negative, on oath, the expatriation provided in the first section of this act; and upon his failure or refusal to do so, shall not be permitted to exercise any such right or privilege.

SEC. 3. This act to be of force in thirty days from and after its passage.

All persons challenged as coming within the provisions of this law should be required to take the following oath, prescribed by my predecessor, and which is in conformity with the law:

OATH. You do solemnly swear that you have not since the 10th day of April, 1863, been in the service of the so-called "Confederate States" or in the "Provisional Government of Kentucky," in either a civil or military capacity, and that you have not given, directly or indirectly, voluntary aid and assistance to those in arms against the Government of the United States, or the State of Kentucky, or those who were intending to join the armed forces of the so-called "Confederate States," and that you will bear true and faithful allegiance to said Governments of the United States and State of Kentucky; so help you God.

Absence from the place of residence in the service of the country, or from any other cause where no intention existed to change the residence, will not exclude from voting if present at the election precinct where his residence is on the day of election.

Absence without any purpose of changing the residence, keeps the residence of such person in his voting precinct.

Loyal men throughout the State are requested to report to the Governor any disregard of the expatriation law, either upon the part of officers or citizens, giving the names of the offenders, that they may be proceeded against for such violation. The officer who shall fail to discharge his duty, as prescribed by law, or the citizen who, not being entitled to vote, shall do so in violation of law, should be promptly reported, that the proper steps may be taken for his punishment. These plain words are spoken, that none may act upon the supposition that they will be permitted with impunity to disregard the laws made to guard and protect the purity of the elective franchise, or override the lawfully established sovereignty of the people.

The military authorities will assist the civil officers in the enforcement of these instructions, if any attempt be made to violate them, upon application to the officer nearest in command.

THOS. E. BRAMLETTE, Governor.

The result of the election was, that in the Legislature parties formed a tie in the Senate, while in the House the Conservatives had a majority of sixteen. Of nine members of Congress elected, five were Conservatives and four Unionists. The popular vote for these members was divided as follows: Conservative, 57,562; Unionist, 54,008. The Conservative candidate, James H. Garrard, was elected State Treasurer.

There were many complaints of the interference of the military with the election, of which a Union paper in Cincinnati, the "Commercial," thus remarked:

It is not becoming that a file of soldiers shall stand before the polls, and that officers of the army of the United States shall hold lists of those who are proscribed, made out by irresponsible persons, and prevent them from approaching the ballot-box. That this was done in Kentucky, there is ample and conclusive evidence; and the flavor of this business is too nearly that of the border ruffian outrages in Kansas, to permit it to be passed in silence by any honest journalist. * * * * *

Persons competent to testify—those familiar with the people—conversant with all the facts and in full sympathy with the Union cause—assure us that in Kenton and Campbell Counties there were many of the best Union men who did not go near the polls, fearing to cast a vote under military surveillance.

The acts of interference with the election were subsequently investigated by the grand juries in several counties in compliance with the laws of the State. Indictments against military officers and others were found in several counties, and in one the number of indictments exceeded a hundred.

Other difficulties arose between the military and civil authorities. In order to relieve some of the towns of the crowds of blacks, Gen. Palmer ordered all common carriers to transport all colored applicants upon the presentation of a pass from the military and a tender of the fare. The laws of the State meanwhile

prohibited, under heavy penalties, the transportation of slaves. This order opened a passage across the Ohio River for large numbers of slaves. In another case the Judge of the City Court of Louisville ordered a slave to be sent to the workhouse, under a law of the State, "until his master should give bail that he would not be suffered to go at large and hire himself out as a free man." Whereupon an order was issued by Gen. Palmer to the keeper of the workhouse, requiring him to release the slave, upon the ground that in the then existing unsettled condition of slavery in Kentucky, the master was practically relieved from his obligation to the law, inasmuch as the penalties of the law were not then ordinarily enforced against the master himself; and further, that as the master had lost his interest in the slave, the confinement of the latter would be perpetual. On another occasion, where the Mayor of Lexington had issued, on October 17th, an order threatening legal proceedings against the owners or claimants of the slaves who had congregated in that city, the General instructed his subordinate in command at Lexington, as follows: "You will inform the Mayor of the city of Lexington that you are instructed to protect the people of his city from the violence he invites; that no portion of them can be seized and removed from that city at the mere will of persons who may choose to call themselves 'owners and claimants'; that, without discussing the question whether there is in point of law any person in the State who can truthfully be called the owner of any other person, that the discharged soldiers and wives and children of soldiers now in the service of the country, are under the special protection of the military authorities, and all the people of the State are presumed to be free, and will be protected as free until orders are received to the contrary.

"It is not our business to suggest the proper policy to be pursued toward these often imaginary congregations of colored persons claimed to be slaves, but I venture to say that if the skill and energy which is employed in devising safe methods of harassing them, was directed to their protection, and finding employment for them, 'the evil' would become of far less 'magnitude.'"

These facts, with many others which are unimportant here, except as they serve to illustrate the condition of affairs in the State, led to an application by the Governor to the President for the removal of Palmer, but without success. A suit was also commenced against the latter in the name of the State, for aiding slaves to escape. This suit, however, was dismissed by the Judge, Johnston, on the ground that the requisite number of States had adopted the Constitutional amendment before the indictment was found, therefore all criminal and penal acts of the Legislature of Kentucky relating to slavery were of no effect.

The following order was also issued by Gen. Palmer on the adoption of the amendment:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF KENTUCKY,
LOUISVILLE, KY., December 7, 1865.

The General commanding announces that, though the fact has not been officially announced, enough is known to warrant the statement that the amendment to the Constitution of the United States prohibiting slavery has been ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the States, and is, to all intents and purposes, a part of said Constitution.

Whatever doubts may have heretofore existed on the subject, slavery has now ceased to exist in Kentucky; and with it fall all the laws of the State heretofore in force intended for its support.

General Orders Number thirty-two (32) and Forty-nine (49), and all other orders from these headquarters relating to the issuing of passes to colored people, having become unnecessary, are therefore rescinded. From henceforth colored people will be under the protection of the general laws of the land, and if the owners or operators of boats or railroads shall disregard their undoubted right to travel at pleasure, upon conforming to reasonable regulations, they are advised to apply promptly to the courts for redress. By command of

Maj.-Gen. J. M. PALMER.

E. B. HARLAN, Captain and A. A. G.

WM. W. LEVERETT, A. D. C.

Martial law had been in force in the State by the proclamation of President Lincoln, of July 5th, 1864. On October 12th, 1865, President Johnson revoked that proclamation and restored the civil authority by the following proclamation:

Whereas, by a proclamation of the 5th day of July, 1864, the President of the United States, when the civil war was flagrant, and when combinations were in progress in Kentucky for the purpose of inciting insurgent raids into that State, directed the proclamation suspending the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* should be made effectual in Kentucky, and that martial law should be established there and continued until said proclamation should be revoked or modified:

And *whereas*, since then the danger from insurgent raids into Kentucky has substantially passed away:

Now, therefore, be it known that I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, by virtue of the authority vested in me by the Constitution, do hereby declare that the said proclamation of the 5th day of July, 1864, shall be, and is hereby modified, in so far that martial law shall be no longer in force in Kentucky from and after the date hereof.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this twelfth day of October, in the year of our Lord 1865, and of [U. S.] the Independence of the United States of America the ninetieth.

By the President. ANDREW JOHNSON.

WM. HUNTER, Acting Secretary of War.

The removal of martial law led to the following correspondence:

LOUISVILLE, KY., October 15, 1865.

Hon. E. M. Stanton, Sec'y of War, Washington, D. C.:

Since the abrogation of martial law, no colored persons are allowed to cross on the ferry-boats on the Ohio River unless known to the ferry-man to be free. Not more than one in a hundred can cross. What shall I do?

JOHN M. PALMER, Major-General.

Official—E. B. HARLAN, Capt. and A. A. G.

LOUISVILLE, KY., October 16, 1865.

Hon. E. M. Stanton, Secretary of War:

On yesterday ferry-boats across the Ohio refused to carry colored persons on passes issued under Department Orders No. 32.

I have ordered the post commandant here to compel them to do so. The alarm amongst the negroes upon the report of the withdrawal of martial law, of which I have no official information, renders this course necessary. Am I right? Immediate.

(Signed)

JOHN M. PALMER,

Major-General Commanding.

Official—E. B. HARLAN, Capt. and A. A. G.

WASHINGTON, October 20, 1865.

Major-General Palmer:

Your despatches in respect to ferry passes have been very maturely considered, and it is not perceived that the Department can properly interfere.

(Signed)

E. M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

WASHINGTON, October 20, 1865.

Major-General Palmer:

Major-General Thomas having reported in favor of your retaining the command in Kentucky, and approving your administration of the department, the President has approved his report and overruled the application made for your removal.

By order of the President.

(Signed)

E. D. TOWNSEND, A. A. General.

On November 4th, a session of the newly elected Legislature convened. The Governor urged the adoption of the Constitutional amendment, but it was again rejected. The act of expatriation was repealed, and all persons affected by it were restored to their original rights. The condition of the freedmen and their rights became a subject of consideration at a later period of the session in 1866. The authority of the Freedman's Bureau in Nashville, was immediately extended over this class of persons.

The charitable institutions of the State, such as the Eastern and Western Lunatic Asylums, the Feeble-minded Institute, the Deaf and Dumb, and Blind Asylums, continued in operation through the war, but with their means crippled and benefits impaired. The Eastern Lunatic Asylum, whose report is before us, treated during 1865 three hundred persons, being an increase of twenty-four over the previous year. In their experience, the most effectual means of limiting the number of the insane, is to provide ample room for their treatment, which should be commenced without delay. Almost all recover who are submitted to treatment within the first six months. In the experience of the Feeble-minded Asylum, it is found that all of this class are capable, with judicious treatment, of some improvement, however slow it may be, while many can be taught useful trades, and thus enabled at length to support themselves.

KING, DAN., M. D., an eminent physician and author of Rhode Island, born in Mansfield, Conn., January 27, 1791, died at Smithfield, R. I., November 13, 1864. Making a choice of the medical profession, he prepared himself for it by the requisite studies under Drs. Adams and Swift, of Mansfield, and by attendance upon medical lectures at New Haven, and at the age of twenty-four entered upon its practice in the town of Preston, in his native State. After spending five years here and in Groton, he removed to Charlestown, R. I., where he continued for eighteen years devoted to his

profession, and during this period so won upon the respect and confidence of his townsmen, as to be elected to the highest civil offices in their gift. As a magistrate, and as a member of the General Assembly, he served his fellow-citizens from 1828 to 1884, inclusive. These seven years of his political life embrace the period in which efforts were begun and prosecuted to procure the substitution of a liberal Constitution in place of the old Charter. Mr. Dorr was at this time a member of the General Assembly, and with him Dr. King was a prominent actor among those who were the advocates of a new Constitution, and the extension of the right of suffrage. With Mr. Dorr, he took a leading part in the organization of the Suffrage Party. By a convention of this party he was nominated for first senator, at a time when there were only ten State senators, and they elected by general ticket. This was evidence of the high estimation in which he was held by his political friends. Subsequently he was nominated by the same party for Congress. From this time, his active career as a politician ceased. The Dorr War (so called) came on not many years after. In that he took no part. He entirely disapproved of taking up arms to force a Constitution upon unwilling men, even a minority. While in political life, and in office, though chiefly engaged in the cause of a new Constitution, and the extension of suffrage, yet he gave attention to other important and worthy objects. He was an active friend of the remnant of the Narraganset tribe of Indians. He and Mr. Benjamin B. Thurston, afterwards for many years a member of Congress, were appointed by the Rhode Island House of Representatives, of which body they were members, to report a plan of treating and governing the Indians. He drew the report—a paper worthy to be classed among the best of his productions. It was through his influence and active exertions that a considerable annual appropriation was made by the State for the support of a school among these Indians. From Charlestown he removed to Woonsocket, where he pursued his profession for a period of about ten years. From Woonsocket he removed to the town of Taunton, in Massachusetts. After a residence in Taunton of about ten years, he returned to Rhode Island, purposing to retire from the practice of medicine, and soon after commenced writing his "Life and Times of Thomas Wilson Dorr." Upon its completion, finding his greatest enjoyment in the duties of his profession, he returned to it with new zeal. After residing for a short period in Providence, he removed to Smithfield, where he continued to reside until his death. Dr. King was a diligent student, keeping himself thoroughly informed in all that was new pertaining to his profession.

Besides the regular work of his avocation, and the discharge of the civil duties which were devolved upon him by his fellow-citizens, his hours of leisure were devoted to works of pro-

fessional and general utility. He invented a most valuable surgical instrument for the adjusting of fractured bones, which, if patented, would doubtless have been a source of considerable income to him, but which he freely gave for the use of the profession. For many years he was an esteemed and prominent member of the Massachusetts and Bristol County Medical Societies. Before the Bristol County Society, while resident in Taunton, he was repeatedly called to lecture on subjects of medical science and practice.

He also made many valuable contributions to the literature of his profession. Many interesting and important articles from his pen appeared from time to time in the "Medical Journal" and other periodicals. His "Quackery Unmasked," an able and well-written work, was favorably noticed in the "North American Review," and by the "Boston Medical and Surgical Journal," as well as by other medical publications of high authority. "The Life and Times of Thomas W. Dorr, with Outlines of the Political History of Rhode Island," is a work of ability, and gives a faithful outline of the political history of that State. Dr. King was also the author of other valuable books and pamphlets.

KING, HON. PRESTON, an American statesman, and at his death Collector of the port of New York, born at Ogdensburg, St. Lawrence County, in 1806, committed suicide while suffering under a sudden attack of insanity, November 12, 1865. He graduated with honors at Union College, and was in due course of time admitted to the bar of St. Lawrence County. He early developed tastes which led him into politics, and being a strong friend of Silas Wright, and an admirer of Gen. Jackson and his administration, bought and consolidated two newspapers of Ogdensburg, and in 1830 became editor and proprietor of the St. Lawrence "Republican." For a time he was postmaster at Ogdensburg. In 1834 he was elected to the Assembly, and was afterwards reelected three successive terms. In 1845 he was first chosen to a seat in Congress, which he continued to occupy until 1851. During the period of his life which we have reviewed, he acted earnestly and with continually growing influence with the Democratic party, in which he bid fair to become a leader. In 1854 Mr. King thought that he could follow it no longer; and as he had been a Barnburner in 1848, he determined to adhere to the logical consequences of his position, and entered into the organization of the Republican party. He received the Republican nomination for Secretary of State in 1855, supported Fremont in 1856, and was elected to the United States Senate in 1857, where he served a full term, and was Chairman of the Committee on Revolutionary Pensions.

He was a prominent member of the Baltimore Convention of last year, where he took a leading part in securing the nomination of Mr. Johnson, his warm personal friend, for Vice-President.

While the President was residing in Mr. Hopper's house at Washington, awaiting the refitting of the White House, Mr. King was his constant companion, residing in the same house with him. This friendship probably suggested the appointment of Mr. King to the Collectorship of New York.

As a public man, Mr. King had won a high place by his steadfast integrity, frankness, and purity of character. Singularly just, he had always also been singularly firm, and taking positions carefully, had held them against all influences. In Congress he was a calm and reliable legislator, feeling deeply the responsibilities of his office, and acting on the questions presented with great conscientiousness after patient examination. He had the high honor of speaking in the Senate of the United States the first plain word which told the Southern leaders that if they chose war, war they should have.

In mind, temperament, physical constitution, and experience, he was not well fitted for the vast, intricate, and perplexing duties of his last office. Burdened with immense direct responsibilities, overborne by politicians and office-seekers, straining every nerve to give to each relatively petty case the care and attention demanded by the greater, conceiving a false idea of the extent to which he was financially involved, Mr. King was rapidly and fearfully exhausted in the Collector's office. Upon a consultation with a few intimate friends, he had determined to call in Dr. Brown of the Insane Asylum to examine his case, but upon the day appointed for the investigation, in the early morning he procured a bag of shot of twenty-five pounds weight, which he attached to his person by a cord, and proceeding to the Hoboken ferry boat, sprang into the river while crossing. Diligent search was made for his body, but it was not found.

KING, THOMAS STARR, an American Unitarian clergyman, author, and orator, born in New York, December 16, 1824, died in San Francisco, California, March 4, 1864. His father, Rev. T. F. King, was a Universalist clergyman, of very decided ability, but died in the prime of life; and Thomas, at the age of twelve years, while fitting to enter Harvard College, found himself the principal support of his widowed mother and family. From the age of twelve to twenty he was constantly employed either as a clerk or schoolmaster, studying theology at every leisure moment, and in September, 1845, he preached his first sermon in Woburn, Mass. The next year he was settled over his father's former charge, in Charlestown, whence he was called in 1848 to the Hollis Street Unitarian Church, Boston, where he preached with great acceptance and a constantly increasing reputation till April, 1860, when he accepted the call of the Unitarian Church in San Francisco, to become their pastor. He had acquired, meantime, a very high reputation as an eloquent and effective lecturer, and had every year, from 1845 to 1860,

addressed large audiences in all the Northern States. On his arrival at San Francisco he entered at once upon his duties with a zeal and energy which won the hearts of the people. Every man found in him a brother and friend, and ere long he was as thoroughly identified with California interests as if his whole life had been spent there. His congregation increased in numbers and power with great rapidity; but he was a preacher for the whole city and State, and crowds hung upon his eloquent utterances and his bold, earnest words. When the war commenced, he found California in a hesitating position. Southern interests and Southern views were strong, and it would have required but little effort to have carried the State over to the South. Mr. King flung himself into the breach, and by his eloquence and earnestness saved the State; and when the Sanitary Commission was organized, he first set in motion, and through the next three years pushed forward the efforts in behalf of the sick and wounded soldier, till he had the happiness of knowing, before his death, that California had contributed more than six hundred thousand dollars for that noble object. His labors in this cause, added to his pastoral duties, were too severe for his strength, and in March, 1864, he was attacked with diphtheria, and died, after a very brief illness. Mr. King published, in 1859, "The White Hills, their Legends, Landscapes, and Poetry," and subsequently, several discourses and addresses.

KNIGHT, JONATHAN, M. D., an American surgeon and professor of surgery, born in Norwalk, Conn., September 4, 1789, died in New Haven, Conn., August 25, 1864. His father, Dr. Jonathan Knight, after serving as surgeon's mate in the army of the Revolution, settled in Norwalk, and practised there for nearly fifty years. His mother was the daughter of Dr. Asahel Fitch, of Reading, Conn. Young Knight prepared for college under the tuition of Rev. Matthias Burnett, of Norwalk, and entered the Sophomore class in Yale College in its last term, May, 1806, graduating September, 1808, giving the Latin salutatory at the commencement. For the next two years he taught in Norwich and New London, and in September, 1810, was recalled to New Haven as tutor. He occupied this position one year, but his predilections, alike from his own taste and from hereditary bias, for the medical profession were strong, and having already commenced the study of medicine, he attended two courses of lectures in the University of Pennsylvania, in 1811-'12, being at the same time a private pupil of Dr. Rush. He was licensed to practice by the Connecticut Medical Society, in August, 1811, and received the honorary degree of M. D. from Yale College in September, 1818. He commenced practice in New Haven in April, 1813, and the same year was appointed Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in the newly organized Medical Institution of Yale College. His first course of lectures was given during the win-

ter of 1818-'14, and he continued in that chair until 1838, when, on the death of Dr. Thomas Hubbard, he was elected to the Professorship of Surgery, which he adorned for more than twenty-five years, resigning in May, 1864, but was immediately appointed Professor Emeritus. His connection with the Yale Medical School was thus of more than fifty years' duration. For about twenty years of this period he also gave a course of lectures on anatomy, physiology, and hygiene, to the senior class of undergraduates. As a lecturer upon anatomy he was remarkably clear and concise, fluent, and elegant. As a lecturer upon surgery, it was generally acknowledged that he had no superior in this country. His definitions and diagnosis were so pellucid, his language expressed with such clearness his line of thought, and in every case he had chosen with such unerring accuracy the word which embodied exactly the idea he wished to convey, without redundancy and without obscurity, that his lectures might safely have been taken as models of elegant composition. Yet these lectures were delivered without notes, or at most with but a mere brief, indicating the topics to be discussed.

As a surgeon he was distinguished rather for the possession of a sound and discriminating judgment, than as a brilliant operator, though, when he deemed an operation necessary, it was always skilfully and carefully performed. He always preferred, however, to avoid an operation as long as it was possible to do so, setting a higher value upon conservative than upon maiming surgery. Dr. Knight was a man of high intellectual culture, of fine sensibilities and sympathies, but not demonstrative in his feelings or ardent in his attachments, except to the few congenial spirits to whom he unveiled the inner sanctuary of his heart. While always kind and courteous in his manner, he was taciturn and reserved in conversation, except among his most intimate friends. He was constitutionally conservative in his temperament, and modest and retiring in his manners, yet he had a just appreciation of his own powers; and such was his ease and self-possession, his tact and readiness for any emergency, that he was never thrown into a false or embarrassing position. His acknowledged standing at the head of the surgeons of his State, often brought him into the witness-box of courts of justice as an expert—a position among the most trying of all in which a medical man is liable to be placed, and in which even those justly eminent have frequently failed to do credit to themselves or to their profession. But by no artifice of cross-examination could Professor Knight be thrown from his mental equipoise, or inveigled into stating an opinion as a fact, or accepting crude hypothesis as the well-grounded result of experiment; nor could any perversity distort the truth of his clear and guarded statements, while the most audacious and unscrupulous of barristers respected his gentle dignity. The Convention which met in New York in May, 1846,

to form the American Medical Association, did itself honor in calling Dr. Knight to preside over its deliberations, a post for which he was admirably qualified both by his skill as a presiding officer and the extent and profundity of his medical attainments. The Association itself in its seventh year, 1853-'54, made him its president. He was for many years, and until his death, President of the Board of Directors of the General Hospital Society of Connecticut, and during the whole period was either an attending or a consulting surgeon of the hospital, freely giving his time and services to that excellent charity; and in 1862 was influential in establishing at New Haven the United States Military Hospital, which very appropriately bears his name. When the first instalment of sick and wounded soldiers reached the hospital, then in an unfinished state, he labored incessantly and far beyond his strength in dressing their wounds and promoting their comfort. He was a staunch, unflinching patriot, a friend of liberty, and firm supporter of the Government.

His great worth was fully appreciated by his fellow-citizens, and there was no office in their gift which he could not have received if he would have accepted it, but his modesty led him almost invariably to decline such honors. He had been for some years a sufferer from disease of the kidneys, but had kept his pain, which was at times intense, to himself, and it was not until the summer of 1864 that he yielded his active habits and lay down upon what was to be to him the bed of death. His last illness was protracted, and at times intensely painful, but he maintained the unflinching fortitude which had been his characteristic through life, and with more than resignation, with the triumphant mien of the Christian hero, he met the last enemy.

KOLLOCK, Rev. SHEPARD KOSCIUSCO, D. D., an American Presbyterian clergyman, born in Elizabeth, N. J., June 29, 1795, died at Philadelphia, April 7, 1865. Both in the paternal and maternal line he was descended from the Huguenots of France, and his ancestors were driven by persecution into Germany. In 1811, when but little over sixteen years of age, he graduated from Princeton College with high honors, and soon after, becoming deeply interested in the subject of religion, entered upon the study of theology under the direction of Rev. Dr. McDowell, and subsequently that of his brother, Dr. Henry Kollock, of Savannah. In June, 1814, when scarcely nineteen years of age, he was licensed to preach the Gospel, and from the first his labors were exceedingly blessed. After preaching awhile in Georgia, he visited North Carolina, and soon after was called to become the pastor of the Presbyterian Church in Oxford, where he was ordained in May, 1818. Having served this church and other parts of the country with zeal and acceptance, he was chosen Professor of Rhetoric and Logic in the University of North Carolina. In 1825 he was called to the Presbyterian

Church of Norfolk, Va., where he labored for ten years. He then returned to New Jersey, and was for three years the successful agent of the Board of Domestic Missions. After this he became pastor of the Presbyterian Church, Burlington, N. J., and subsequently took charge

of the church in Greenwich, West Jersey. In 1860 he removed to Philadelphia and accepted the position of preacher to the benevolent institutions of the city, faithfully discharging the duties of his office until failing health compelled him to retire to private life some two years since

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LAMORICIÈRE, CHRISTOPHE LEON LOUIS JOCHAULT DE, Commander-in-Chief of the Papal troops, and Governor-General of Algeria in 1845, born at Nantes, February 5, 1806, died at Prouzel, near Amiens, September 10, 1865. He was educated at the Polytechnic school and at Metz, and received his first commission shortly before the revolution of July, 1830. On that event, belonging to a Legitimist family, he at first determined to follow the king into exile, but he changed his mind and remained in Algeria, where he organized the now celebrated corps of Zouaves, to whom he seemed to communicate his own daring spirit and quick intelligence. In 1837 he was made colonel, a promotion following, as a natural result, the gallantry displayed at the taking of Constantina. With his own hands he laid the powder bags to the gates, and was severely wounded by the explosion, narrowly escaping the fate of the "engineer hoist with his own petard." In 1839 he was recalled to Paris, but returned to Africa in the following year; and during his stay shared in no fewer than eighteen campaigns. It may be said of him, that every one of his honors and promotions sprang from some brilliant exploit successfully achieved. At the close of his Algerian career he crowned the triumphs of the expedition which he had organized, by hemming in Abd-el-Kader, and compelling that chieftain to surrender to the Duc d'Aumale. The political principles or preferences of Gen. Lamoricière were not strongly marked, but he acted with the Liberal party. Toward the close of Louis Philippe's reign he took his seat in the Chamber of Deputies with the Dynastic opposition, and was designated as Minister of War in the Thiers, Molé, or Barrot combinations essayed by the king in his last struggle. On February 24, 1848, in the uniform of a colonel in the National Guard, he tried to stop the insurrection by proclaiming the king's abdication, and the regency of the Duchess of Orleans, but the rioters would not listen to him; his horse was killed, he himself was wounded, and he would have lost his life but for the interference of some workmen who rescued him from the fury of their companions. Under the Provisional Government he was offered the ministry of War, which he refused as well as any command in France. He was elected Representative of the People in the Department of the Sarthe. When the terrible and bloody insurrection of June broke out, he placed himself at the dis-

posal of his old comrade, Cavaignac, fought against the insurgents, and accepted, June 28th, the post of Minister of War, which he held till December 20, 1848. After the election of Prince Louis Napoleon to the Presidency, Gen. Lamoricière offered no determined or systematic opposition to the new Government, though he strongly and openly disapproved the policy adopted on Italian affairs, and he continued the consistent supporter of the Republican Constitution. At the period of the Russian intervention in Hungary in 1849, he accepted a mission from the President to the court of St. Petersburg. In July, 1851, he recorded his vote against the revision of the Constitution; and in November following voted for the bill which was to place the military force under the control of the Assembly in the event of any attempt against the Constitution. In the *coup d'état* of December he was comprised among the eminent men, civilians as well as military who were arrested by order of the new Minister of the Interior, M. de Morny. From that period till 1857 he chiefly resided in Belgium. In that year the Emperor spontaneously authorized him to return to France, on the sudden death of one of his children. Being in exile he was debarred from any share in the war against Russia, but he retained his fondness for military life, and offered his services to the Pope on the threatened invasion of the Pontifical territories by the Piedmontese troops under Cialdini in 1860. His offer was accepted, and he at once set about raising and organizing a Papal army; but all his exertions proved futile. He was defeated at Castelfidardo, when the greater part of his forces, mostly foreigners, surrendered. He himself escaped with a few horsemen to Ancona; but this city fell into the hands of Gen. Fanti, and Lamoricière was taken prisoner. Since his liberation he has lived in retirement. His death resulted from a sudden attack of the gout.

LAUENBURG, a duchy in Germany. Area, 455 square miles. Population, in 1864, of the duchy, 49,704; of its principal towns, Ratzeburg, Molln, and Lauenburg, 8,298. The religion of the inhabitants is almost exclusively Lutheran, 49,652 belonging to that creed. Lauenburg, together with Schleswig and Holstein, belonged, until 1864, to the King of Denmark. In 1864 it was ceded, at the treaty of Vienna, to Austria and Prussia. In consequence of the convention of Gastein (*see GASTEIN*), Austria relinquished its claims to the

King of Prussia for the sum of 2,500,000 thalers. On September 18th the duchy was formally taken possession of by Prussia. A royal proclamation, dated Berlin, September 18th, announced the transfer to the people of the duchy. The relation of Lauenburg to the dominions of the king is thus defined in the royal proclamation: "In accordance with the wishes expressed by the representatives of Lauenburg, we take possession by virtue of this our royal patent of the said Duchy of Lauenburg, with all its sovereign rights and attributes, adding to our titles that of Duke of Lauenburg, and ordain by these presents that the succession in the dukedom shall be for the future hereditary, according to the law of succession hitherto in vigor in other parts of our monarchy. We send the inhabitants of the duchy our sovereign greeting, and command them to acknowledge us as their legitimate and rightful master, to take the oath of allegiance to us and our successors, and to respect and obey our laws and ordinances, whilst we, on the other hand, assure them of our sovereign protection, promising to govern them, the country, and its inhabitants, according to their own laws, to confirm their well-founded rights and privileges, and to do our best for the continued furtherance of their welfare and happiness.

"We have created a special minister for the affairs of the Duchy of Lauenburg, and appointed to that office our prime minister and minister for foreign affairs, Herr von Bismarck-Schönhausen, ordering him to carry on the government of the duchy according to the laws and ordinances hitherto in force. It is, moreover, our royal pleasure that all officials of high and low degree in the duchy remain in office, and be confirmed in their appointments upon taking the usual oath of fidelity and allegiance to us."

LIBERIA, a Negro Republic in Western Africa. The first settlement was made in 1822, and the proclamation of the Republic of Liberia took place on August 24, 1847. It has been recognized by Great Britain, France, Belgium, Prussia, Brazil, Denmark, Portugal, and (1861) the United States. The republic has about 600 miles of coast line, and extends back about 100 miles on an average, but with the facility of an almost indefinite extension into the interior. The number of inhabitants is estimated at about 500,000, of whom about 16,000 are Americo-Liberians, and the remaining aboriginal inhabitants. The country is divided into four counties: Montserrado, Grand Bassa, Sinoe, and Maryland. The executive authority is vested in a President and a Vice-President, and the legislative power is exercised by a parliament of two houses, called the Senate and the House of Representatives. The former consists of eight members (two for each county) elected for the term of four years; the latter of thirteen members, elected for the term of two years. On the increase of population each additional 10,000 persons will be entitled to an additional

representative. The first President of the republic was Joseph Jenkins Roberts. He was succeeded by Stephen Allen Benson. Each of these two Presidents served four terms of two years each. Actual President, Daniel Bashiehl Warner. At the general election held in May, 1865, the Hon. D. B. Warner and Hon. James N. Priest were reelected President and Vice President of the republic for the ensuing two years from the 1st of January, 1866.

The last annual message of President Warner states with regard to the relations of Liberia with foreign powers that "they are pacific," that "the questions which have arisen between the Liberian and the British Government, out of the repudiation by certain chiefs, in the northwest portion of the republic, of the right of the Liberian Government to exercise authority in territory bought of them in that section of the country, are still in the course of discussion," and that "Great Britain still maintains an attitude immensely injurious" to Liberia. Ratifications of treaties of amity, commerce, and navigation with Portugal and with Denmark have been exchanged in London, by Gerard Ralston, Esq., Consul-General of Liberia. The treaty with Portugal contains the same important principle of international law first incorporated in the compact between Hayti and Liberia, assimilating the slave trade with piracy. The act of the Legislature of Liberia requiring foreign traders to do business at regularly declared ports of the republic, went into force on the 1st of January, 1865, and had the happiest results.

The Liberia "Herald" of November 1st reports a large increase in the exports of the country. "Within the last five months," it says, "five vessels have loaded with oil, chiefly at the Liberian ports of entry. They took, on an average, sixty thousand gallons of oil. This does not include the oil taken off by transient traders."

The trade of Liberia now flows almost wholly in European channels. The Company of African merchants, at their second meeting held in London, declared a dividend of ten per cent. It has purchased and was (in Jan., 1866) about to send out a steamer for the local coast trade of Sierra Leone with the northern rivers, Sherbro and Liberia. Steps have been taken to establish regular steam navigation on the Niger for the purposes of trade. At the semi-annual meeting of the African Steamship Company in London, December 6th, 1865, it was reported that "the revenue account was slightly better than what it was the previous half year," and "with regard to the two new ships, the *Mandingo* had been launched and would be ready for sea in a week. The *Lagos* was launched December 3d, and by the end of January would be ready for sea also. These ships would be built out of the income, without calling for a penny of capital from the resources of the company. They would, therefore, have one ship more than they ever had before. The vessels are of a

superior character and capable of earning larger profits." A dividend "of eight shillings per share for the half year, free of income tax, payable on and after December 8th," was declared. Another new enterprise in London is the Commercial Company of Africa, the capital of which is fixed at £300,000, with a present issue of £200,000, in £20,000 shares of £10 each. The prospectus states that this company is formed "for the purpose of conducting, upon an extensive scale, a trade in the Bights of Benin, Biafra, the River Niger, and other parts of Africa, chiefly by barter, of European manufactured goods for palm oil, palm-nut kernels, ground nuts, gold dust, ivory, cotton, and other produce; also for the purpose of manufacturing oil from the kernels of the palm-nut."

The number of emigrants sent by the American Colonization Society to Liberia during the year 1865, amounted to 527, a number exceeding the emigration of any year since 1856.

LICHTENSTEIN, a principality in Germany. Reigning prince, Johann II.; born October 5, 1840; succeeded his father, November 12, 1848. Area, 64 square miles. Population, in 1864, 7,150. A new constitution was given to the principality on October 15th, 1862, by the terms of which the whole legislative power is vested in one house of representatives, comprising fifteen members, three to be chosen by the reigning prince, and the other twelve by the people in public election. A vote is given to all inhabitants who can read and write; but to become a deputy, a small property qualification is required.

LINCOLN, ABRAHAM, sixteenth President of the United States, and Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the same, was born in Hardin County, Kentucky, February 12, 1809, and died in Washington, from a pistol-shot wound inflicted by an assassin, April 15, 1865. His father was very poor, and the region of Kentucky in which he lived afforded at that time but scant opportunities for education. At seven years of age he was sent to school for a short time, and his only text-book was an old copy of Dilworth's Spelling-Book. When he was in his eighth year, his father, tired of the hopeless struggle which even then crushed all the energies of the poorer white settlers in the slave States, sold his little homestead, and putting his family and his few household goods upon a raft, sought a new home in the then wilderness of Spencer County, Indiana, cutting his road with his axe through the dense forest during the last eighteen miles of his route. Rearing a log-cabin two or three miles distant from the nearest neighbor, the family entered upon a pioneer's life. The mother of the future President, herself a woman of intelligence and piety, taught her boy to read and write, and encouraged the taste for books which even their circumstances could not wholly repress. When he was ten years of age she died. His father married again a year or two later, and

the step-mother proved a kind and tender friend to the orphaned boy. When he was about twelve years old a Mr. Crawford, one of the settlers, opened a school in his own cabin, and young Lincoln attended and studied arithmetic and some of the other branches of a common school education. But few books had found their way into the wilderness of the "Pocket," as this portion of Indiana was called, but whenever one could be obtained his father always endeavored to procure the reading of it for him. In this way he became familiar with Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress, *Æsop's Fables*, Weems's and Ramsay's *Life of Washington*, a *Life of Henry Clay*, and perhaps a few other volumes. At the age of nineteen he made a trip to New Orleans in company with the son of the owner of a flatboat, who intrusted to the care of the two youths a valuable cargo. Attacked on their way down by a gang of thievish negroes, the two young men defended the property and drove off the plunderers, and pushing out into the stream succeeded in saving it from depredation.

In 1830 Mr. Lincoln's father determined upon another removal to Decatur, Illinois, and his son assisted him in settling in his new home, breaking the ground for a crop of corn, and building a rail fence around his farm. The winter which followed was very severe, and it required the utmost exertion of Abraham Lincoln, now a stalwart youth of twenty-one years, and his father, to keep the family in food, which was mostly obtained by hunting. Two years more were passed in working on a farm, or as clerk in a store. In 1832 the Black Hawk war occurred. Volunteers were called for, and young Lincoln enlisted and was at once made captain. He experienced considerable marching during the campaign, but had no opportunity of exhibiting his prowess as a fighter. After his return from the war he ran for the Legislature, but was defeated, though receiving a heavy vote. He next purchased a store and stock of goods, and was appointed postmaster. The store proved unprofitable and he sold out, but through the whole pursued his studies at every opportunity. Having acquired a knowledge of surveying, he spent the greater part of the next two or three years as government surveyor, and won a high reputation for the accuracy of his surveys. In 1834 he was a member of the Illinois Legislature, and after the session closed, devoted all his leisure time to the study of law. In 1836 he was admitted to the bar, and in April, 1837, removed to Springfield, Illinois, and commenced practice in partnership with Hon. John T. Stuart. He soon won a good reputation as an able pleader, both in civil and criminal practice. He was reelected twice to the Legislature, where he formed the acquaintance of his subsequent political antagonist, Hon. Stephen A. Douglas. In 1840 he declined being a candidate for the Legislature, and though taking a deep interest in political matters, ranking as a Whig of the Henry Clay school, he

sought no political preferment, but devoted himself assiduously to his profession, in which his ability had already gained him a commanding position. In 1844 he canvassed the State for Mr. Clay. In 1846 he was elected to Congress, and took his seat in 1847, the only Whig Representative from Illinois, and probably the only one who could have been elected. During the single term in which he was a member of the House of Representatives there were several important questions before Congress, among others, the Mexican War, the Right of Petition, the Abolition of Slavery in the District of Columbia, the Wilmot Proviso, the Pacheco Case, the River and Harbor Bill, the Modification of the Tariff, and the abolishment of the Franking Privilege. In regard to all these questions Mr. Lincoln took a manly and decided action, voting generally with his party, but independently whenever he regarded their course as inconsistent with the highest rule of right.

In 1848 Mr. Lincoln was a member of the national convention which nominated Gen. Taylor for the Presidency, and subsequently canvassed Illinois in his favor. In 1849 he was the Whig candidate for United States Senator from Illinois, but was defeated, the Democratic party having a majority in both branches of the Legislature. He now devoted himself most assiduously to his professional pursuits, though still watching with great eagerness the political measures before the country. In May, 1854, the Nebraska bill was passed, and the Missouri Compromise act repealed. This roused the majority of the people of the Northern States to a vigorous opposition, and Illinois, which had long been regarded as one of the most reliable of the Western States for the Democratic party, was revolutionized. Mr. Lincoln took a prominent part in the political campaign of the autumn of 1854. A United States Senator was to be chosen in the place of Gen. Shields, who had supported the Nebraska bill, which Judge Douglas had originated. The State was carried by the Whigs, who had two candidates for the senatorship, Mr. Lincoln and Judge Trumbull, one of Whig and the other of Democratic antecedents. Regarding a division as disastrous at that time, and satisfied of Judge Trumbull's ability and integrity, Mr. Lincoln, with rare generosity, not only withdrew his name from the canvass, but persuaded his friends to support Trumbull, who was then elected.

In 1856 Mr. Lincoln's name was prominent before the first Republican national convention for the Vice-Presidency, receiving one hundred and ten votes on the informal ballot. His name headed the Republican electoral ticket in Illinois, and he took an active part in the canvass.

In 1858 the senatorial term of Judge Douglas being about to expire, the Republicans of Illinois, at their State convention on the 17th of June, 1858, at Springfield, nominated Abraham Lincoln as their candidate for United States Senator. Judge Douglas was the candidate of the Democratic party; and, in accordance with

Western custom, the two candidates canvassed the State in defence of their principles. The canvass was one of deep interest; great principles were at stake. Both the candidates were men of decided ability, and possessed the power of swaying their audiences—Judge Douglas by a rare talent for reaching the popular vein, and chiming in with the prejudices, the sympathies, and the passions of the people, and Mr. Lincoln by an irresistible logic, and a happy faculty of "putting things," which, by a few well-placed words, overturned and annihilated his adversary's positions. It would have been difficult to find two men better matched for a controversy. At first their meetings before the people were accidental; Judge Douglas spoke at Chicago on the 9th of July, and Mr. Lincoln on the 10th, and a week later both spoke on the same day at Springfield. On the 24th of July Mr. Lincoln challenged Judge Douglas to a series of debates on the principles involved in the campaign. The Judge accepted, and though the terms he proposed gave him four speeches to Mr. Lincoln's three, the latter made no objection. Seven of these debates were held in different parts of the State between the 21st of August and the 15th of October, and they were afterwards published in full from phonographic notes. The principles of the two parties were very thoroughly discussed, and the weak points of each fully exposed. The discussion was fair, open, and manly, and it was very generally conceded that Mr. Lincoln was unsurpassed in the mental tournament. The Republicans had a majority of about five thousand in the popular vote, but owing to the inequality with which the State was districted, and the pressure from other States, Mr. Douglas was reelected to the Senate by a small majority of legislative votes.

During the next year and a half Mr. Lincoln visited Ohio, Kansas, and New York, and made several speeches of great ability on political questions. That delivered in New York, and subsequently published, was one of the most effective and eloquent expositions of the policy of the Republican party made, and served as a text-book for the orators of that party in the succeeding canvass. A speech delivered in Cincinnati to an audience largely made up of Kentuckians in the spring of 1860, in which he enunciated, in his own telling way, his abhorrence of slavery, is still remembered in that city for its extraordinary power. The Republican national convention, which assembled at Chicago on the 16th of May, 1860, was at first nearly equally divided between Mr. Seward and Mr. Lincoln as its candidate for the Presidency, but the preponderance for Mr. Lincoln soon became evident, and on the third ballot he was nominated, receiving three hundred and fifty-four out of four hundred and sixty-five votes, and by motion of Mr. Evarts, of New York, the nomination was made unanimous. The nomination with the platform was formally accepted by him, in a graceful letter, on the 23d May,

and was enthusiastically received by the Republican party throughout the country.

His opponents were divided (purposely, there was reason to believe, it being the design of the leaders at the South to make his election certain, that it might be used to effect a disruption of the nation) to a greater extent than ever before, there being three other tickets in the field, viz., Messrs. Breckinridge and Lane, the candidates of the Pro-slavery Democrats; Messrs. Douglas and H. V. Johnson, the candidates of the Progressive Democrats; and Messrs. Bell and Everett, the representatives of a conservative party, mostly composed of those who had belonged to the old Whig party. On the 6th of November, 1860, the election took place, and Mr. Lincoln received 180 electoral votes out of 303, Breckinridge having 72, Bell 39, and Douglas 12. The popular vote was somewhat different in its proportions, Mr. Lincoln having a plurality of nearly 600,000, but not an absolute majority, while Douglas came next, Breckinridge next, and Bell last. The exact popular vote was: for Lincoln, 1,857,610; for Douglas, 1,291,574; for Breckinridge, 850,082; for Bell, 646,124.

No sooner was his election ascertained, than the conspiracy which had long been smouldering in the Southern States burst out in full flame. During the four months which intervened between his election and his inauguration, six States—South Carolina, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, and Texas—passed ordinances of secession, and appointed delegates to meet in convention at Montgomery, Alabama, on the 4th of February, a month before the inauguration. This convention adopted a provisional constitution for what they denominated the Confederate States, and chose Jefferson Davis President and Alexander H. Stephens Vice-President of their new government. Thus, before he had even left his home in Illinois to come to the capital and assume office, and nearly a month before his taking his official oath, the insurrectionists had organized a separation involving six States, and with a certainty that others would join them. It was not in consequence of any thing he had done, for he could not as yet perform any official act; nor was it in consequence of any thing which the leaders saw he had power to do, for they knew his views of the sanctity of an oath, and he would swear to maintain the Constitution inviolate. Secession had been a foregone conclusion, to be carried out at this time, if it could be made practicable.

On the 11th of February, 1861, Mr. Lincoln left his home in Springfield, Illinois, to go to Washington, and enter upon his presidential duties. In the course of his journey he passed through Indianapolis, Cincinnati, Columbus, Pittsburg, Cleveland, Buffalo, Albany, New York, Trenton, Philadelphia, and Harrisburg. He met the Legislatures of Indiana, Ohio, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, which were then in session, at the capitals of those

States, and everywhere along his way made brief addresses, the main scope of which was, that if the people only stood firm in maintaining the Constitution and the Government, no power on earth could overthrow them. At Philadelphia, information was communicated to him that a plot existed to assassinate him at Baltimore. The only precaution he took was to leave Harrisburg one train earlier than had been expected, the telegraph wires being meantime disconnected. He arrived in Washington on the morning of Saturday, February 23d.

On the 4th of March, 1861, he took the oath of office, and delivered his inaugural address, a plain, straightforward talk with the nation. He began by showing, in the clearest way, that there was no ground for the apprehension which seemed to exist at the South that "their property, their peace, and their personal security were to be endangered." He declared that he took the oath to support the Constitution "with no mental reservations." He argued briefly and clearly the question of secession, averring that, in spite of all that had been done at the South, the Union was unbroken, and he should, to the extent of his ability, take care "that the laws of the Union be faithfully executed in all the States;" that in doing this there would be no bloodshed, "unless it be forced upon the national authority," but that the power of the Government would be used "to hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the Government, and to collect the duties and imposts;" and he closed his address with an earnest appeal to all who really loved the Union, to pause and consider "before entering upon so grave a matter as the destruction of our national fabric, with all its benefits, its memories, and its hopes." "In your hands, my dissatisfied fellow-countrymen," said he, "and not in mine, is the momentous issue of civil war. The Government will not assail you. You can have no conflict without being yourselves the aggressors. You have no oath registered in heaven to destroy the Government, while I shall have the most solemn one to 'preserve, protect, and defend' it. I am loth to close. We are not enemies, but friends. We must not be enemies. Though passion may have strained, it must not break our bonds of affection. The mystic chords of memory, stretching from every battle-field and patriot grave to every living heart and hearthstone all over this broad land, will yet swell the chorus of the Union, when again touched, as surely they will be, by the better angels of our nature."

Mr. Lincoln found, upon entering upon the duties of his office, the credit of the Government greatly impaired by the uncertainty of the future, its navy scattered, and less than a dozen ships in serviceable condition to guard our coasts; the larger part of the small-arms and cannon belonging to the Government in the hands of the States which had already seceded; forts, arsenals, mints, and vessels, seized

by the insurrectionists; the troops of our regular army deprived of their arms and sent home, by slow and devious routes, as paroled prisoners; the garrison of Fort Sumter was drawing nigh the point of starvation, and no supplies could be sent them except by running the fire of batteries. The attempt was made by a merchant vessel, but she was fired upon, and without waiting the surrender, which could not have been long delayed, the rebel leaders chose to bombard the fort, and take possession of it after a thirty-three hours' siege, on the 14th of April.

Then came the necessity of at once calling the nation to arms, and on the 15th of April the call for 75,000 men roused the people to the struggle which for four years to come was to task their energies and try their patience. The response from every Northern State was cordial, prompt, and earnest. Men and means were pressed upon the Government in abundance. Kentucky, Missouri, Maryland, Delaware, and Virginia hung back, and some of them answered the call with insolent threats and defiance. Virginia soon after went over to the rebels; the Governor of Missouri, foiled in his efforts to take his State in the same direction, fled from it, and loyal officers took his place; Maryland, held in military possession, took up the national cause, and finally emancipated her slaves; Delaware, halting long between two opinions, at length raised troops for the Union; and Kentucky, attempting neutrality, found herself neutral only as the battlefield and plunder-ground of the contending armies. An extra session of Congress had been called for July 4th. On the 19th of April the ports of the seceded States were declared under blockade. Washington, at first in extreme peril, was, not without bloodshed, soon strongly garrisoned. The President long cherished the hope that the war would be but brief, and that soon peace and union as of old would be restored. The battle of Bull Run dispelled in part this illusion; the nation began to harness itself for the work before it, and during the autumn and winter of 1861-'62 the President was heavily burdened with the cares and responsibilities so suddenly thrown upon him; finance, the raising and maintaining great armies throughout the country, settling the difficult Trent case, and adjusting temporarily the serious and delicate questions connected with slavery which were constantly arising, under the movements of Butler, Fremont, and other of the army commanders.

The year 1862, though cheered by some victories like those of Thomas, at Mill Spring, the grand forward movements of Halleck, Grant, and Buell through Kentucky and Tennessee, the capture of Island No. Ten and Memphis, of New Orleans and its guarding forts, of Beaufort and Port Royal, of Roanoke Island and Newbern, was on the whole one of gloom and anxiety for the President. But the dawn of the new year brought altered prospects. He

had, after long and anxious deliberation, come to believe in the necessity of the proclamation of emancipation as a war measure, and the first day of the new year saw liberty proclaimed to all the slaves of the rebellious States. The victory of Stone River, the capture of Vicksburg and Port Hudson, and the opening of the Mississippi, the substantial exclusion of the rebels from Missouri and Arkansas, the redemption of Tennessee, were all so many positive gains; while the disaster of Chancellorsville was more than redeemed by the glorious though bloody victory of Gettysburg, and the misfortunes of Chickamauga alleviated by the triumphant successes of Chattanooga. "Peace," said the President, reviewing these achievements of our armies, "does not look so distant as it did." He had anxiously sought for two years to bring the border States into the adoption of a system of emancipation, more or less gradual; and he was rewarded by the adoption of an emancipation constitution in the new State of West Virginia, and the emancipation of their slaves by Missouri and Maryland, while Congress abolished slavery in the District of Columbia, forbade it in all the territories, and struck from the statute-books the fugitive slave laws.

The arrest of persons guilty of alleged treasonable acts or words, which, though not made in all cases by his order, he could not but sanction, occasioned some animadversions, and was explained by him in two lucid and able letters to the New York and Ohio committees who had addressed him on the subject. In 1864, the first few months of the year were rendered anxious by financial difficulties, the rapid depreciation of the national currency, the resignation of Secretary Chase, and the appointment of Mr. Fessenden. Then began in May those movements—unequalled in the history of modern times, by which, in less than a twelvemonth, the rebellion was crushed—Grant's great campaign, where each day's slaughter was almost that of an army, but in which, with a wonderful endurance and persistency, he held his adversary, till at last he yielded; that unparalleled march of a thousand miles, by which Sherman, making pauses only at Atlanta, at Savannah, and at Goldsboro, swept as with a besom of destruction through the hostile territory, and at last brought his foe to surrender; and that wisely-planned retreat of Thomas on Nashville, and his subsequent hurling of his troops upon the foe, pursuing them till they were scattered and broken.

Meantime Mr. Lincoln had been, by a respectable majority in the popular vote, and a great majority in the electoral college, called for a second term to the Presidential chair, inaugurated amid the acclamations of thousands; though still not without some threats of assassination, he seemed about entering upon more halcyon days. Richmond and Petersburg had been evacuated, and his own feet had trodden the pavements of the late Confederate capital. Lee had

surrendered, and Johnston was about to do so. Davis was a fugitive, and his abdication had been made, without leaving a successor. War had substantially ceased, and the national banner was to float from the walls of Fort Sumter on the 14th of April, 1865, the anniversary of the day, four years before, which witnessed its humiliation. Pacification was to be the future work of the President.

Amid these joyous anticipations of the future, when the sad and wearied look which had so long hovered over his face seemed about to give place to one of serene satisfaction, the assassin, creeping stealthily from behind, as he sat with his family and friends in his box at the theatre, on the night of the 14th of April, 1865, fired, with fatal precision, the pistol-shot, which, penetrating his brain, in a few hours terminated his life. The immediate assassin was an actor, by the name of John Wilkes Booth, but the assassination was a part of a conspiracy intended to cripple the Government by the simultaneous destruction of its principal executive officers, and it involved, either as principals or accessories, a number of persons. Nine of the more immediate actors suffered condign punishment, Booth being shot in the act of arresting him; Harold, Payne, Atzerot, and Mrs. Surratt hung; Arnold, Mudd, and McLaughlin imprisoned for life, and Spangler for six years. The excitement which the intelligence of his death caused throughout the nation has never been paralleled in human history. The whole people were in tears; cities and villages were draped in mourning; all ranks and conditions lamented him as a father, and everywhere were seen the insignia of sorrow.

The funeral honors paid to the deceased Chief Magistrate surpassed in magnificence as well as in their manifestation of the intensity of real sorrow those ever bestowed on any President who had deceased either in or out of office, and have hardly been equalled in the funereal pomp of the obsequies of any monarch of ancient or modern times.

The body, having been properly embalmed and prepared for the grave, was laid in state in the "Green Room" of the Presidential mansion—in a splendid coffin and within a grand catafalque. Here, surrounded by the sad emblems of woe, and covered with the costliest and rarest floral tributes of affection, it rested until noon of Wednesday the 19th of April. On that day, which by request of the Department of State was observed as a day of mourning by the whole American people, appropriate funeral services were performed at the White House, and the body removed, with an imposing military procession, and attended by an immense concourse of people to the rotunda of the National Capitol. Here, reposing beneath its splendid catafalque, it again lay in state, guarded by officers of the army with drawn swords. That day was observed throughout the length and breadth of the land, with a solemnity and genuine sadness of heart such as

no previous day of mourning had ever witnessed. The cities of Canada, by request of their municipal officers, all observed it by cessation from business and public meetings of condolence. In far-off San Francisco the citizens in mourning array formed in a procession in honor of the dead President, and in many of the cities of the South there were all the manifestations of grief.

All day, during the 20th of April, the body continued to lie in state in the rotunda, and more than twenty-five thousand persons visited it, many of them soldiers who left their beds in the hospitals to take one last look at their departed chief. At six o'clock in the morning of the 21st, the members of the Cabinet, Lieut.-Gen. Grant and his staff, several Senators, the Illinois delegation, and a number of army officers, arrived at the Capitol and took their farewell look at the face of the deceased. Then, after an impressive prayer by Rev. Dr. Gurley, the remains were borne without music, but accompanied by an escort, to the railroad station and placed in the hearse car, to which the remains of his son Willie had been previously removed. After a prayer and benediction, the train slowly moved from the depot, the engine bell tolling, and the immense assemblage reverently uncovering their heads. The funeral *cortège* was conveyed on a special through train, on the same route (with one or two exceptions) as that taken by Mr. Lincoln on his way to Washington in 1861. The car also, which bore the body and its attendants, was the same which had been especially constructed for the late President's especial use when travelling over the military roads—a superb piece of construction, and now appropriately draped, as were also the other six cars forming the train. To prevent accidents, the rate of speed was limited. No stoppage was made between Washington and Baltimore. In out-of-the-way places, little villages, or single farm-houses, people came out to the side of the track and watched, with heads reverently uncovered and faces full of genuine sadness, the passage of the car bearing the body of the late President. Along the whole line were seen these mourning groups, some on foot and some in carriages, wearing badges of sorrow, and many evidently having come a long distance to pay this little tribute of respect, the only one in their power, to the memory of the murdered Chief Magistrate.

Baltimore, through which city, four years before, the late President had hurried *incognito*, on his inaugural trip, now received his honored remains with every mark of reverence. Escorted by a splendid procession, the body was conveyed to the rotunda of the Exchange, where upon a gorgeous catafalque, and surrounded by flowers, it rested for several hours, receiving the silent homage of thousands who crowded to take their last look at the features of the illustrious patriot.

As the cars passed along their route, entire

neighborhoods, old and young, men, and women with infants in their arms, turned out by the roadside and anxiously watched the funeral train. Flags at half-mast, mourning inscriptions, funeral arches, testified the sorrow that was felt in every heart. Clusters of men at various points raised their hats as the funeral car glided past, and the deepest sorrow was expressed in every countenance.

At York, Pa., at the request of the ladies of that town, a beautiful wreath was placed with due solemnity upon the coffin, while a dirge was performed by the band, amid the tolling of bells and the uncovered heads of the multitude.

At Harrisburg, owing to the heavy rain, the intended military and civic display did not take place. Throngs of people, however, lined the streets, and followed the remains to the Capitol, where the body lay in state, in the House of Representatives, upon a fine catafalque, surrounded with a circle of white flowering almonds; and during a part of the night the citizens were allowed to obtain a view of the President's features.

From Baltimore to Philadelphia it may be said that the entire route was amid crowds of sorrowing people, for between villages and towns, all the way, farmers and their families assembled in fields and about houses, seriously and reverently gazing at the funeral *cortège*.

At Philadelphia, where they were received by a great procession, the remains of the President found a resting-place in Independence Hall, around which cluster so many historical memories, and over which four years before the then President-elect hoisted the American flag with a declaration of his willingness to sacrifice his life rather than abandon the cause which he at length fell in defending. The bier was close to the famous old liberty-bell which first sounded forth in 1776 the tidings of independence. The interior of the hall, as well as its exterior, was heavily draped and most artistically illuminated. Around the remains were appropriate decorations, leaves of exquisite evergreens, and flowers of a rich crimson bloom. At the head of the corpse were bouquets, while flaming tapers were at the feet, and from the elaborately hung walls the portraits of the great and good who have passed away, eloquent in their silence, looked down upon the sad scene. The next morning, before daylight, lines of people were formed to view the remains of the President, and these lines extended a distance of three miles, from the Delaware to the Schuylkill Rivers, and thousands spent three or four hours in the lines, before reaching the hall.

The funeral train left Philadelphia at 4 A. M. on the 24th of April, 1865. The incidents of the journey to New York were similar to those which had previously occurred. At times the track was lined for miles on both sides with a continuous array of people. The most impressive scene of the whole route thus far, was furnished by the city of Newark, where it

seemed as if the inhabitants had resolved to turn out *en masse* to pay their tribute of respect to the memory of the departed as his coffin passed by. For a distance of a mile the observer on the train could perceive only one sea of human beings.

Of a yet grander character was the reception given to the remains at Jersey City. The depot, one of the largest halls in the country, was draped in an imposing manner, bells tolled, cannon boomed in sad echoes, and as the remains were moved from the cars to the boat, a choir of singers chanted a solemn dirge. Again, as the ferry-boat neared the New York side of the Hudson, strains of funeral music pealed from their united voices, and mingled with the sound of cannon and tolling bells.

In New York city the scene was imposing beyond comparison. As far as the eye could see, a dense mass of people, all wearing the insignia of mourning, filled the streets and crowded every window. The fronts of the houses and warehouses were tastefully draped with mourning, and the national ensign was displayed at half-mast from the top of almost every building. The procession which accompanied and followed the remains to their resting-place in the City Hall was very large, and passed through such a concourse of mourning faces as New York never before witnessed. Along the entire route minute-guns were fired, the bells tolled from all the steeples of the city, and the Trinity chimes wailed forth the notes of "Old Hundred." Arrived at the City Hall, the coffin was borne into the rotunda amid the solemn chantings of eight hundred singers, and was placed upon the catafalque prepared for it. The hall was richly and tastefully draped, and the coffin almost buried in flowers, while a large military guard kept watch night and day of the precious dust. All day and all night long the living tide pressed into the hall to pay their last respects to the dead, and when the time came for the departure of the funeral procession, thousands who had waited for hours in the long lines to gain a glimpse of that well-known face, were obliged to turn away sadly disappointed. At the solemn hour of midnight on the 24th, the German musical societies performed a funeral chant in the rotunda of the City Hall, with the most thrilling effect. In the afternoon of the 25th of April the great metropolis took its final leave of the remains of Abraham Lincoln, and after a farewell more grand and imposing than any demonstration in the previous experience of the nation, they started on their way westward. The funeral pageant was of extraordinary grandeur and impressiveness. A military force of more than fifteen thousand men, with the staffs of the several brigades and divisions and their batteries, and the civic elements which joined in the procession, formed a double line of four and a half miles in length. Last in the procession were about two thousand colored citizens of New York, preceded by a banner bearing the in-

scription on one side, "ABRAHAM LINCOLN, OUR EMANCIPATOR," and on the other, "TO MILLIONS OF BOND MEN HE LIBERTY GAVE." Throughout the whole distance traversed by the procession the streets were lined by dense masses of sorrowing mourners, and every window amid its drapery of woe was filled with sad faces. At the same time a vast concourse assembled in Union Square, where an eloquent funeral oration was delivered by the Hon. George Bancroft, and an elegiac ode written by William Cullen Bryant was recited. As the sad procession moved westward, the same scenes of popular grief and of heartfelt sorrow and respect were everywhere manifested. Arches, columns, monuments, banners, etc., arranged with tasteful and loving care, lined the entire route of the funeral train as it passed along the Hudson River Railroad, heralded on its onward course by the tolling of bells and the echoing of minute-guns. At Albany the corpse was escorted across the river by a torchlight procession of the military and firemen, and placed in the Capitol of the State, where it rested until 2 P. M. of the next day—visited by thousands. Accompanied by a vast procession, it was then escorted to the depot of the New York Central Railroad Company and deposited in one of the richly draped cars of the funeral train, for its journey westward through the Empire State.

Notwithstanding the greater part of the trip between Albany and Buffalo was made at night, mournful crowds were collected all along the line to catch a view of the passing *cortège*. The buildings were appropriately draped, flags were everywhere at half-mast, and bonfires and torches illumined the sad pageant. All through the dark hours, as the train sped on, at each city, town, village, hamlet, and railway station, these testimonies of the people's affection and grief were repeated.

At Buffalo and Cleveland the body was appropriately received amid every possible demonstration of grief and respect. At the latter city an open temple had been constructed and under its canopy the coffin was placed, and thousands in sad procession passed and gazed on the changing features of their loved President. At Columbus, Ohio, the remains were placed in the rotunda of the State Capitol, which was appropriately draped. The coffin rested upon a mound of moss thickly dotted with the choicest flowers, and was surrounded by elegant vases of rare exotics. The walls were adorned with Powell's great painting of "Perry's Victory," and clusters of banners, smoke-stained, torn and riddled with bullets, borne by Ohio regiments during the war, and now festooned with crape, drooped sadly around the spacious rotunda; solemn dirges were played by the bands at intervals on the terraces of the Capitol, and guns were fired during the day. At Indianapolis, similar honors were paid to the departed Chief Magistrate.

At Chicago the reception of the dead Presi-

dent was imposing and sublime. A magnificent funeral arch had been erected at the railroad station, and under this the precious remains were received and conveyed thus to the rotunda of the Court House, where they were laid in state upon a catafalque of wonderful beauty, and visited by thousands who thus in sadness welcomed back their dead ruler to the State which had been for more than thirty years his home. From all the towns and villages for hundreds of miles around the Queen City of the Lakes, the people had come to express alike their grief and respect for Abraham Lincoln. At night when fair hands had strewn the coffin with fresh flowers, it was borne with chanted dirges by torchlight to the station house, and at last on the 3d of May, after a journey of seventeen hundred miles, reached Springfield, Illinois, the home where he had been so long personally known. The remains were received by a procession, and were carried to the State House, where they were deposited in the Hall of Representatives, under a canopy of exquisite design and finish, while prominent among the tasteful decorations of the place were the words of President Lincoln at Independence Hall, Philadelphia, February 22, 1861: "SOONER THAN SURRENDER THESE PRINCIPLES, I WOULD BE ASSASSINATED ON THE SPOT." Here, as elsewhere, the citizens of the place, as well as the thousands who came pouring in by every mode of conveyance, sought to gaze on the face of the dead. All night long the streets of the city resounded with the tramp of feet. It was estimated that more than seventy-five thousand passed into the hall.

During the morning, minute-guns were fired by Battery K, Missouri Light Artillery. About 10 o'clock, A. M., the coffin was finally closed. Meanwhile a choir of two hundred and fifty voices, accompanied by Lebrun's band from St. Louis, sang Passello's "Peace, troubled soul," and as the coffin was borne out, Pleyel's Hymn, "Children of the Heavenly King." The procession moved to Oak Ridge Cemetery, under the immediate command of Major-General Joseph Hooker, marshal-in-chief; and on its arrival at the cemetery, the remains were placed in the tomb, and after the simple but touching ceremonies of interment an eloquent funeral discourse was pronounced by Bishop Simpson, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and the immense throng silently dispersed.

The grief which was occasioned by the President's death, was not confined to our own shores; England poured forth her encomiums upon the dead, her widowed Queen writing a most touching letter of sympathy to the bereaved consort of the President, while her poets vied with ours in chanting his requiem. France, too, expressed in words and tones of sympathy her grief at the nation's loss; and the wave of grief, sweeping over Europe, found answering billows in the far off Orient. China, Japan, and Siam sent their condolence.

Mr. Lincoln's character as a man and a Chief

Magistrate may be summed up in a few words. He was honest in the best sense of the term; patient, forbearing, and forgiving; slow in arriving at conclusions, but when once settled in them, firm to obstinacy; endowed with a wisdom and tact not acquired in the schools, but which guided him in administration, sustained him in despondency, and rendered him calm and self-possessed in the hour of success; of a genial and tender disposition, and possessing a rare and quaint humor which occasionally lit up with a momentary smile his sad face, and enabled him the better to bear his heavy burdens. In his administration of public affairs, he ever sought the good of the nation, and the interests of justice and truth, and much as some of his measures were questioned at the time, there are few who would now deny their wisdom or rectitude.

LINDLEY, JOHN, F. R. S., an eminent English botanist, and late Professor of Botany at University College, born at Calton, near Norwich, February 5, 1799, died at his residence, Acton-green, November 1, 1865. His father was proprietor of a large nursery garden, a circumstance which doubtless gave birth to the taste for the study of botany so early manifested in the son. After leaving the Grammar School of Norwich, young Lindley devoted his attention to botanical science. In 1819 he published a translation of *Richard's Analyse du Fruit*, and in 1820 a work entitled *Monographia Rosarum*, in which he described several new species of roses. About the same period he contributed to the "Transactions of the Linnæan Society" various papers on botanical subjects. Sometime afterwards he proceeded to London, where he became Assistant Secretary to the Horticultural Society, and was engaged by Mr. Loudon to write the descriptive portion of his "Encyclopædia of Plants," the merit of which, as a botanical work, was entirely due to him, as was stated in the preface. The "Encyclopædia" was completed in 1829, and in the same year he received the appointment of Professor of Botany at the London University. At this period the Linnæan system was almost universally followed by English botanists. It is one of the chief merits of Dr. Lindley that he early saw the necessity of superseding the artificial by the natural classification of plants. In an essay on this subject, published in his "Introduction to the Natural System of Botany" in 1830, he clearly showed the advantages of this system, and thus paved the way for its general adoption in England. Two years later he published the "Introduction to Systematic and Physiological Botany, and a Synopsis of the British Flora." In 1836 he published a "Natural System of Botany," wherein he took new views of botanical classification, and proposed a new nomenclature for families of plants. Ten years later, his great work, "The Vegetable Kingdom" was published, giving a description of all the families of plants, and more especially of those useful

to man; a work of great labor, and generally recognized as one of the most important contributions which had at that time appeared on systematic botany. In 1841 he became editor of the "Gardener's Chronicle," a weekly publication which he conducted with great ability. In 1860 he was appointed examiner in the University of London.

LITERATURE AND LITERARY PROGRESS IN 1865. The very high price of paper and the cost of labor, as well as the heavy burden of taxation which rested with exceptional effect on printed books, and upon all that went to make up their manufacture, engravings, paper, binders' cloth, and leather, etc., tended to depress the publishing trade during the year, and no doubt diminished slightly the number of new publications undertaken, which was somewhat less than the previous year; yet the demand for books was so great that the number of volumes sold was largely in advance of that of any former year, reaching in the case of school text-books in some instances to millions, and in histories of the war, biographies of Mr. Lincoln, etc., to numbers varying from 60,000 to 100,000 copies.

The number of distinct publications, aside from occasional pamphlets, reports, circulars, catalogues, sermons, and official Government, State, or municipal documents, was 1,802, being 226 less than the number in 1864. Of these 20 were works on military and naval science, 191 historical, of which 14 were histories of the war, 26 histories of particular battles or campaigns, 38 works relating to the war, but not strictly histories, 89 American local and other histories not connected with the war, 36 histories of other countries or times, 14 historical reprints, 7 historical periodicals and transactions of historical societies, and 18 works on ecclesiastical history. In biography there were 150 works, of which 130 were single biographies, a very considerable number of them biographies of President Lincoln, and 20 collective biographical works. In theology there were 48 works, of which 18 were doctrinal and 30 polemic. Of religious works, not theological, there were 81. In moral and intellectual science there were 12. In physical science there were 39, of which 3 were devoted to astronomy and meteorology, 10 to geology and mineralogy, 14 to zoology, 5 to natural philosophy, and 7 to chemistry. In political and social science the number of books was 25; in financial and statistical science, 112; in philology 10; in technology and mechanical science, 42; in agriculture, 23; in medical science, 55; in law, legal science, and legal compilations, 63. Of works on education and educational science there were 42; of geography and travels, 25; of essays and didactic works, 63; of poetry and the drama, 148. Musical works numbered 37; novels and works of fiction 254, of which 14 were religious, and the remainder (240) of a general character. The number of books for the young was 312, of which 25 were books of adventure, history, and

travels, 248 were religious, 24 were elementary, and 15 fairy and legendary. There were 16 works on art, 18 of a miscellaneous character, and 16 new periodicals, first issued during the year.

The number of reprints was small, amounting to only 276, about the same proportion as in 1864, but of these a very considerable proportion were books in French, German, and Spanish, reprinted without change; 92, one-third of the whole number, were novels, and 49 juveniles. The number in the other classes was inconsiderable.

Of the works on MILITARY AND NAVAL SCIENCE, but one was a reprint, viz., a "Review of Gen. Todleben's History of the Defence of Sebastopol," by W. H. Russell, D. D., late special correspondent of the "London Times." Several of the original works published during the year evinced great research, and possessed a high value. Among these were Capt. Nystrom's "Technological Education and Shipbuilding, for Marine and Naval Engineers;" "Experimental Researches in Steam Engineering," by B. F. Isherwood, Chief Engineer, U. S. N.; a new edition of Prof. D. H. Mahan's "Elementary Course of Military Engineering;" Commander Foxhall A. Parker's Treatise on the Use of the "Naval Howitzer Ashore;" a "History of the United States Cavalry, 1776-'68," by Major (now Colonel) Albert G. Brackett; a "Treatise on the Tactical Use of the Three Arms, Infantry, Artillery, and Cavalry," by Francis J. Lippitt; Lieut. Commander Roe's "Naval Duties and Discipline, with the Policy and Principles of Naval Organization;" Lieut. Buckner's "Calculated Tables of Ranges, for Navy and Army Guns;" a text-book, entitled "The Cadet Engineer; or, Steam for the Student," by Chief Engineer J. W. Long, and Assistant Engineer R. H. Buel, U. S. N.; Captain R. Brinckerhoff's Manual, "The Volunteer Quartermaster, a Collection of Laws, Regulations, Rules, and Practice governing the Quartermaster's Department of the U. S. A.;" an Essay, by Mr. D. Treadwell, "On the Construction of Hooped Cannon;" an Essay by anonymous author on "The Militia of the United States; what it has been; what it should be." There were also issued private editions of the Report of the Ordnance Bureau, and the Navy Register for 1865, and new editions of Morris's "Infantry Tactics," and Gillmore's "Fort Sumter."

In the Department of HISTORY, the literature of the year was remarkably full and interesting. In no former year has the number of works published been so great, or the editions of anything like the same magnitude. Of the *Histories of the War*, which closed during the year, some were but the completion of works previously commenced, while others were entirely new. The "Pictorial History of the Rebellion," publishing in numbers by Messrs. Harper, as well as those of Messrs. Virtue, Yorston & Co., and Messrs. Johnson, Fry & Co., were continued, and the last completed during the year. The

"Rebellion Record" was also continued, the numbers composing the 8th volume being issued in the course of the year. Two additional volumes of Mr. W. M. Thayer's "Youth's History of the Rebellion," also appeared. A second volume of Rev. J. S. C. Abbott's "History of the Rebellion," and of the "Complete History of the Great American Rebellion," by E. G. Storke and L. P. Brockett, were also published, in each case completing the work. Mr. E. McPherson issued a second edition of his valuable "Political History of the United States of America during the Great Rebellion," in which he had made large additions, and had brought down the documents to the close of the war. Of new histories we may name "The Military and Naval History of the War," by Mr. William J. Tenney; "Lloyd's Battle History of the Great Rebellion," a compilation of the best narratives of the battles of the war; Jones Brothers' "Standard History of the Civil War;" "History of the Great Rebellion," in one stout volume, by Thomas P. Kettell; Mr. B. J. Lossing's "Pictorial History of the War," publishing in numbers; "Carey's Record of the Great Rebellion;" and "*La Victoire du Nord aux États Unis*," by Count Charles de Montalembert. The last was the only reprint among the books of this class.

Among the *histories of particular battles and campaigns* are: "Sherman and his Campaigns," by Col. S. M. Bowman, and Lieut.-Col. R. B. Irwin; "The Story of the Great March," by Brevet Major George Ward Nichols; "Sherman's March Through the South," by Capt. David P. Conyngham; "The Hero's Own Story; Sherman's Official Reports;" "The Star Corps; or, Notes of an Army Chaplain during Sherman's Famous March to the Sea," by Rev. G. S. Bradley, Chaplain 22d Wisconsin Vols.; "Grant and his Campaigns," by Professor Henry Coppee; "Gen. Grant's Own Report of the Campaign from May, 1864, to April, 1865," several editions; "Grant and Sherman; their Campaigns and Generals," by Hon. J. T. Headley; "Camp, March, and Battlefield; or, Three Years and a Half with the Army of the Potomac," by Rev. A. M. Stewart, Chaplain 102d Regt. Penn. Vols.; "A Narrative of the Campaign in the Valley of the Shenandoah in 1861," by Robert Patterson, late Major-General of Volunteers; "Maj.-Gen. McClellan and the Campaign on the Yorktown Peninsula," by Frederick Milnes Edge; "Battle of Williamsburg, with Reminiscences of the Campaign, Hospital Experiences, Debates, etc.," by James R. Burns; "Three Years in the Army of the Potomac," by Henry N. Blake, late Captain 11th Mass. Vols.; "History of the Pennsylvania Reserve Corps," by J. R. Sypher; "Three Years' Campaign of the 9th N. Y. V. M. during the Southern Rebellion," by John W. Jaques; "Our Campaigns; or, The Marches, Bivouacs, Battles, etc., of the 2d Regiment Pennsylvania Reserves," by Adjt. E. M. Woodward; "Our Boys; The Personal Experiences of a Soldier in the Army," by A. F. Hill, of the

8th Pennsylvania Reserves; and "A Daily Journal of the 192d Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers" (one hundred days men), by John C. Meyers. To this class belong also properly the records of the part borne by particular States in the war. Among these are: "The Patriotism of Illinois," by T. M. Eddy, D. D.; "The Martyrs and Heroes of Illinois in the Great Rebellion," by James Barnett; "Rhode Island in the Rebellion," by Edwin W. Stone; "Maine in the War for the Union," a History of the part borne by Maine Troops in the Suppression of the American Rebellion," by William E. S. Whitman and Charles H. True; and "The Reports of the Military Bureau of New York."

Of works relating to the war, not strictly historical, the year has been remarkably prolific. A large class among them are narratives of personal adventure and experience, or of observations of adventures of others, in camp, field, hospital, or prison. Among these are: "The Secret Service, the Field, the Dungeon, and the Escape," by A. D. Richardson, "Tribune" Correspondent; "Four Years in Secession," by Julius Henri Browne, Special War Correspondent of the "Tribune"; "Camp-Fire and Cotton-Field; Southern Adventures in Time of War," by Thomas W. Knox, "Herald" Correspondent; "A Nurse and Spy in the Union Army, comprising the Adventures and Experience of a Woman in Hospitals, Camps, and Battle-Fields," by S. Emma E. Edmonds; "Thrilling Stories of the Rebellion," by Lieut.-Col. Charles S. Greene; "The Life and Adventures of Miss Major Pauline Oushman, Union Spy and Scout," by F. L. Sarmiento; "The Scout and Ranger; or, The Adventures of Corporal James Pike in the Army of the Cumberland;" "Patriot Boys and Prison Pictures," by Edmund Kirke (J. R. Gilmore); "A Voice from Rebel Prisons, giving an Account of some of the Horrors of the Stockade at Andersonville, Millen, and other Prisons," by a Returned Prisoner of War; "Prison Life in the South during the years 1864-'65," by A. O. Abbott, late Lieutenant 1st N. Y. Dragoons; "Life and Death in Rebel Prisons," by Robert H. Kellogg, 16th Connecticut Volunteers; "Nineteen Months a Prisoner of War; Narrative of Lieut. G. E. Sabre, 2d Rhode Island Cavalry;" "Fourteen Months in Southern Prisons," by H. M. Davidson, member of Battery A., 1st Ohio V. L. A.; "Libby Life, Experiences of a Prisoner of War in Richmond, Va.," by Lieut.-Col. F. F. Cavada, U. S. V.; "Lights and Shadows of Army Life; or, Pen Pictures from the Battle-Field, the Camp, and the Hospital," by Rev. W. W. Lyle, Chaplain 11th Regiment O. V. I.; "Soldiers' Letters, from Camp, Battle-Field, and Prison," edited by Lydia Minturn Post; "The Soldier Bird," a History of "Old Abe, the Live War Eagle of the 8th Wisconsin Regiment," by Joseph O. Barrett; "The Yankee Scout; or, Haps and Mishaps on the Border," by James

L. Bowen. To these may be added two from Southern sources, viz., "Bell Boyd in Camp and Prison," written by herself (Mrs. Harding), with an Introduction, by G. A. Sala; and "Observations on the North; Eight Months in Prison and on Parole," by Edward A. Pollard.

Under this head may also be properly enumerated a very considerable class of essays and didactic works, political discussions, etc., bearing on the war. Among these are: "The American Republic; its Constitution, Tendencies, and Destiny," by Orestes A. Brownson, LL.D.; "The Criminal; the Crime; the Penalty," by George H. Hopworth; "Mr. Ambrose's Letters on the Rebellion," by John P. Kennedy; "Thoughts on the Future Civil Policy of America," by J. W. Draper, M. D., LL.D.; "Mr. Buchanan's Administration on the Eve of the Rebellion," by James Buchanan, late President U. S.; "Glimpses of History," by George M. Towle; "The Charter of American Liberty;" "Speeches of John Bright, M. P., on the American Question," with an Introduction by Frank Moore; "What I Heard in Europe during the American Excitement," by John H. Tobitt; "Hasty Recognition of Rebel Belligerency, and Our Right to Complain of It," by George Bemis; "The Work of New England in the Future of our Country; an Election Sermon," by Rev. A. L. Stone, D. D.; "Patriotism in Poetry and Prose; Selections and Original Poems," by Boker, T. B. Read, Janvier, and others; "The Patriotic Readings of James E. Murdoch;" "Trial of John M. Beall, as a Spy and Guerrilla, by a Military Commission;" "Rebel Brag and British Bluster," by Owlsglass.

There are also a few fictions based on historical incidents which, properly enough, may be ranged under this class; among these are "The Angel of the Battle-Field," by Wesley Bradhus; "The Devil in Dixie," a Tale of the Times, Semi-Comical, Semi-Historical and Quasi-Diabolical; "Tobias Wilson, a Tale of the Great Rebellion," by Hon. Jeremiah Clemens; "Tales of the Picket Guard, or the Blue Devils driven from Camp," Rev. H. N. Hudson, for some time Chaplain in the Army, has published a pamphlet entitled "A Chaplain's Campaign with General Butler;" and Mr. Charles J. Stillé, of Philadelphia, has prepared for the Sanitary Commission, a Memorial of the Great Central Fair for the U. S. Sanitary Commission held at Philadelphia, June, 1864. Histories of the Boston, the Metropolitan (N. Y.), the Brooklyn, the Cincinnati, the Pittsburgh, and the St. Louis Sanitary Fairs were also published during the year.

In the class of *American local and other histories not connected with the war*, there have been a large number of publications, many of them reprints of works published in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, printed in limited editions, and on large paper,

in some instances fac-similes of the original works; forty-five works of this description are found in the list of the publications of 1865, and doubtless some have escaped a record. They are as follows: "Records of Salem Witchcraft, copied from the original Records," 2 vols., small quarto, pp. 279, 287; "Salem Witchcraft, comprising more Wonders of the Invisible World, collected by Robert Calef, and Wonders of the Invisible World, by Cotton Mather, together with Notes and Explanations," by Samuel P. Fowler, quarto, pp. 450; "Early History of New England, being a Relation of Hostile Passages between the Indians and European Voyagers and First Settlers, and a Full Narrative of Hostilities to the close of the War with the Pequots in the year 1687; also a Detailed Account of the Origin of the War with King Philip, by Increase Mather, with an Introduction and Notes by Samuel G. Drake, small quarto, pp. 309; "The Hutchinson Papers," vols. 1 and 2 published by the *Prince Society*; "Andréana, containing the Trial, Execution, and various matters connected with the History of Major John André, Adjutant-General of the British Army in America, A. D. 1780," quarto, pp. 67, plates, reprinted from the London edition; "Vindication of the Captors of Major André," by Egbert Benson, 8vo. pp. 84; "Vindication of the Captors of Major André," by Egbert Benson, LL. D., with Introduction and Appendix, 8vo. pp. ix., 134, *privately printed*; "A Relation of Maryland," reprinted from the London edition of 1635, with a prefatory Note and Appendix, by Francis L. Hawks, D.D., LL.D., small quarto, pp. vii., 78, map; "Anthology of New Netherland, a Translation from the Early Dutch Poets of New York (Steendam, Seylys, De Lille)," with Memoirs of their Lives, by Henry C. Murphy, royal 8vo., pp. 209, illustrated; "Letters from the Prisons and Prison Ships of the Revolution, with Notes by Henry R. Stiles, M. D.," 8vo., pp. 49; "Account of the Interment of the Remains of American Patriots who perished on board the British Prison Ships during the American Revolution, with Notes and an Appendix," by Henry R. Stiles, M.D., 8vo. pp. 246; "Recollections of the Jersey Prison Ships. From the Original Manuscripts of Captain Thomas Dring, one of the Prisoners," by Albert G. Green, edited by Henry B. Dawson, imp. 8vo, pp. xxii., 201, plates; "Notes, Geographical and Historical, relating to the Town of Brooklyn on Long Island," by Gabriel Furman. With Notes and a Memoir by the author, small quarto, pp. xxxiv., 119, xxxix.; "Minutes of a Conspiracy against the Liberties of America," octavo, pp. xiv., iv., iii., London, 1786, reprinted in Philadelphia; "Collections on the History of Albany, from its Discovery to the Present Time, with Notices of its Public Institutions, and Biographical Sketches of Citizens deceased," vol. i., royal 8vo, pp. viii., 529, plates; "A Sketch of the First Settlement of

the several Towns on Long Island, with their Political Condition to the End of the American Revolution," by Silas Wood, with a Biographical Memoir and Additions by Alden J. Spooner, 4to, pp. xix., 206, Portrait and Photographs; "Anecdotes of the American Revolution, illustrative of the Talents and Virtues of the Heroes of the Revolution who acted the most conspicuous Parts therein," by Alexander Garden, of Lee's Legion, second series, imp. 8vo, pp. ix., 228, vi., Charleston, 1828; Brooklyn, N. Y., 1865; "Supplement to the State of the Expedition from Canada, containing General Burgoyne's Orders respecting the Principal Movements and Operations of the Army, to the Raising of the Siege of Ticonderoga," 4to, pp. 26 (London, 1780); "Dialogue between the Ghost of General Montgomery, just arrived from the Elysian Fields, and an American Delegate, in a Wood near Philadelphia" (Phila. 1776), N. Y., *privately reprinted*; "Advertisements for the Unexperienced Planters of New England, or Anywhere; or, The Pathway to erect a Plantation, by Captain John Smith, sometime Governor of Virginia, and Admiral of New England, with a Fac-simile of Smith's Map of New England, with Additions and Corrections as published in 1635," 4to, pp. viii., 72; A Description of New England; or, Observations and Discoveries in the North of America in the Year of our Lord 1614; with the Success of Six Ships that went the next Year, 1615," by Captain John Smith (Admiral of that Country), with a Fac-simile of the Original Map, 4to, pp. vii., 89; Certain Inducements to Well-Minded People who are here Straitened in their Estates or otherwise, etc., small 4to, pp. 24; "Further Queries upon the Present State of New-English Affairs," by S. E., 4to, pp. 18; "Two Voyages to New England, made during the Years 1638, 1663, by John Josselyn, Gent., 4to, pp. vii.; "New England's Prospect. A True, Lively, and Experimental Description of that Part of America commonly called New England, etc.," by William Wood, small 4to, pp. xxxi., 131, map, (Lond., 1634), Boston, *The Prince Society*; "New England's Rarities discovered in Birds, Beasts, Fishes, Serpents, and Plants of that Country, by John Josselyn, Gent., with an Introduction and Notes by Edward Tuckerman, M. A., 4to, pp. viii., 169; "New England's First Fruit; with Divers other Special Matters concerning that Country, small 4to, pp. 47; "News from New England," 1676, 4to, pp. 23; "The History of the Indian Affairs in New England from the First Settlement to the Termination of the War with King Philip in 1677, from the Original Work by the Rev. William Hubbard. Carefully revised, and accompanied with a Historical Preface, Life and Pedigree of the Author, and Extensive Notes," by Samuel G. Drake, 2 vols., sm. 4to, pp. xxxii., 292, 308, map; "Strength out of Weakness; or, a Glorious Manifestation of the Further Progress of the Gospel among the Indians in

New England," by Henry Whitfield, sm. 4to, pp. xxii., 59; "A Farther Discovery of the Present State of the Indians in New England, concerning the Progress of the Gospel among them, manifested by Letters from such as preached to them," by Henry Whitfield, 4to, pp. x., 46 (Lond., 1651); "The Day Breaking if not the Sun Rising of the Gospel with the Indians in New England," small quarto, pp. 32; "The Clear Sunshine of the Gospel breaking forth upon the Indians in New England," by Thomas Shepard, small quarto, pp. xx., 56; "A Further Manifestation of the Progress of the Gospel among the Indians in New England," small quarto, pp. xi., 21; "A Call from Death to Life. Being an Account of the Sufferings of Marmaduke Stephenson, William Robinson, and Mary Dyer, in New England, in the Year 1639, small 4to, pp. ix., 47 (London, 1660), Providence, R. I.; "The Expeditions of Capt. Lovewell, and his Encounters with the Indians: including a Particular Account of the Pequaket Battle, with a History of that Tribe; and a Reprint of Rev. Thomas Symmes's Sermon," by Frederic Kidder, 4to, pp. 138, map, Boston; "A Brief State of the Province of Pennsylvania," by William Smith, D. D., 8vo, pp. 44; "The Journal of Major George Washington, sent by the Hon. Robert Dinwiddie to the Commandant of the French Forces in Ohio, with map," 8vo, pp. 46 (Williamsburg, 1754); "The Present State of Virginia," by Hugh Jones, A. M., 8vo, pp. viii., 151, cuts (London, 1724); "Names of Persons who took the Oath of Allegiance to the State of Pennsylvania between the Years 1777 and 1789, with a History of the 'Test Laws' of Pennsylvania," by Thompson Westcott, 8vo, pp. xlii., 145; "The Order Book of Capt. Leonard Bleeker, Major of Brigade in the Early Part of the Expedition under Gen. James Clinton, against the Indian Settlements of Western New York, in the Campaign of 1779. With Introduction and Notes," by B. F. Hough, M. D., 4to, pp. 137; "Orderly Book of the Siege of Yorktown, from September 26, 1781, to November 2, 1781." Now first printed from the original MSS., 4to, pp. 68; "Narrative of the Exertions and Sufferings of Lieut. James Moody, in the Cause of Government, since the Year 1776. Written by himself, with the Author's Last Corrections. With an Introduction and Notes," by Charles I. Bushnell, 8vo, pp. 98, illustrated; "A Journal of two Visits made to some Nations of Indians on the West Side of the River Ohio in the Years 1772 and 1773, by the Rev. David Jones. With a Biographical Notice of the Author," by Horatio Gates Jones, A. M., 8vo, pp. 127; "The Declaration of Independence. Fac-simile of the Original Document, in the Handwriting of Thomas Jefferson," quarto, pp. 7; "The Private Journal of a Journey from Boston to New York in the Year 1704, kept by Madam Knight," small quarto, pp. 92. Of local histories now first printed, the principal are: "An Authentic and Comprehensive History

of Buffalo, with some Account of its early Inhabitants, both Savage and Civilized, comprising Historic Notices of the Six Nations or Iroquois Indians, including a Sketch of the Life of Sir William Johnson, and of other prominent White Men, long resident among the Savages. Arranged in Chronological Order," in two volumes, by William Ketchum. Vols. 1 and 2, 8vo, pp. xvi., 482, vii., 443; "History of Thomaston, Rockland, and South Thomaston, Maine, from their First Exploration, A. D. 1605, with Family Genealogies, by Cyrus Eaton, 2 vols. 12mo, pp. xii., 468; iv., 472; "Queen's County in Olden Times: Being a Supplement to the several Histories thereof," by Henry Onderdonk, Jr., A. M., author of "Revolutionary Incidents of Long Island," etc., 4to, pp. 122; "Dartmouth (Mass.) Centennial Celebration. Proceedings in Connection with the Celebration at New Bedford, September 14, 1864, of the Two Hundredth Anniversary of the Incorporation of the Town of Dartmouth," 8vo, pp. 129; "A Record of the Inscriptions on the Tablets and Gravestones in the Burial-ground of Christ's Church, Philadelphia," by Edward L. Clark, Church Warden; "Commemoration of the Conquest of New Netherland on its Two Hundredth Anniversary," by the New York Historical Society; "History of New England," vol. 8, by John Gorham Palfrey; "The Register of New Netherland," 1626-1674, by E. B. O'Callaghan; "Pioneer History of the Champlain Valley, being an Account of the Settlement of the Town of Willsborough, by William Gilliland, together with his Journal and other Papers, and a Memoir and Historical and Illustrative Notes," by Winslow C. Watson; "The First Century of Dummer Academy. A Historical Discourse delivered at Newbury, Byfield Parish, Aug. 12, 1863, with an Appendix," by Nehemiah Cleveland; "Memorial of the Centennial Anniversary of the Settlement of Machias; "The History of Portland from 1632 to 1864, with a Notice of Previous Settlements, Colonial Grants, and Changes of Government in Maine," by William Willis, 2d edition, revised and enlarged; "An Historical Address delivered at the Centennial Celebration of the Incorporation of the Town of Wilbraham, June 15, 1863, with an Appendix," by Rufus P. Stebbins, D. D.; "History of Lynn, Essex County, Mass., including Lynnfield, Saugus, Swampscot, and Nahant," by Alonzo Lewis and James R. Newhall; "History of New Boston, New Hampshire," Compiled and Written by Rev. Elliott C. Cogswell, map and illustrations; "Remarks on the Popham Celebration of the Maine Historical Society," read before the American Antiquarian Society, April 20, 1865, by S. T. Haven; "Historic Annals of the National Academy of Design, New York Drawing Association, etc.," by Thomas S. Cummings, N. A.; "A Chronological History of the Boston Watch and Police from 1631 to 1865, together with Recollections of a Boston Police Officer," by Edward H. Savage; "A History of the Bills

of Credit or Paper Currency of New York from 1709 to 1789, with Descriptions of the Bills, Catalogues of the Various Issues, and other Matters pertaining thereto," by J. Hickcox, author of "American Coinage;" "The Bryant Festival at 'The Century,' Nov. 5, 1864;" "The History of the Indian Races of North and South America, etc., etc., including the late Sioux Massacre at Minnesota," by Charles De Wolf Brownell.

Of *Histories of other Countries and Times*, we have—France and England in North America. A Series of Historical Narratives," by Francis Parkman, author of "History of the Conspiracy of Pontiac," part I., 8vo., pp. xxiii., 420, portrait; "Historical View of the American Revolution," by George Washington Greene, author of "Historical Studies;" "The Age of Louis XIV.," by Henri Martin, being vols. xiii. and xiv. of the History of France, from the earliest period to 1789, translated from the fourth Paris edition, by Mary L. Booth; "The Cavalier Dismounted," an Essay on the Origin of the Founders of the Thirteen Colonies, by William H. Whitmore. To this class, perhaps, belongs also Mr. Henry B. Dawson's "Current Fiction," tested by Uncurrent Facts, a Correspondence between John Jay and Henry B. Dawson, and between James A. Hamilton and Henry B. Dawson, concerning "The Fœderalist."

Of *Historical Reprints*, the following are the principal: "The History of the Jews, from the Earliest Period down to Modern Times," by Henry Hart Milman, D. D., Dean of St. Paul's, reprinted from the newly revised and corrected London edition, 8 vols., post 8vo., pp. 512, 497, 479; "The History of the Romans under the Empire," by Charles Merivale, B. D., vol. vii., completing the work; "The Conversion of the Roman Empire; the Boyle Lectures for the year 1864," by Charles Merivale, B. D.; "A History of the World from the Earliest Records to the Present Time," by Philip Smith, B. A., vols. ii. and iii., Ancient History; "History of England from the fall of Wolsey to the Death of Elizabeth," by James Anthony Froude, M. A. 4 vols., 8vo., pp. 447, 501, 480, 508; "History of Friedrich the Second, called Frederick the Great," by Thomas Carlyle, fifth and sixth volumes, completing the work; "A Smaller History of Rome, from the Earliest Times to the Establishment of the Empire," by William Smith, LL. D. With a Continuation to A. D. 476, by Eugene Lawrence, A. M., 16mo, pp. xxv., 365, illustrated; "Historia de la Isla de Cuba, con Notas e Ilustraciones," por Pedro J. Guiteras. Tome I. 12mo, pp. xvi., 417; "The History and Antiquity of Ecton, in the County of Northampton (England)," by John Cole. 8vo., pp. 51, iii.

There were a few *Historical Periodicals* and *Transactions or Proceedings of Historical Societies* published during the year. Among them were: "The Firelands Pioneer." Pub-

lished by the Firelands Historical Society, Norwalk, Ohio, vol. vi., 8vo, pp. 124, portrait; "Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, for 1863-'4." 8vo, pp. xiii., 508, and "Collections of the Mass. Historical Society," vol. vii., fourth series, 8vo. pp. xvii. 647, plates; "Papers of the New Haven Colony Historical Society, vol. i., pp. iii., 170, iv., 192. Among the periodicals, "The Historical Magazine" was continued, as were the "United States Service Magazine," the "Army and Navy Journal" and "The Rebellion Record;" Gazlay's "Pacific Monthly," a periodical published in the interest of the States and Territories of the Pacific slope, contained many valuable articles on the history of that region; "The Old Flag," a newspaper first published by Union Prisoners, at Camp Ford, Tyler, Texas, also appeared in lithographic fac-simile during the year.

In *Ecclesiastical History*, 1865 was more prolific than almost any previous year, and many of the works possessed great merit. The most important were: "A History of the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America," by Rev. E. H. Gillett, D. D.; "History of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States of America," by Abel Stevens, D. D., LL. D., vol. ii.; "The Planting and Training of American Methodism;" "The Centenary of American Methodism: a Sketch of its History, Theology, Practical System, and Success," prepared by order of the Centenary Committee of the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, by Abel Stevens, D. D., LL. D. With a Statement of the Plan of the Centenary Celebration of 1866, by John McClintock, D. D.; "History of Congregationalism from about A. D. 250 to the Present Time," in continuation of the account of the Origin and Earliest History of this System of Church Polity, contained in "A View of Congregationalism," by George Punchard. Second edition, rewritten and greatly enlarged, 2 vols.; "The Church of the First Three Centuries; or, Notices of the Lives and Opinions of the Early Fathers, with special Reference to the Doctrine of the Trinity, illustrating its late Origin and gradual Formation," by Alvan Lamson, D. D. Second edition, revised and enlarged; "History of the Planting and Training of the Christian Church by the Apostles," by Dr. Augustus Neander; translated from the German, by J. E. Ryland. Translation revised and corrected according to the Fourth German Edition, by E. G. Robinson, D. D.; "A General History of the Catholic Church, from the commencement of the Christian Era until the Present Time," by M. l'Abbé J. E. Darras. From the last French edition, with an Introduction and Notes by the Most Rev. M. J. Spalding, D. D., Archbishop of Baltimore, vol. i.; "History of the Society of Jesus, from its Foundation to the Present Time," translated from the French of J. M. S. Daurignac by James Clements, 2 vols.; "The Oriental Church and the Latin,"

by Jonas King, upwards of forty years Missionary in Palestine and Greece; Translation from the Original Greek of a Pamphlet entitled 'Letters of the Most Pious King, and of the Most Holy Patriarchs, concerning the establishment of the Most Holy Synod, with an Exposition of the Orthodox Faith of the Eastern Catholic Church,' by William O. King, of Athens, Greece; "The Russo-Greek Church," by a former Resident of Russia; "A Few Historic Records of the Church in the Diocese of Texas, during the Rebellion. Together with a Correspondence between Right Rev. Alexander Gregg, D. D., and the Rev. Charles Gillette;" "The History of Methodism within the Bounds of the Erie Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church," by Rev. Samuel Gregg, vol. i.; "Contributions to the Ecclesiastical History of Essex County, Mass.," 1 vol., 8vo; "The Earliest Churches of New York and its Vicinity," by Gabriel P. Disoway, A. M.; "A Commemorative Discourse, delivered in the New South Church, Church Green, Boston, December 25, 1864, the Fiftieth Anniversary of its Dedication," by George E. Ellis, D. D.; "The Universalist Register," containing the Statistics of the Denomination for 1865.

In BIOGRAPHY, the greatest interest centred around the memory of the assassinated President, a biographical sketch of whom will be found elsewhere in this work. (*See LINCOLN, ABRAHAM.*) A list, known to be incomplete, gives forty volumes of memoirs, memorials, reminiscences, or funeral sermons, relative to President Lincoln. Of these, the most prominent and widely circulated biographies were those compiled by Frank Crosby, J. H. Barrett, Henry J. Raymond, L. P. Brockett, and J. G. Holland (we give them in the order of their publication). Cheaper and briefer memoirs were published, generally though not always without the name of the author, by T. B. Peterson and Brothers, Philadelphia, Carleton, Beadle & Co., Trent, Filmer & Co., The American News Co., and T. R. Dawley, New York, and by Wm. V. Spencer, and B. B. Russell & Co., of Boston. Another class of biographical sketches of Mr. Lincoln were the memorial volumes, consisting of a brief memoir, and the public exercises connected with the funeral services conducted on the occasion of his death, either by municipal authorities or in churches or public halls. They included sermons, orations, eulogies, and odes or elegies, delivered at these memorial services. Of these were: "The Lincoln Memorial," published by Messrs. Bunce and Huntington, N. Y.; "The Memorial Record of the Nation's Tribute to Abraham Lincoln," compiled by B. F. Morris; "A Memorial of Abraham Lincoln, late President of the U. S.," published by Ticknor and Fields, Boston; "The Promises of the Declaration of Independence, Eulogy on Abraham Lincoln, Boston, June 1, 1865," by Charles Sumner; "The Journeys of Abraham Lincoln; from Springfield to Washington in 1861, as

President Elect, and from Washington to Springfield, 1865, as President Martyred," by William T. Coggeshall; "The Martyr to Liberty;" three Sermons by Richard Eddy; "Our Martyr President, Abraham Lincoln, Voices from the Pulpit of New York and Brooklyn, with the Orations of Hon. Geo. Bancroft and Bishop Simpson;" "Sermons preached in Boston on the Death of Abraham Lincoln; together with the Funeral Services in the East Room of the Executive Mansion at Washington;" "A Discourse occasioned by the Death of Abraham Lincoln, preached in Boston, April 16, 1865," by Andrew L. Stone, D. D.; "Commemorative Proceedings of the Athenæum Club on the Death of Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, April, 1865." There were also orations, reminiscences, and an ode delivered and published by the New York Historical Society; a discourse before the Loyal League, by Rev. J. P. Thompson, D. D.; and proceedings and eulogies in most of the Clubs and Scientific Societies. Memorial volumes were also published by the cities of Troy, New York, and some others. A funeral oration was also pronounced by Miss Emma Hardinge on the 16th of April, and subsequently published. Another volume, combining the memorial with the biographical record, was "The Martyr's Monument; being the Patriotism and Political Wisdom of Abraham Lincoln, as exhibited in his Speeches, Messages, Orders, and Proclamations, from the Presidential Canvass of 1860 until his Assassination." Besides these, several collections were made of choice passages from his speeches, letters, and addresses; one of these bore the title of "Gems from Abraham Lincoln," and another, "The President's Words." Seven different volumes appeared, containing more or less full reports of the arrest and trial of the assassins and conspirators. Of these, one is in French, and one is mainly occupied with the details of the pursuit and capture of Booth and his accomplices. Of Mr. Andrew Johnson, President Lincoln's successor, three biographies were published, one anonymous, but issued by Messrs. Peterson and Brother, of Philadelphia; one by John Savage, of New York; and one introductory to a volume of his speeches, by Frank Moore. There were also four memoirs of Lieut.-Gen. Grant published during the year; an anonymous work, published by Peterson and Brother; a small biography, by C. J. Victor; another, of hardly greater extent, by F. W. H. Stanfield; and "Grant and his Campaigns," an elaborate work, derived from official sources, by Henry Coppée, A. M., now President of Lehigh College, Pa. Of other prominent officers of the army, Gen. Sherman received the honor of three biographical sketches, one by T. R. Dawley, another by Rev. P. C. Headley, and a third, with a full and careful account of his campaigns, under the title of "Sherman and his Campaigns," by Col. S. M. Bowman and Lieut.-Col. R. B. Irwin; a biographical sketch, under the title of "Kilpatrick and Our Cavalry," by James Moore, M. D.

commemorates the services of that brilliant cavalry officer; the Century Association published a memorial of Gen. James S. Wadsworth and Col. Peter A. Porter, two brave officers slain in 1864, prepared by W. J. Hoppin, and F. S. Cozzens; Rev. P. C. Headley, in addition to his *Boy's Life of Sherman*, already mentioned, prepared a "Life of Gen. Sheridan," a "Life of Vice-Admiral Farragut," and one of Captain Ericsson, inventor of the Monitor; Rev. Henry Clay Trumbull, under the title of "The Knightly Soldier," gave a very interesting memoir of Major Henry Ward Camp, of the 10th Connecticut Volunteers; Mrs. P. A. Hanaford, under the title of "The Young Captain," a memorial of Capt. Richard Derby, 15th Mass. Vols., and Judge Bacon, of Utica, one of his son, Adjutant William Kirkland Bacon.

Of other prominent deceased citizens there were five memorials and discourses of the late Edward Everett, one each by Rev. Dr. Hedge and Rev. Dr. Osgood, a Memorial published by the New England Historical and Genealogical Society, and "The Proceedings of the Thursday Evening Club," on the occasion of his death, and a Memorial from the City of Boston; Dr. Samuel W. Francis published a Memoir of the late Dr. Valentine Mott; the second and concluding volume of the Autobiography, Correspondence, etc., of Lyman Beecher, D. D., edited by Charles Beecher, D. D., made its appearance; other biographies of distinguished persons were: a Memoir of Alice B. Haven, under the title of "Cousin Alice," by her sister; Memoirs of Rev. Benjamin C. Cutler, D. D., late Rector of St. Ann's Church, Brooklyn, N. Y., by Rev. Horatio Gray, A. M.; "A Tribute to Rev. T. Starr King," by R. Frothingham; a Memorial of Albert Drake, with Funeral Discourse, etc., by Rev. E. K. Alden; a sketch of the Life of James William Wallack, senior, late stage actor and manager; "Life and Letters of Rev. James May, D. D.," by Rev. Alexander Shiras, A. M.; "Life and Services of Joseph Warren," by Richard Frothingham; "Life of John Jacob Astor," by James Parton; "The Life of Horace Mann," by his wife; "William Jackson Davis, in memoriam," by H. B. Dawson; "Eulogy on Thomas Crawford," by Thomas Hicks, N. A.; "Life of Pauline Cushman, the celebrated Union Spy and Scout," by F. L. Sarmiento; "A Colored Man's Reminiscences of James Madison," by Paul Jennings; "The Faithful Shepherd: a Man Mighty in the Scriptures," a memoir published in Northampton, Mass.; Jamie McClintock, a memoir by Rev. I. A. Cornelison; "Reminiscence of Sixty-four Years in the Ministry," by Rev. Henry Boehm, Bishop Asbury's Travelling Companion," edited by Rev. J. B. Wakeley; "Autobiography of Elder Osborn, an Itinerant Minister of the Methodist Episcopal Church, to which is added a brief Memoir of Rev. Hezekiah C. Wooster;" "The Unjust Judge: a Memorial of Roger Brooke Taney, late Chief Justice of the United States;" "The Life of John Brainerd,

brother of David Brainerd, and his Successor as Missionary to the Indians of New Jersey," by Rev. Thomas Brainerd, D. D.; "David Woodburn, the Mountain Missionary," by Curris Brandon; "Memoirs of Mrs. Mary H. Adams," by her husband; "A Memorial of Closing Scenes in the Life of Rev. George B. Little;" "Memoir and Sermons of Rev. Francis A. Baker, Priest of the Congregation of St. Paul," edited by Rev. A. F. Hewitt; Mr. W. O. Van Horn, a German author of considerable ability, has published in German a number of small volumes containing biographical sketches of Benjamin Franklin, George Stephenson, James Watt, John Jacob Astor, and Louis Napoleon. Mr. William L. Stone has completed a memoir commenced by his father, entitled "The Life and Times of Sir William Johnson." There have been also brief and somewhat sensational biographies published of "Semmes, the Pirate;" "John Y. Beall, the Pirate Spy;" "Robert Cobb Kennedy, the Incendiary Spy;" and "The Life and Adventures of Jeff. Davis," the last by McArone (the late George Arnold). Among the sensational books of the year was also one entitled "The Love-Life of Dr. Kane; containing the Correspondence and a History of the Acquaintance, Engagement, and Secret Marriage between Elisha Kent Kane and Margaret Fox, with fac-similes of Letters and her Portrait." Of biographies of men of other countries or times, we have "Life of Philip Doddridge, D. D., with Notices of some of his Contemporaries," by D. A. Harsha; also a "Life of Rev. James Hervey," by the same author; "Wilhelm Tell," the life by Schiller (in German); "The Life of John Mary Decalogue. Student in the University of Paris," translated from the French; "The Martyr of Lebanon," by Rev. Isaac Bird; "Life of Mary Anne Schimmelpenninck, author of 'Memoirs of the Port Royalists,'" edited by Christiana C. Hankin; "Memorials of Samuel Gurney, the Famous London Banker," by Mrs. Geldart; William Forsyth's "Life of Marcus Tullius Cicero;" "The Life of Felix Mendelssohn Bartholdy," from the German of Lampadius, with supplementary sketches by Julius Benedict, Henry F. Chorley, Ludwig Rillstab, Bayard Taylor, R. S. Willis, and G. S. Dwight. Edited and translated by W. L. Gage; "The Mother of the Wealeys: a Biography," by Rev. John Kirk; Silvio Pellico's biography of Francesca da Rimini (in Italian). The Life of Julius Cæsar, by Napoleon III., was issued in six different editions, two of them in French. Other biographies of this class were—"Diary of David How, Private in Colonel Paul Dudley Sargent's Regiment of the Massachusetts Line in the Army of the American Revolution," from the Original Manuscript, with a Biographical Sketch of the Author, by George Wingate Chase, and Illustrative Notes by Henry B. Dawson; "A Political Epistle to His Excellency George Washington, Esq., Commander-in-Chief of the Armies of the United States of America, by an

Inhabitant of Maryland. To which is annexed a short Sketch of General Washington's Life and Character." Annapolis, 1791; New York, privately reprinted; "Washingtoniana; or, The Memorial of the Death of George Washington, giving an Account of the Funeral Honors paid to his Memory, with a list of Tracts and Volumes printed upon the Occasion, and a Catalogue of Medals commemorating the Event," by Franklin B. Hough; "The Adventures of Christopher Hawkins, containing Details of his Captivity, Escape from the Prison Ship, etc., written by Himself," with an Introduction and Notes, by Charles J. Bushnell; "Life and Letters of Frederick W. Robertson, M. A., Incumbent of Trinity Chapel, Brighton:" edited by Stopford A. Brooks, M. A.; "Hesperus: or, Forty-five Dog-Post-Days: a Biography." From the German of Jean Paul Friedrich Richter, translated by Rev. Charles T. Brooks; "Richard Cobden, the Apostle of Free Trade, his Political Career and Public Services: a Biography," by John McGilchrist; "Hope for the Hopeless: an Autobiography of John Vine Hall, author of the Sinner's Friend," edited by Rev. Newman Hall, LL.D.; "Life and Character of J. H. Van der Palm, D. D., Professor of Oriental Language, etc., at the University of Leyden," sketched by Nicholas Beets, D. D., translated from the Dutch by J. P. Westervelt; "Memoirs of the Life of William Shakspeare, with an Essay toward the Expression of his Genius, and an Account of the Rise and Progress of the English Drama," by Richard Grant White; "Life of Michael Angelo," by Hermann Grimm. Translated, with the author's sanction, by Fanny Elizabeth Bunnett, 2 vols.; "Dante as Philosopher, Patriot, and Poet, with an Analysis of the Divina Commedia, its Plot and Episodes," by Vincenzo Botta; "Sir Charles Henry Frankland, Baronet; or, Boston in the Colonial Times," by Elias Nason, M. A. Among the biographies may properly be included a number of Lives of the Saints of the Roman Catholic Church, first published in the United States during the year 1865. Among these were—"The Life and Miracles of Saint Philomena, Virgin and Martyr, whose sacred body was lately discovered in the Catacombs of Rome, and thence transferred to Magnano, in the Kingdom of Naples," from the French; "Life of Saint Antony, of Padua, of the Order of Friars Minor," by Father Servais Dicks; "The Life of Blessed Paul of the Cross, Founder of the Congregation of Discalced Clerks of the Most Holy Cross and Passion of Jesus Christ," written by Father Pius of the Name of Mary, translated by Father Ignatius of S. Paul.

Among the *collective biographies* the most important were—"Annals of the American Pulpit," etc., by William B. Sprague, D. D. Vol. viii., Unitarian Congregational; "Southern Generals, Who they are and What they have done," by William Parker Snow; "Our Great Captains, Grant, Sherman, Thomas, Sheridan, and Farragut," by L. P. Brockett, A. M.;

"Lives made Sublime: or, Sketches of Christian Men who adorned their Lives with Good Works;" "National Jewels: Washington, Lincoln, and the Fathers of the Revolution," by Rev. Andrew Manship; "The Perfect Light: or, Seven Hues of Christian Character," by Julia M. Olin; "Lessons from Biography for Young Men;" *Contes Biographiques*, by Madame E. Foa; "The New Jersey Conference Memorial, containing Biographical Sketches of all Deceased Members, including those who have died in the Newark Conference;" "Women of the South distinguished in Literature, illustrated with Portraits on Steel," by Mary Forrest, a new edition; "A Biographical History of the Fine Arts: or, Memoirs of the Lives and Works of Eminent Painters, Engravers, Sculptors, and Architects, from the Earliest Ages to the Present Time," by Shearjashub Spooner, new edition, 2 vols.; "The Cyclopædia of Biography: a Record of the Lives of Eminent Persons," by Parke Godwin, new edition, with a Supplement brought down to 1865, by George Sheppard; "Supplement to the Cyclopædia of American Literature, including Obituaries of Authors, Continuations of former Articles, with Notices of Earlier and Later Writers omitted in previous Editions," by E. A. Duyckinok.

Genealogical works properly come under this head. Of these there were—"A Brief Genealogy of the Descendants of William Hutchinson and Thomas Oliver, reprinted, with additions, from the 'N. E. Historical and Genealogical Register,'" "A Memorial of John, Henry, and Richard Townsend, and their Descendants;" "The Pratt Family; or, The Descendants of Lieut. William Pratt, one of the First Settlers of Hartford and Saybrook, with Genealogical Notes of John Pratt of Hartford, Peter Pratt of Lyme, John Pratt (Taylor) of Saybrook," by Rev. F. W. Chapman, A. M.; "The Burke and Alvord Memorial;" "A Genealogical Account of the Descendants of Richard Burke, of Sudbury, Mass.," compiled by John Alonzo Boutelle, of Woburn, Mass., for William A. Burke, of Lowell, Mass.; "Anthony Stoddard, of Boston, Mass., and his Descendants," a Genealogy, originally compiled by Charles and Elijah W. Stoddard, and published in 1849: revised and enlarged by Elijah W. Stoddard, and republished in 1865.

The number of THEOLOGICAL WORKS was larger than in 1864. Among those of a *doctrinal* character were—"The Lives and Doctrines of the Apostles," by Rev. S. J. Fletcher; "A Treatise on Despondency in the Pursuit of Piety, followed by one on Temptations," by Rev. P. J. Michel, translated from the French; "South Church Lectures, Discourses upon Christian Doctrine, delivered in the South Baptist Church, New York, on Sabbath Evenings, from January to April, 1863," by Clergymen of New York, representing Six Evangelical Denominations; "Almighty God and His Perfections," by the Rev. J. Furniss, O. S. S. R.; "The Laws of God as Contained in the Ten

Commandments, Explained and Enforced," by William S. Plumer, D. D., LL. D.; "Meditations on the Essence of Christianity and on the Religious Questions of the Day," by M. Guizot, translated from the French; "The Words of the Lord Jesus," by Rudolf Stier, D. D., translated by the Rev. W. B. Pope, and revised by James Strong, S. T. D., and Henry B. Smith, D. D.; "The Love of Religious Perfection; or How to Awaken, Increase, and Preserve it in the Religious Soul," by Father Joseph Bayma, translated from the Latin; "Sermons preached in the Second Church, Dorchester," by James H. Means; "Our Faith; the Victory: or, a Comprehensive View of the Principal Doctrines of the Christian Religion," by Rev. John McGill, D. D., Bishop of Richmond; "Remember Me; or, the Holy Communion," by Ray Palmer, D. D.; "Our Vows: a Work to be read in Preparation for Baptism, Confirmation, and the Eucharist," by the Rev. Richard Lowndes, M. A., revised and adapted to Use in the Church in the United States; "An Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles, Historical and Doctrinal, by Edward Harold Browne, D. D., Lord Bishop of Ely, 1st American from the 6th English edition: edited, with Notes, by J. Williams, D. D., Bishop of Connecticut;" "Catholic Anecdotes; or the Catechism in Examples: the Apostles' Creed," etc., translated from the French by Mrs. J. Sadlier; "A Critical and Grammatical Commentary on St. Paul's Epistles to the Philippians, Colossians, and to Philemon, with a Revised Translation," by Right Rev. Charles J. Ellicott, D. D.; "The Prophecies of Isaiah Translated and Explained," by Joseph Addison Alexander, D. D., revised edition, 2 vols.; "A Commentary on the Gospels, Matthew," by Rev. J. H. Lange, D. D. Translated, with Additional Notes, by Philip Schaff, D. D. and others; "Notes on the Book of Genesis," by O. H. Mackintosh; "Expository Thoughts on the Gospels, for Family and Private Use, with the Text Complete," by the Rev. J. C. Ryle—St. John; "A Critical and Grammatical Commentary on the Pastoral Epistles," by the Right Rev. C. J. Ellicott, D. D.; "A Concise Dictionary of the Bible, comprising its Antiquities, Biography, Geography, and Natural History, being a Condensation of the Larger Dictionary," edited by William Smith, LL. D.; "A Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature," originally edited by John Kitto, D. D., F. S. A.: third edition, greatly enlarged and improved, edited by William Lindsay Alexander, D. D., three volumes; "The New Testament of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, with Explanatory Notes and Practical Observations," by Rev. Lyman Cobb, D. D.

Of works in *Polemic Theology*, the following were the most important: "What is Confirmation, or the Laying On of Hands? The Question answered to Strangers in the Church, with an Appendix, showing by Testimony that a similar Custom anciently existed, and is still observed among the Jews," by the Rev. David

G. Haskins; "Christ's Second Coming: Is it Pre-millennial or Post-millennial? Scripturally, Historically, and Philosophically considered, with a Reply to Prof. Shedd on Eschatology, etc., and Remarks on an Article on the same Subject, by Rev. E. F. Hatfield, D. D.," by Rev. R. C. Shimeall; "Mater Admirabilis; or First Fifteen Years of Mary Immaculate," by Rev. Alfred Monnin, translated from the French by the Sisters of Charity, Mount St. Vincent, N. Y.; "Morning Lectures: Twenty Discourses delivered before the Friends of Progress in the City of New York," by Andrew Jackson Davis; "Universalism: its Doctrines and their Foundations," by Rev. L. J. Fletcher; "Childhood and Manhood of the Spirit in Jesus; and 'New Year's Gifts of the Spirit,'" Two Discourses, by Rev. O. B. Frothingham; "Reply to the 'Christian Examiner' on Catholicity and Naturalism;" "Sermons on our Lord Jesus Christ and on His Blessed Mother," by his Eminence Cardinal Wiseman; "Evidences of Divine Revelation, in a Letter to a Judge," by Ichabod S. Spencer, D. D.; "The Unions of the Liberal Faith:" a Discourse by Rev. O. B. Frothingham; "Tract Number Ninety: Remarks on Certain Passages in the Thirty-nine Articles," by John Henry Newman, D. D.; "The Month of Mary," for the Use of Ecclesiastics; "Lectures on M. Rénan's 'Vie de Jésus,'" by John Tulloch, D. D., Principal of the College of St. Mary's in the University of St. Andrew's, with an Introduction by Rev. J. W. Wiley, D. D.; "Congregationalism: What It Is: Whence It Is: How It Works: Why it is Better than any Other Form of Church Government; and its Consequent Demands," by Henry M. Dexter, D. D.; "Lessons from the World of Matter and the World of Man," by Theodore Parker: selected from Notes of Unpublished Sermons, by Rufus Leighton; "The Person of Christ, the Miracle of History, with a Reply to Strauss and Rénan, and a Collection of Testimonies of Unbelievers," by Philip Schaff, D. D.; "The Verdict of Reason upon the Question of the Future Punishment of Those who Die Impenitent," by H. M. Dexter, D. D.; "Reason in Religion," by Frederick Henry Hedge, D. D.; "The Radical Creed:" a Discourse by Rev. David A. Wasson; "The Unity of the Spirit, not Unbroken Episcopal Succession, the Revealed Bond of Peace to the Church," by Rev. Mason Gallagher, Rector of the Church of the Evangelists, Oswego; "Scripture Baptism Defended," by Rev. John Levington; "Pastoral Letter of the Rt. Rev. H. Potter, D. D., D. C. L., with Replies of the Rev. S. H. Tyng, D. D., E. H. Canfield, D. D., John Cotton Smith, D. D., W. A. Muhlenberg, D. D.; "Review of a Pastoral Letter to the Clergy of the Diocese of New York, from the Bishop," by a Presbyterian; "Essays on the Supernatural Origin of Christianity, with a Special Reference to the Theories of Rénan, Strauss, and the Tübingen School," by Rev. George P. Fisher, A. M., Professor of Church History in Yale College; "The

Vicarious Sacrifice, Grounded on Principles of Universal Obligation," by Horace Bushnell, D. D.; "History or Romance? an Answer to Rénan" (in German), by Rev. Dr. Osterzu; "Eternal Penalty: Nine Essays from 'The Northwestern Church,'" by Hugh Miller Thompson, Professor of Church History in Nashotah Theological Seminary; "Slavery and Southern Methodism: Two Sermons preached in the Methodist Church in Newnan, Georgia," by the Pastor, Rev. John H. Caldwell; "The End, as Foretold in Daniel, with an Exposition of Some Numbers, and the Chronology of the Hebrew Scriptures," by Redford A. Watkinson; "History of Rationalism: embracing a Survey of the Present State of Protestant Theology, by the Rev. John F. Hurst, A. M., with an Appendix of Literature; "The Reformed Church of Christendom; or the Duties of Liberal Christians to the Natural Faith at this Crisis of Opinion:" a Sermon, by Rev. H. W. Bellows, D. D.

The number of RELIGIOUS WORKS NOT THEOLOGICAL (aside from religious books for children which form a distinct class) was considerably smaller than the previous year, but included a considerable number of very valuable original publications, as well as some important reprints. Of the former, the most important were—"The Mystical Rose; or, Mary of Nazareth, the Lily of the House of David," by Maria Josephine; "Home Scenes: or, Lights and Shadows of the Christian Home;" "Jesus in Bethany," by the author of "Allan Cameron;" "Christ and the Sea: or, Sketches of His Works and Wonders in the Deep," by Rev. John Spaulding, late Corresponding Secretary of the American Seaman's Friend Society; "The Predictions of the Prophets which have been most wonderfully fulfilled since the Commencement of the Christian Era, and especially those Predictions concerning the United States of America," by Rev. E. P. Royse; "The High Mountain Apart: or, the Desert Place a Delight," "St. John Land; a Retrospective: in Two Letters supposed to be written some Years hence;" "Sermons preached at the Church of St. Paul, the Apostle, during year 1864;" "Reflected Light; Illustrations of the Redeemer's Faithfulness in the Happy Deathbed Experience of Christians;" "Counsels to Converts," by Rev. A. O. George;" "A Sermon of Childhood," by Rev. Morgan Dix, S. T. D.;" "St. Paul in Rome; Lectures delivered in the Legation of the United States of America, in Rome," by Rev. C. M. Butler, D. D.;" "A Pastor's Review," a Discourse preached in Medway, Mass., Nov. 2, 1864, on the Fiftieth Anniversary of the Author's Ordination and Settlement," by Jacob Ide, D. D.;" "The Light of Life: or, the True Idea of the Soul," by N. S. Saxton, M. D., Greenpoint, L. I.;" "Hours with the Tilling, a Book for Women;" "Spiritual Progress," by J. W. Cummings, D. D., LL. D., of St. Stephen's Church, N. Y.;" "The Christian Armor, with Illustrative Selections in Prose and Poetry;"

"The Believer's Refuge; or, Meditations on Christ and Heaven," by Joseph P. Thompson, D. D.;" "A Discourse delivered in Harvard Church, Charlestown, March 12, 1865, on the 25th Anniversary of his Ordination," by George E. Ellis, D. D., with an Historical Note;" "The Missionary Jubilee; an Account of the Fiftieth Anniversary of the American Baptist Missionary Union at Philadelphia, May 24-26, 1864, with Commemorative Papers and Discourses;" "Our Country: its Trials and its Triumphs; a series of Discourses suggested by the varying events of the War for the Union," by George Peck, D. D.;" "Parochial Sermons," by Rev. Charles Mason, D. D., late Rector of Grace Church, Boston, with a brief Memoir of the Author;" "Machpelah: a Book for the Cemetery;" "Behold the Lamb of God!" by E. N. Kirk, D. D.;" "The Waiting Saviour," by E. N. Kirk, D. D.;" "Thoughts on the Death of Little Children," by S. I. Prime, D. D., with an Appendix, selected from various authors, a new and enlarged edition;" "Hours among the Gospels: or, Wayside Truths from the Life of Our Lord," by N. O. Burt, D. D.;" "Notes from Plymouth Pulpit; a Collection of Memorable Passages from the Discourses of Henry Ward Beecher, with a Sketch of Mr. Beecher and the Lecture Room," by Augusta Moore, a new edition, revised and greatly enlarged. "Questions for the First Half of the Christian Year," by Rev. William R. Huntington, Worcester;" "Four Years in the Old World: comprising the Travels, Incidents, and Evangelical Labors of Dr. and Mrs. Palmer, in England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales," by the Author of "The Way of Holiness;" "Vital Godliness," by Rev. W. S. Plumer, D. D.;" "Daily Meditations," by the Rev. George Bowen, American Missionary to Bombay, India;" "Some Words of Promise;" "The Soul Gathered," by the Author of "The Way Home;" "Book of Worship, for Private, Family, and Public Use," by W. W. Everts, D. D.;" "Golden Sands from the Ocean of Divine Wisdom," by the Author of "Emma Allen;" "Gleanings from Pious Authors;" "How to be Saved: or, the Sinner directed to the Saviour," by J. H. B.;" "Jesus and the Coming Glory: or, Notes on Scripture," by Joel Jones, LL. D., a new edition;" "An Essay on Temptation," by E. O. Wines, D. D.;" "Family Prayers, with Forms for Occasional and Private Use," by the Rt. Rev. Henry W. Lee, D. D., Bishop of Iowa;" "New Fruits from an Old Field," by Rev. Ephraim Whittaker.

Among the reprints the following are most noteworthy: A new and very elegant edition of Jeremy Taylor's "Rule and Exercise of Holy Living," and "Rule and Exercise of Holy Dying;" "Ore from Precious Mines;" a new edition of Paley's "Horæ Paulinæ;" "The Rhythm of Bernard de Morlaix, Monk of Cluny, on the Celestial Country," translated by Rev. J. M. Neale, B. D., Warden of Sackville College;" "Sermons of Rev. C. H. Spurgeon," preached at the Metropolitan Tabernacle, London, Eighth

Series; "Sermons on Moral Subjects," by his Eminence Cardinal Wiseman; "Of the Imitation of the Sacred Heart of Jesus," translated from the Latin of Rev. P. J. Arnouldt, by Rev. J. A. M. Fastre; "Life in Heaven: there Faith is changed to Sight, and Hope has passed into Blissful Fruition," by the Author of "Heaven our Home;" "Arbor Vitæ: or, the Natural History of the Tree of Life (London, 1741), privately reprinted; "Religious Duty," by Frances Power Cobbe; "Mary the Handmaid of the Lord," by the Author of the Schönberg-Cotta Family (Mrs. Charles); "The Throne of Grace," by the Author of "The Pathway of Promise;" Words to the Winners of Souls," by Rev. Horatius Bonar, D. D.; "The Office of the Dead, according to the Roman Ritual and Missal, with Gregorian Chants in Modern Notation;" "Meditations and Considerations for a Ritual of one day in each month," compiled from the writings of Fathers of the Society of Jesus; "The Year of Mary: or, the True Servant of the Blessed Virgin," translated from the French of Rev. M. d'Arville, edited by Mrs. J. Sadlier; "The Cross of Jesus: or, Heaven on Earth to Me," by Rev. David Thompson; "Plain Words on Christian Living," by Charles John Vaughn, D. D.; "Voices of the Soul answered in God," by Rev. John Reid; "The Parables read in the Light of the Present Day," by Thomas Guthrie, D. D. A new and cheap edition of Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*. "Manna Crumbs for Hungry Souls," consisting of Excerpts from the Letters of the Rev. Samuel Rutherford, gathered by Rev. W. P. Breed, D. D.; "Bible Blessings," by Rev. Richard Newton, D. D.; "Wanderings over Bible Lands and Seas," by the Author of the Schönberg-Cotta Family (Mrs. Charles); "Work: or, Plenty to do, and how to do it," by Margaret Maria Brewster, a new edition.

WORKS ON MORAL AND INTELLECTUAL SCIENCE are not very numerous in any year, but 1865 had more than its predecessor, and of these, six works of considerable ability were original. They were as follows: "Practical Ethics," by Rev. J. W. French, D. D., Professor of Ethics U. S. Military Academy, to which are added Lectures on Ethics and Jurisprudence; "Know the Truth, a Critique on the Hamiltonian Theory of Limitation, including some Strictures upon the Theories of Rev. Henry L. Mansel and Mr. Herbert Spencer," by Jesse H. Jones; "A View at the Foundations: or, First Causes of Character, as operative before Birth, from Hereditary and Spiritual Sources," etc., etc., by Woodbury M. Fernald; "Brief Outline of an Analysis of the Human Intellect; intended to rectify the Scholastic and Vulgar Perversions of the Natural Purposes and Methods of Thinking, by rejecting altogether the Theoretic Confusion, the Unmeaning Arrangement, and Indefinite Nomenclature of the Metaphysician," by James Rush, M. D., 2 vols., 8vo; "New System of Physiognomy, or the Art of Knowing Men by their Eyes," by M. Aguirre de Venero; "Physiognomy, or Signs of Character, based on

Ethnology, Physiology, and Phrenology." The reprints, though few in number, were works of great ability. They were—"The Intuitions of the Mind Inductively Investigated," by Rev. James McCosh, LL. D., a new and revised edition; "An Examination of Sir William Hamilton's Philosophy, and of the Principal Philosophical Questions discussed in his Writings," by John Stuart Mill, 2 vols., and "History of the Rise and Influence of the Spirit of Rationalism in Europe," by W. E. H. Lecky, M. A., 2 vols., 8vo.

THE WORKS ON PHYSICAL SCIENCE did not materially vary in number from those of the previous year, though their distribution in the various sub-classes was decidedly different. In *Astronomy and Meteorology*, but a single work appeared, "The Report of the Meteorologist of the New York Skating-Club." There were indeed Meteorological Reports, in the Report of the Agricultural Department, in the Journal of the Franklin Institute, and some other publications, but no distinct work except the one named, devoted to this science, and none to astronomy, appeared during the year. In Geology and Mineralogy, thanks to our mining interests, the record is more extensive. Some of them, too, were works of great value. Among these were—"The Geological Survey of California," by J. D. Whitney, State Geologist, vol. I.; "Carboniferous and Jurassic Fossils," by F. B. Meek; "Triassic and Cretaceous Fossils," by W. M. Gabb; "The Mineral Resources of the Pacific States and Territories," a Lecture by the Hon. William M. Stewart, U. S. Senator from Nevada; "Contributions to the Geology and Physical Geography of Mexico, including a Geological and Topographical Map, with Profiles of some of the Principal Mining Districts: together with a graphic Description of an Ascent of the Volcano Popocatepetl," edited by Baron F. W. Von Egloffstein. The Geologists who were conducting the Geological Survey of Canada, added a volume to their report, published jointly in Montreal and New York. It was entitled, "Figures and Descriptions of Canadian Organic Remains, Decade II., Graptolites of the Quebec Group," by James Hall, 8vo., 21 plates. Another contribution to geological science was, "The Cooling Globe: or, the Mechanics of Geology," by C. F. Winslow, M. D., author of "Cosmography," etc. Dr. Worthington Hooker, Professor in the Yale Medical College, in pursuance of his design of popularizing science, published during the year as part third of his Science for the School and Family, a Treatise on Mineralogy and Geology. The only reprint in this sub-class was, "A Treatise on the Assaying of Lead, Copper, Silver, Gold and Mercury," from the German of Th. Bodemann and Bruno Keil, translated by W. A. Goodyear, Ph. B. In *Zoology* the number of works of a high character was very considerable. Mr. Daniel Giraud Elliot issued part third of his admirable monograph on the "Tetraoninae or Grouse Family;" Mr. Augustus Radcliffe Grote, the Curator

of Entomology in the Buffalo Society of Natural Sciences, published "Notes on the Sphingidæ of Cuba;" Mr. George W. Tryon, Jr., issued a third volume of his "Contributions to Conchology, containing the Synonymy of the Species of Strepomatidæ (Melanians) of the United States; with Critical Observations on their Affinities and Descriptions; of Land, Fresh Water, and Marine Mollusca," with two Plates. The Essex Institute (Salem, Mass.), one of the most efficient Natural History Societies in the country, issued a "Naturalist's Directory of North America and the West Indies," and published two monographs of some of its zealous members, entitled, "Notes on the Habits of some Species of Humble-Bees, and on the Leaf-Cutting Bee," by F. W. Putnam, and "The Humble-Bees of New England and their Parasites, with Notices of a New Species of Anthophorabæ and a New Genus of Proctotrupidæ," by A. S. Packard, Jr.

The Museum of Comparative Zoology, at Cambridge, have commenced the publication of an Illustrated Catalogue of the Museum, and in their first number give lists, with illustrations and descriptions, of the Ophiuridæ and Astrophytidæ, prepared by Theodore Lyman. They also issue a periodical Bulletin. A son and daughter of Professor Agassiz have made their contribution to the science in which their father stands preëminent, in a little volume entitled, "Seaside Studies in Natural History," in which they describe the Radiates found on the coast of Massachusetts. A Spanish naturalist, Señor Marco a Rojas, has published in his own language, in New York, a brief manual of Natural History entitled, "*El Reino Animal segun la clasificación de Cuvier ó Historia Incinta de los Seres amenados, a Compañada de Reflexiones muy utiles.*" In popular, as distinguished from exact science, we have "Superior Fishing: or, the Striped Bass, Trout, and Black Bass of the Northern States. Embracing full Directions for Dressing artificial flies, with the Feathers of American Birds, an Account of a Sporting Visit to Lake Superior," etc., by Robert B. Roosevelt, author of "The Game Fish of North America;" and a work which, while making little pretension to science of any sort, is yet very interesting. "Curious Facts in the History of Insects, including Spiders and Scorpions. A complete collection of the Legends and Superstitious Belief and Ominous Signs connected with Insects; together with their Uses in Medicine, Art, and as Food, and a Summary of their Remarkable Injuries and Appearances," by Frank Cowan.

The works on *Natural Philosophy and Chemistry*, published during the year, were of no great importance. "The Annual of Scientific Discovery, for 1865," gave a *résumé* of the most important discoveries in these and kindred sciences; and the "American Journal of Science and the Arts," the ablest scientific journal maintained by private enterprise in the world, had its usual number of able papers on both subjects. Aside from these, the only original publications bearing even remotely on

Natural Philosophy were—"Rays of Sunlight from South America," seventy photographs, by Alexander Gardner, and a treatise on the "Preparation and Mounting of Microscopic Objects," by Thomas Davies. Two reprints were issued, one, an admirable lecture on Radiation, by Prof. John Tyndall; the other, a sort of encyclopædia of popular science, with the title of "That's It, or Plain Teaching." The only original work on chemistry was "Schultz and Warker's Mineral Spring Waters, their Chemical Composition, Physiological Action, and Therapeutical Use, with a Short Review of the History of Mineral Waters," by Carl Schultz.

In POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE, the number of works was considerable, and some of them were valuable contributions to the discussion of the subjects of which they treated. Mr. Henry C. Carey, one of the highest authorities on Political Economy now living, published a series of letters under the title of "The Way to Outdo England without Fighting Her;" "Letters to the Hon. Schuyler Colfax, Speaker of the House of Representatives, on the Paper, the Iron, the Farmers, the Railroads, and the Currency Questions;" a condensation of Mr. Carey's great work, "The Principles of Social Science," by Kate McKean, well known as the author of several popular text-books, was also published during the year, under the title of "Manual of Social Science." Other works of importance on political and social science, were—"Words for the People, in three Parts, I. Civil Government, II. Government of the United States, III. Social Duties," by Origen; "The Fiscal Convention, Hints for the People, etc., in pro-forma Debates of a Convention of Delegates from Different Classes and Interests, with a Platform of Principles unanimously recommended to the National Government." "The Curse, or the Position in the World's History occupied by the Race of Ham," by Rev. Increase N. Tarbox. Prof. Arthur L. Perry, of Williams College, published, near the close of the year, "Elements of Political Economy," which, though intended as a text-book, is yet deserving of notice for its clear and somewhat original statement of the principles of this science. "The Reconstruction of States," a Letter of Major-General Banks to Senator Lane; "The Old Farm and the New Farm, a Political Allegory," by Francis Hopkinson, member of the Continental Congress, with an Introduction and Historical Notes, by Benson J. Lossing; "The Laws of the Commonwealth, shall they be Enforced?" speech of Wendell Phillips, Esq., before the Legislative Committee, February 28, 1865; "England and America," a Lecture by Goldwin Smith; "The New Man for the New Times," a Sermon by Rev. H. W. Bellows, D. D.; "Woman's Dress, its Moral and Physical Relations," by Mrs. M. M. Jones; "The American Union shown to be the New Heaven and the New Earth, and its Predicted Restoration to Life within Four Years from its

Death;" "Southern Planters and the Freedmen," by Rev. J. B. Waterbury, D. D. There were also a very considerable number of publications of an occasional character, relative to the Freedmen and to the reconstruction of the States. Of these, the most remarkable were the report of a tour, made at the request of the President, through the South, by Carl Schurz, late Major-General U. S. V., to ascertain the state of feeling in the South, and the report of Major-General Howard, Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau. Other works belonging to this class were—"The Fenian's Progress, a Vision; also the Constitution of the Fenian Brotherhood;" "Washington Vision," by Wesley Bradshaw; "The growth of New York;" two editions of "The Constitution of the United States, and the Declaration of Independence;" "Idols of the Polls, an Odd Essay on What is Even So," by Archarr. A periodical, bearing the title of "The Social Science Review, a Quarterly Journal of Political Economy and Statistics," edited by Alexander Delmar and Simon Stern, and intended to sustain the Political and Social dogmas of the Free Traders and the Democracy, was commenced in January, 1865. Of republications, the most noteworthy were—"Social Statics, or the Conditions Essential to Human Happiness Specified, and the first of them Developed," by Herbert Spencer. This, like Mr. Spencer's other works, was ably edited by Prof. E. L. Youmans. Two editions, one in French the other in English, of M. A. Rogeard's "Political Satire on Napoleon III., *Les Propos de Labienus*," were issued.

Under the head of FINANCIAL AND STATISTICAL SCIENCE, were two or three treatises and essays on Finance, among which were—"A Critical Examination of our Financial Policy during the Southern Rebellion," by Simon Newcomb; "A National Currency," by Sidney George Fisher; a "Reply to the Last;" "A National Debt a National Blessing." Other works belonging to this class were—"The New York Stock Exchange Manual, containing its Principles, Rules, and its different Modes of Speculation, also, a Review of the Stocks dealt in on 'Change, Government and State Securities, Railway, Mining, and Petroleum Stock, etc.," by Henry Hamon; "The Annual Report or Volume of the New York Chamber of Commerce;" "The Merchant's and Banker's Almanac;" The Reports of the Philadelphia, Baltimore, Boston, Cincinnati, and Chicago Chambers of Commerce. "The American Annual Cyclopædia and Register of Important Events of the Year 1864, embracing Political, Civil, Military, and Social Affairs, Public Documents, Biography, Statistics, Commerce, Finance, Literature, Science, Agriculture, and Mechanical Industry;" "Chambers's Encyclopædia, a Dictionary of Universal Knowledge for the People, vol. vii.;" "The Report of the National Academy of Sciences," for 1863; and the "Annual of the National Academy of Sciences," for 1863-'64; "The In-

come Record, a List giving the Taxable Income of every Resident of New York for the Year 1863;" "The Stranger's Guide and Complete Hand-Book to the City of New York;" "Notices of the Triennial and Annual Catalogues of Harvard University, with a reprint of the Catalogues of 1674-1682 and 1700," by John Langdon Sibley, A. M.; "The Manual of the Corporation of the City of New York for 1865," with maps, etc.; "The Connecticut Register for 1865;" The Massachusetts Register for 1865;" "The New Hampshire Annual Register and United States Calendar for 1865;" "The Vermont Register (Walton's) and Farmer's Almanac for 1865;" "Sadlier's Catholic Almanac and Ordo for 1865, with a full Report of the Various Dioceses in the United States, British North America, and Ireland;" "The Tribune Almanac for 1865;" "The Evening Journal Almanac for 1865;" "The Franklin Almanac for 1866;" "The Railroad and Insurance Almanac for 1865;" "The American Photographic Almanac for 1865, being an Annual Appendix to Humphrey's Journal of Photography and the Allied Arts and Sciences," edited by John Fowler, M. D.; "The Illustrated Annual of Phrenology and Physiology for 1865," by S. R. Wells; "The Presbyterian Historical Almanac and Annual Remembrancer of the Church for 1864," by Joseph M. Willson; "The Physician's Visiting List, Diary, and Book of Engagements for 1866;" "Carroll's New Practical Catalogue of Current Miscellaneous Books published in the United States." Besides these, there were thirty-two Almanacs having some specialty of statistics or information; and about seventy-five directories of cities and towns, giving special statistical information concerning them. There were also ten extensive library catalogues published during the year.

PHILOLOGY is not a science which is ordinarily prosecuted with much advantage amid the din of war; yet several very valuable works, the result of investigations carried on during the past five years, were published in 1865. Noteworthy among these are—"Method of Philological Study of the English Language," by Francis A. March, Professor of the English Language and Lecturer on Comparative Philology in Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.; "Affixes in their Origin and Application, exhibiting the Etymological Structure of English Words," by S. S. Haldeman, A. M.; "An Explanatory and Pronouncing Dictionary of the Noted Names of Fiction, including also familiar Pseudonyms, Surnames bestowed on Eminent Men, and Analogous Popular Appellations often referred to in Literature and Conversation," by William A. Wheeler; "The Emphatic Diaglott, containing the Original Greek Text of what is commonly styled the New Testament, according to the Recension of Dr. J. J. Griesbach, with an Interlineary Word for Word English Translation, a new Emphatic Version, based on the Interlineary Translation, on the Renderings of Eminent Critics, and on the

Various Readings of the Vatican Manuscript (No. 1,209), in the Vatican Library, together with Illustrative and Explanatory Foot Notes, and a Copious Selection of References, to the whole of which is added a valuable Alphabetical Appendix," by B. Wilson, editor of the "Gospel Banner," "Sacred Melodist," etc. Messrs. De Vries, Ibarra & Co., a foreign publishing house of Boston, have issued four little Pocket Manuals, entitled respectively: "Do You Speak French?" "Do You Speak German?" "Do You Speak Spanish?" and "Do You Speak Italian?" intended to facilitate the efforts of beginners in acquiring rapidly a colloquial knowledge of those languages. The only important reprint in Philology during the year, was that of the second series of Max Müller's invaluable "Lectures on the Science of Language, delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain, in February, March, April, and May, 1863."

IN MINING, TECHNOLOGY, and MECHANICAL SCIENCE, the principal interest in the early part of the year centred in the discoveries and search for petroleum. Fourteen volumes of considerable size, besides some hundreds of reports of investigations by chemists, mining and civil engineers, were published on the subject. Over six hundred companies were formed, and nearly all issued pamphlets, setting forth their claims upon the public patronage. Twelve, and perhaps more, periodicals, weekly and monthly, were established, giving the history, progress, and success of the new enterprises, and the price and fluctuations of petroleum and petroleum stock. Of the books on the subject, the following are the most important: "A Practical Treatise on Coal, Petroleum, and other Distilled Oils," by Abraham Gesner, M.D., F.G.S., second edition, revised and enlarged by George Welden Gesner; "Coal Oil and Petroleum: their Origin, History, Geology, and Chemistry, with a View of their Importance in their Bearing upon National Industry," by Henri Erni, A. M., M. D.; "The Oil Regions of Pennsylvania, showing where Petroleum is found, how it is obtained, and at what Cost, with Hints for whom it may concern," by William Wright; "Petrolia, or the Oil Regions of the United States," by Frank B. Wilkie; "Petroleum and Petroleum Wells, with a Complete Guide-Book and Description of the Oil Regions of Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Ohio," by J. H. A. Bone; "The Oil Districts of Canada;" "Guide-Book for Investment in Petroleum Stocks;" "Marietta and the Oil and Mineral Regions of Southeastern Ohio and West Virginia;" "Whence comes the Oil? a Popular Essay on the Palæophytic Production of Petroleum," by William Morris, M. D.; "Petroleum and Petroleum Wells: what Petroleum is, where found, and what used for, where and how to sink Petroleum Wells, with a Complete Guide-Book and Description of the Oil Regions of Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio," by J. H. A. Bone; "Derrick and Drill,

or an Insight into the Discovery, Development, and Present Condition and Future Prospects of Petroleum, in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, West Virginia, etc., arranged and edited, from numerous Sources, by the Author of 'Ten Acres Enough'" (Mr. E. Morris); "The Oil-Dorado of West Virginia: a full Description of the Great Mineral Resources of West Virginia, the Kanawha Valley, and the Country between the Ohio, the Hughes, and the Kanawha Rivers;" "Coal and Coal Oil, or the Geology of the Earth, being a Popular Description of Minerals and Mineral Combustibles," by Eli Bowen, Professor of Geology. The ablest of the periodicals devoted to this topic commenced during this year, was "The Mining Chronicle and Petroleum Gazette," a large and well-conducted monthly, published in New York.

Next in importance to the petroleum excitement, and perhaps surpassing it in the vast amounts invested, was the mania for gold and silver mining in Colorado, Nevada, Idaho, and Montana. Hundreds of companies were formed, with large capital, for the prosecution of mining and the extraction of the precious metals from the ores, and great numbers of reports of analyses and mineral investigations by eminent chemists and civil engineers were published. Aside from the geological surveys of certain portions of these territories, there were published several hand-books, or practical treatises, on the art of extracting the precious metals, and kindred topics. Of these, the following were the principal: "The Quartz Operator's Hand-Book" (published in San Francisco); "Silver Mining Regions of Colorado, with some Account of the different Processes now being introduced for working the Gold Ores of that Territory," by J. P. Whitney, of Boston; "A Manual of Metallurgy, more particularly of the Precious Metals, including the Method of Assaying them," by George Hogarth Makins, M. R. C. S., F. C. S., etc. (a reprint). To these may be added, "Facts about Peat as an Article of Fuel, with Remarks upon its Origin and Composition, the Localities in which it is found, the Methods of Preparation and Manufacture, and the various Uses to which it is applicable, etc.," compiled by T. H. Leavitt. The construction of steam-engines and boilers has attracted largely the attention of practical men during the year, and several valuable works on that subject have been published. Among these are—"Hand-book of the Steam-Engine, containing all the Rules required for the right Construction and Management of Engines of every Class, with the easy Arithmetical Solution of those Rules, constituting a Key to the 'Catechism of the Steam-Engine,'" by John Bourne, C. E. (a reprint); "Practical Rules for the Proportions of Modern Engines and Boilers for Land and Marine Purposes," by N. P. Burgh, Engineer; "The Differential Tubular Boiler," by Alban C. Stimers, Chief Engineer, U. S. Navy. Two works of great merit on architecture were published during the year.

"Woodward's Country Houses," by George E. and F. W. Woodward, Architects; and "Architectural Designs for Model Country Residences, illustrated by colored Drawings of Elevations and Ground Plans, accompanied by General Descriptions and Estimates," by John Riddell, Architect. Mr. S. F. Van Choate, an electrician and telegraph operator, published an interesting monograph on ocean telegraphing, the adaptation of new principles for the successful working of submarine cables, etc., and Mr. J. C. Buckmaster, an able treatise on the "Elements of Mechanical Physics."

Among the treatises on special branches of manufactures, the following were the most important: "A Treatise on the Art of Boiling Sugar, Crystallizing, Lozenge-making, Comfits, Gum Goods, etc., etc." by Henry Weatherley; "Reminiscences of Glass-making," by Deming Jarves; "What to do with the Cold Mutton: a book of Rechauffés: together with many other approved Receipts for the Kitchen of a Gentleman of Moderate Income;" "Treatise on the Imposition of Forms, embracing a System of Rules and Principles for Laying the Pages, applicable to all Forms, with Instructions for making Margin and Register, turning and folding the Sheets, etc., and Diagrams of all the Standard Forms, Tables of Signatures, etc., useful to Compositors, Pressmen, and Publishers," by George H. Bidwell; "A Chronology of Paper and Paper-making," by J. Munsell; "A New and Complete Treatise on the Art of Tanning, Currying, and Leather-Dressing, comprising all the Discoveries and Improvements made in France, Great Britain, and the United States," by Professor H. Dussauce, Chemist; "The Art of Confectionery, with various Methods of Preserving Fruits and Fruit Juices, the Preparation of Jams and Jellies, Fruit and other Syrups, Summer Beverages, and Directions for making Cakes, and different methods of making Ice Cream, Sherbet, etc.," "On the Strength of Cast-Iron Pillars," by James B. Francis. Mr. S. H. Sylvester, taxidermist, of Middleboro', Mass., published a valuable little work, called "The Taxidermist's Manual, giving Instructions for Mounting and Preserving all kinds of Animals and Insects, as well as Skeletons, Eggs, etc." A valuable manual for the dyers is—"The Color-Mixer, containing nearly Four Hundred Receipts for Colors, Paints, Acids, Pulps, etc., etc.," by John Sellers. A most charming English volume, imported in quantities by a Philadelphia house, which, from its *quasi* relations to Technology, properly comes under this head, is, "Frost and Fire, Natural Engines, Tool Marks and Chips, with Sketches taken at Home and Abroad, by a Traveller."

The number of works on AGRICULTURE was a trifle larger than last year, and the greater part of them were of an eminently practical character. The titles of the most important were—"The Field and Garden Vegetables of America: containing full Descriptions of nearly eleven hundred Species and Varieties, with Di-

rections for Propagation, Culture, and Uses," illustrated by Fearing Burr, jr.; "The Origination and Test Culture of Seedling Potatoes;" "The Potato, its Diseases, with Incidental Remarks on its Soil and Culture," by C. E. Goodrich; "On the Production and Consumption of Cotton," by Hon. Frederick A. Conkling; "Hop Culture: Practical Details for the Selection and Preparation of the Soil, etc. etc. Plain Directions as given by Ten Experienced Cultivators;" "Manual of Flax Culture. Seven Prize Essays on the Culture of this Crop, and on Dressing the Fibre," etc.; "Cordon Training of Fruit Trees, adapted to the Orchard House and Open Air Culture," by Rev. T. Collings Bréhaut, with a Supplement by C. M. Hovey, President of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society; "A Treatise on the Insect Enemies of Fruit and Fruit Trees. With numerous Illustrations drawn from Nature, by Hochstein, under the immediate Supervision of the Author," by Isaac P. Trimble, M. D., Entomologist of the State Agricultural Society of New Jersey, etc., etc.; "The Curculio and the Apple Moth;" "Silver's New Poultry Book. A Brief and Practical Treatise on the History, Breeding, and Successful Management of Various Kinds of Fowls," by L. B. Silver; "Domestic Poultry: being a Practical Treatise on the Preferable Birds of Farm-yard Poultry, their History and leading Characteristics," etc., by Simon M. Saunders; "Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening," by A. J. Downing, new edition; "Woodward's Graperies and Horticultural Buildings," by George E. and F. W. Woodward, Architects and Horticulturists; "Wet Days at Edgewood with Old Farmers, Old Gardeners, and Old Pastors," by the Author of "My Farm at Edgewood" (Donald G. Mitchell); "Illustrated Annual Register of Rural Affairs and Cultivator's Almanac for 1866," by J. J. Thomas; "Proceedings of the Fourth Session of the American Pomological Society, held in Rochester, September, 1864;" "Transactions of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society, for the year 1864;" "Proceedings of the New York State Agricultural Society for 1864;" "Proceedings of the Ohio State Agricultural Society, for the Year 1864;" "Report of the Department of Agriculture, for 1864." The only reprint of the year was Miss Harriet Martineau's "Our Farm of Two Acres." The periodicals devoted to agriculture are numerous, and many of them are conducted with remarkable ability. "The Agriculturist," which, during the year, has absorbed "The Genesee Farmer," and has now a subscription list of about 120,000 patrons, leads the van; while the "Rural New Yorker," "The Country Gentleman," "The Working Farmer," and, in another department, "The Horticulturist," together with numerous papers of more local circulation, follow in their order, and are doing their best to enlighten the farming community. The Department of Agriculture issues a monthly circular, in which, besides giving crop statistics and meteorology.

there is afforded a large amount of valuable agricultural information.

In MEDICAL SCIENCE AND HYGIENE, the number of books published was about the same as the previous year, but a large proportion were works of original research and experience, and of a high character. In *surgery* the following were the most important works: "A Treatise on Military Surgery and Hygiene," by Frank Hastings Hamilton, M.D.; "Contributions to Practical Surgery," by W. H. Van Buren, M.D.; "Lectures on Inflammation, being the First Course delivered before the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, under the bequest of Dr. Müller," by John H. Packard, M.D.; "The Principles of Surgery," by James Syme, F.R.S.E., Surgeon in Ordinary to the Queen in Scotland," etc. To which are appended his Treatises on "Diseases of the Rectum," "Stricture of the Urethra and Fistula in Perineo," "The Excision of Diseased Joints," and numerous additional contributions to the "Pathology and Practice of Surgery," edited by his former pupil, Donald McLean, M.D.; "Lectures on Surgical Pathology, delivered at the Royal College of Surgeons of England," by James Paget, F.R.S., etc., revised and edited by William Turner, M.D., London. Third American edition. On the *Theory and Practice of Medicine*, the following were the principal works: "Lectures on Fever, delivered in the Memphis Medical College, 1853-'56," by A. P. Merrill, M.D., Professor, etc.; "The Practice of Medicine," by Thomas Hawkes Tanner, M.D., F.L.S. From the fifth London edition, enlarged and improved; "Obscure Diseases of the Brain and Mind," by Forbes Winslow, M.D. Second American, from the third and revised English edition; "Lectures on the Diseases of the Stomach, with an Introduction on its Anatomy and Physiology," by William Brinton, M.D., F.R.S.; "Health and Disease," by Dr. W. W. Hall. Fifth edition, revised, with additions; "Hand-book of Hygienic Practice, intended as a Practical Guide for the Sick-Room," by R. T. Trall, M.D.; "The Homœopathic Theory and Practice of Medicine," by E. E. Marcy, M.D., and F. W. Hunt, M.D. 2 vols.

In the special department of *Diseases of the Throat and Lungs*, there were several valuable treatises published. Among them were—"Rhinoscopy and Laryngoscopy: their Value in Practical Medicine," by Dr. Frederick Semeleder. Translated from the German by Edward T. Caswell, M.D. Cuts and colored plates; "The use of the Laryngoscope in Diseases of the Throat, with an Appendix on Rhinoscopy," by Morell Mackenzie, M.D.; "Nephrotherapathy: the New System for the Treatment of Diseases of the Throat, and all Diseases of the Respiratory Organs," by Dr. Edward Bunford Lighthill; "A Practical Treatise on Diseases of the Throat and Lungs, their Pathology, Symptoms, and most successful mode of Treatment;" "The Laryngoscope," by H. J. Phillips, M.D.; "Consumption: its Early and Remedial Stages," by

Edward Smith, M.D.; "A Treatise on Diphtheria: its Nature, Pathology, and Homœopathic Treatment," by William Todd Helmuth, M.D. Second edition, revised and corrected. In *Obstetrics* but a single work was issued: "The Practice of Medicine and Surgery applied to the Diseases and Accidents incident to Women," by William H. Byford, A.M., M.D. In *Materia Medica* the principal books issued were—"The Dispensatory of the United States of America," by George B. Wood, M.D., and Franklin Bache, M.D. Twelfth edition, carefully revised; "The Essentials of Materia Medica and Therapeutics," by Alfred Baring Garrod, M.D.; "Materia Medica for the Use of Students," by John B. Biddle, M.D., Professor of Materia Medica; "Stimulants and Narcotics, their Mutual Relations: with Special Researches on the Action of Alcohol, Ether, and Chloroform, on the Vital Organism," by Francis E. Anstie, M.D.; "Researches into the Medical Properties and Application of Nitrous Oxide, Protoxide of Nitrogen or Laughing Gas," by George J. Zeigler, M.D.; "A Monograph on Glycerin and its Uses," by Henry Hartshorne, A.M., M.D.; "The Pharmaceutist's and Druggist's Practical Receipt-Book, with a Glossary of Medical Terms, and a copious Index," by Thomas F. Brandin.

Of monographs on special diseases, infirmities, or modes of treatment, the following were the most important: "Defective and Impaired Vision, with the Clinical Use of the Ophthalmoscope in their Diagnosis and Treatment," by Lawrence Trumbull, M.D.; "Defective Sight and Hearing; also, the Use and Abuse of Spectacles, the Nature of Catarrh," etc., by William W. Gardner, M.D. "Hand-book of Skin Diseases, for Students and Practitioners," by Thomas Hillier, M.D., London; "The Human Hair and the Cutaneous Diseases which affect it, together with Essays on Acne, Lycosis, and Chloasma," by B. C. Perry, Dermatologist; "Hypodermic Injections in the Treatment of Neuralgia, Rheumatism, Gout, and other Diseases," by Antoine Ruppaner, M.D.; "The Renewal of Life; Lectures chiefly Clinical," by Thomas King Chambers, M.D.

In *Anatomy and Physiology*, two works of a popular rather than a scientific character, were published; "Systematic Human Physiology, Anatomy, and Hygiene, being an Analysis and Synthesis of the Human System, with Practical Conclusions," by T. S. Lambert, M.D., and "Laws of Health, for the Use of Schools, Academies and Colleges," by Edward Jarvis, M.D. On Hygienic and Sanitary topics, the most important works were—"Report of the Council of Hygiene and Public Health of the Citizens' Association of New York, upon the Sanitary Condition of the City; published, with an Introductory Statement, by Order of the Council of the Citizens' Association." Plates. "Our Social Health: a Discourse," by Garth Wilkinson, M.D.; "On Wakefulness, with an introductory Chapter on the Physiology of Sleep," by William A. Ham-

mond, M. D.; "The Hygienic Cook-book, with an Appendix," etc., etc., by Mrs. Mattie M. Jones; "The Hand-book of Dining; or, Corpulency and Leanness Scientifically Considered; comprising the Art of Dining on Correct Principles, consistent with Easy Digestion, the Avoidance of Corpulency, and the Cure of Leanness: together with Special Remarks on these Subjects," by Brillat Savarin, Author of "*Physiologie de l'Homme*," translated by L. F. Simpson. Banting's "Essay on Corpulence" reached its fortieth edition. In the way of Medical Lexicography, a new, thoroughly revised and greatly modified and augmented edition of Dr. Robley Dunglison's Medical Lexicon was issued, and also, "A Vest-Pocket Medical Lexicon, being a Dictionary of the Words, Terms, and Symbols of Medical Science; collated from the best Authorities, with an Appendix," by D. B. St. John Roosa, M. D., Aural Surgeon to the N. Y. Eye and Ear Infirmary. The two semi-annual "Parts" of Braithwaite's Retrospect were issued during the year, and also an Alphabetical Index, comprising all the articles in the first twenty-five years of publication. Dr. Guido Furman published his Medical Register of the city of New York, for the year commencing June 1st, 1865, and Dr. E. P. Mosman, of Norwich, Conn., his Homœopathician's Medical Diary. Medical Diaries and Physicians' Visiting Lists were also published by W. A. Townsend, in N. Y., and Lindsay and Blakiston in Philadelphia. Mr. S. R. Haynes published a contribution to Veterinary Surgery and Medicine, under the title of "The American Farrier and Horseman's Companion." Medical Periodical Literature is abundant. The members of the regular profession have numerous semi-monthly, monthly, and quarterly journals, and usually one or more in all the larger cities. The American Journal of the Medical Sciences, a quarterly of high character, takes the lead, and other monthly and semi-monthly periodicals in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, and New Orleans, have attained to a moderate circulation. There are also several monthly journals, like "Hall's Journal of Health," Dixon's "Scalpel," etc., which, though edited by regularly educated physicians, appeal rather to the non-professional public than the professional. The practitioners of the Homœopathic, Eclectic, and Botanic Schools, the advocates of Hydropathy and the Movement Cure, have also each their periodicals.

In works on LAW AND LEGAL SCIENCE, the year was prolific. More than twenty of the volumes issued, however, were Reports of Cases in the Supreme Courts or Courts of Appeals in the States of New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa, published by the official reporters of those Courts, and two volumes were issued of the Reports of the Supreme Court of the United States. Besides these, a volume of Brightly's Digest of the Laws

of the United States and one of his Digest of the Laws of Pennsylvania were published, while Mr. William E. Sheffield made a digest of the first fourteen volumes of the Wisconsin Reports. There were also three or four volumes of Reports of Superior Courts, especially of New York. Volumes xi. and xii. of the English Common Law Reports (the Common Bench Reports) were republished here during the year. Messrs. Tillinghast and Shearman issued a second volume of their "Practice, Pleadings, and Forms in Civil Actions in Courts of Record in the State of New York, adapted to the Code of Procedure of the State of New York; adapted also to the Practice in California, Missouri, Indiana, Wisconsin, Kentucky, Ohio, Alabama, Minnesota, and Oregon," and Messrs. Tiffany and Smith published "The New York Practice: a Treatise upon Practice and Pleadings in Actions and Special Proceedings in the Courts of Record of the State of New York," in three volumes. The father of the late venerable Josiah Quincy was, in his day, a law reporter, and preserved the manuscripts of his "Reports of Cases Argued and adjudged in the Superior Court of Adjudication of the Province of Massachusetts Bay, between 1761 and 1772," which have been edited and published by his great-grandson, Samuel M. Quincy.

The Tax, or Internal Revenue Law, the Banking Law, and the Tariff Acts, each as last amended, were published, some of them simultaneously by several publishing houses. The petroleum excitement in Pennsylvania led to the collation and publication of the "Mining and Manufacturing Laws of Pennsylvania," which had a bearing upon the organization of petroleum companies. A number of important trials were reported, some of them by several publishers. Among these were the trial of the assassins and conspirators who murdered Mr. Lincoln; that of Wirz for his inhumanity at Andersonville, the Opdyke Libel Case (reported both in prose and rhyme), and the trial of Miss Harris for the killing of A. J. Burroughs, and that of Livingston against Roebuck. The "Parrish Will Case" was at last completed, and published in two volumes.

The trial of Aaron Burr for Treason was republished, with notes by the compiler (J. J. Coombs) on the Law of Treason as applicable to the existing Rebellion. Several of the recent Laws or Statutes of Congress or of the States required explanation and instruction, as well as forms for the use of those who would administer them. Notably was this the case with the Internal Revenue Laws, for which Hon. G. S. Bontwell prepared a manual embodying the instructions and decisions of the Commissioners; and the Pension Laws, for which Mr. Daniel Forbes, late Chief Examiner in the Pension Office, and Mr. Robert Sewell, a counsellor at law, each prepared a manual. Mr. Maskell E. Curwen, of the Cincinnati bar, prepared a very convenient "Manual upon the Searching of Records and the Preparation of

Abstracts of Title to Real Property, illustrated by References to the Statutes of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, and Kansas;" and Judge Matthews, of the Superior Court of Cincinnati, prepared a Summary of the Law of Partnership, for the use of business men. Other manuals or books of instruction and explanation on existing laws, were—"A Treatise on the Organization, Jurisdiction, and Practice of the Courts of the United States, with an Appendix of Principal Forms," by Alfred Conkling, etc., fourth revised and enlarged edition; "The Law and Practice in Civil Actions, and Proceedings in Justices' Courts and on Appeals to the County Courts in the State of New York," etc., by William Wait, counsellor at law, two volumes. The Amendments to the New York Code of Procedure were published during the year. Having thus disposed of the great bulk of the legal publications of the year, there still remain a few commentaries or treatises on great legal principles and measures. The Hon. Isaac F. Redfield, late Chief Justice of Vermont, has carefully revised, and considerably enlarged, the masterly Commentaries of the late Justice Story on the "Conflict of Laws, Foreign and Domestic," and those on "Equity Pleadings and the Incidents thereof," and has thus rendered a great service to the legal profession. Judge Bishop (Joel Prentiss Bishop) has published a third and revised edition of his "Commentaries on the Criminal Law." Judge Francis Hilliard, author of "The Law of Tests," published "The Law of Injunction." Mr. Horace Binney, an eminent lawyer of Philadelphia, issued during the year the third part of his Essay on the Privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus under the Constitution. Mr. B. F. Clark, of North Chelmsford, Mass., published an Essay on the Prohibitory Liquor Law of Massachusetts, in which he undertakes to demonstrate that "prohibition of the sale of intoxicating liquors is impracticable; that the Maine Law is a failure, and a stringent license law the true policy." The legal periodicals are numerous, and many of them conducted with great ability.

The number of works appertaining to *Education and Educational Science* was very considerable, but, with three exceptions, they were all text-books, though many of them in the higher departments of science. These three were—"Methods of Instruction; that part of the Philosophy of Education which treats of the Nature of the several Branches of Knowledge, and the Methods of Teaching them according to that Nature," by James Pyle Wickersham, A. M.; "The Culture of the Observing Faculties in the family and School: or Things about Home and how to make them instructive to the Young," by Warren Burton, author of

The District School as it Was;" "Classical and Scientific Studies and the Great Schools of England: a Lecture read before the Society of Arts of the Massachusetts Institute of

Technology, April 6, 1865," by W. P. Atkinson, with additions and an appendix. Of the text-books, six were mathematical, devoted to Algebra, Astronomy, Mental and Analytical Geometry, Differential Calculus, and Drawing, and were prepared by Professors Loomis, Docharty, Holloway, Emerson, Spare, and Warren. Eight were text-books in ancient and modern languages, whereof five were French and German and three Latin or Greek, the latter by Professors Brooks, Frieze, and Goodwin. Three were treatises on Geography, all of high character, those of Messrs. Shaw and Allen and Mr. Colton being occupied with Mathematical, Physical, and Political Geography, and Mr. W. L. Gage's translation of Carl Ritter's work pertaining to Comparative Geography only. Of Readers and Speakers there were half a dozen, each distinguished by some peculiarity. The "Shakespeare, adapted for Reading Classes and the Family Circle," by the Messrs. Bulfinch, the "Lessons for Schools, taken from the Holy Scriptures, in the Words of the Text," and Mr. Bremen's translation of Willson's Readers into German, are the most remarkable of the former, and Mr. Philbrick's and Prof. Culver's Speakers are the most noteworthy of the latter. Of Spellers there were two, both containing dictation exercises—Mr. G. W. Fetter's and Mr. Edward Mulvaney's, and with these should be ranked Miss Sewell's Dictation Exercises. Of more miscellaneous text-books there were—a Spanish version of Mrs. Willard's History, an "Infant-class Manual," by Miss Pamela Belding; "A Manual of Light Gymnastics," by W. L. Ruthe; "A Manual of Zoology for Schools," by Sanborn Tenney; "The Elements of Political Economy," by Prof. A. L. Perry, and a "Compendium of Tachygraphy, or Lindsley's Phonetic Shorthand," by D. P. Lindsley. The proceedings at the inauguration of Frederick A. B. Barnard, S. T. D., LL. D., as President of Columbia College, October 3, 1864, also belong to this department.

In the department of GEOGRAPHY and TRAVELS, several important original works were published during the year. Prominent among these was Dr. H. Willis Baxley's "What I saw on the West Coast of South and North America, and at the Hawaiian Islands;" Miss Mary A. Anderson, a daughter of the venerable Secretary of the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions, also gave her impressions of a part of the same Territory in "Scenes in the Hawaiian Islands and California." The late Edward Robinson, D. D., LL. D., one of the ablest Oriental scholars and explorers of the century, left a supplementary volume to his "Biblical Researches," which was published last year under the title of "Physical Geography of the Holy Land," a work of value; and as illustrating another phase of this subject of Oriental study, Mrs. M. E. Rogers published "Domestic Life in Palestine." An American missionary in South Africa, Rev. Lewis Grout,

has published the experience and observation of fifteen years, under the title of "Zulu-Land; or Life among the Zulu Kafirs of Natal and Zulu-Land, South Africa;" and Rev. Charles B. Bush has edited a work prepared by a missionary to China (Rev. William Aitchinson), entitled "Five Years in China." Mr. William H. Thomes, twice for a considerable period a resident of Australia, has published a volume entitled "The Bush Rangers," a Yankee's adventures during his second visit to Australia. Rev. C. M. Butler, D. D., has given the public an insight into the interior of the Eternal City, under the title of "Inner Rome: Political, Religious, and Social." Of works of travel and exploration, or illustrative of the newer regions of our own Republic, the number is considerable. Capt. John Mullan, late Superintendent of the Northern Overland Wagon Road, published a Miner's and Traveller's Guide to Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado, *via* the Missouri and Columbia Rivers; and Mr. Edward H. Hall, a traveller and explorer at the West, followed with a manual called "The Great West: Traveller's, Miner's, and Emigrant's Guide and Hand-book to the Western, Northwestern, and Pacific States and Territories." Both works are illustrated by maps. Mr. J. R. Dodge, of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, has published a valuable little work on West Virginia, giving its statistics, population, and progress; Hon. Richard C. McCormick issued a little treatise on "Arizona; its Resources and Prospects." Mr. S. D. Wyeth has given a graphic picture of "The Federal City; or Ins and Abouts of Washington." Two anonymous writers have discoursed, the one on "The Silver Mines of Nevada," the other on "The Opening of the Adirondacks." Of reprints, the most important were "Arminius Vambéry's Travels in Central Asia," a remarkable and deeply interesting work; and W. Howard Russell's "Canada: its Defences, Condition, and Resources."

The department of ESSAYS, BELLES-LETTRES, and CRITICISM was unusually well represented during the year, in part, perhaps, owing to the growing tendency to periodical and magazine writing, in which a large portion of the literary ability of the present day is absorbed. The interest aroused by the tercentennial commemoration of Shakspeare in 1864, overflowed into 1865, and produced several works in this country, as well as many in Europe, on subjects connected with Shakspeare. Among these were an Essay on "William Shakspeare," by the late Cardinal Wiseman (a reprint); "The Legal Acquirements of William Shakspeare," by Franklin Fiske Heard; "Shakspeare's Medical Knowledge," by Charles W. Stearns, M. D.; "Remarks on the Sonnets of Shakspeare; with the Sonnets, showing that they belong to the Hermetic Class of Writings, and explaining their General Meaning and Purpose," by the author of "Swedenborg a Hermetic Philosopher" (Gen. E. A. Hitchcock). When we add

to these Mr. Richard Grant White's Elaborate "Memoir of Shakspeare," also published during the year, the Shakspeare literature of 1865 makes a fair showing.

Of *Essays* proper by American writers the following were the principal: "Real and Ideal," by John W. Montclair; "Autumn Leaves," by Samuel Jackson Gardiner; "House and Home Papers" and "Little Foxes," by Christopher Crowfield (Mrs. H. B. Stowe); "Prize Papers," written for the "New York Observer;" "Essay, Poems, and Tale;" "Skirmishers and Sketches," by Gail Hamilton (Miss Abigail Dodge); "Cape Cod," by Henry D. Thoreau; "A Woman's First Impressions of Europe, being Wayside Sketches made during a short Tour in the Year 1863," by Mrs. E. A. Forbes; "Dante as Philosopher, Patriot, and Poet: with an Analysis of the Divina Commedia, its Plot and Episodes," by Vincenzo Botta; "Matrimonial Infelicity, with an occasional Felicity by way of Contrast, by an Irritable Man, to which are added as being pertinent to the Subject, My Neighbors, and Down in the Valley," by Barry Gray (R. B. Coffin); "The Humbugs of the World: an Account of Humbugs, Delusions, Impositions, Quackeries, Deceits, and Deceivers generally in all Ages," by P. T. Barnum; "The Freedman's Book," by L. Maria Child; "Attic Wit;" "Recollections of Seventy Years," by Mrs. John Farrar; "Good Company for Every Day in the Year;" "American Criticism;" "The North American Review," and the "Life and Times of John Huss;" "The Orpheus C. Kerr Papers," Third Series.

Of *Letters, Lectures, and Speeches*, which properly belong under this head, the following were the most important: "Speeches and Letters of Gerrit Smith, from January, 1863, to January, 1865, on the Rebellion;" "The Stewardship of Wealth, as illustrated in the Lives of Amos and Abbott Lawrence: a Lecture," by Frank W. Ballard; "Speeches of Carl Schurz," Collected and Revised by the Author: "Eight Years in Congress, from 1857 to 1865: Memoir and Speeches," by Samuel S. Cox; "On the Cam:" Lectures on the University of Cambridge in England, by William Everett, A. M.; "The Progress of the Age, and the Danger of the Age: two Lectures," by the Rev. Louis Heylen; "The Graver Thoughts of a Country Parson," by the Author of Recreations of a Country Parson (Rev. A. K. H. Boyd), Second Series (Reprint); "Sesame and Lilies: two Lectures delivered at Manchester, in 1864, by John Ruskin, M. A. 1. Of Kings' Treasures: 2. Of Queens' Gardens" (a Reprint); "Speeches of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States," with a Biographical Introduction, by Frank Moore; "An Inquiry into some of the Conditions at present affecting the Study of Architecture in our Schools," by John Ruskin; "Letters to Various Persons," by Henry D. Thoreau; "Letters, Æsthetic, Social, and Moral, written from Europe, Egypt, and Palestine," by Thomas C. Upham; "Letters and Writings of

James Madison, Fourth President of the United States, published by order of Congress, 4 vols.; "Artemus Ward: his Travels—Part I. Miscellaneous—Part II. Among the Mormons" (written by Charles F. Brown, and first delivered in substance as Lectures); "Plain Tales on Familiar Subjects, a series of Popular Lectures," by J. G. Holland, M. D.; "Complete Works of the Most Rev. John Hughes, D.D., Archbishop of New York, comprising his Sermons, Letters, Lectures, and Speeches, etc.," carefully compiled from the best Sources, and edited by Lawrence Kehoe: 2 vols.; "Speech of George Francis Train on Irish Independence and English Neutrality before the Fenian Congress, Philadelphia, Oct. 18, 1865;" "The Gulistan, or Rose Garden of Saadi," translated from the original by Francis Gladwin, with an Essay on Saadi's Life and Genius, by James Ross, and a Preface by R. W. Emerson. Of new editions of standard Belles-Lettres works, we have Riverside editions of Irving's "Tales of a Traveller," "Crayon Miscellany," "Tales of the Alhambra," and "Wolfert's Roost;" new editions of "Emerson's Essays;" "The Squibob Papers," by John Phoenix (the late Capt. George H. Derby); "The Works of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke;" "The Fables of Æsop," with 111 Illustrations from Original Designs by Herrick; O. W. Holmes' "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table;" John Ruskin's complete Works—"The Tour of Dr. Syntax, in Search of the Picturesque;" and a translation of the Works of Epictetus, by Rev. T. W. Higginson, based on that of Elizabeth Carter. Mrs. L. C. Tuthill has gathered from the works of John Ruskin, a volume of "Precious Thoughts, Moral and Religious." Among the reprints of works of this class are—"Essays, Historical and Biographical, Political, Social, Literary, and Scientific," by Hugh Miller, edited with a Preface by Peter Bayne; "Parson and People; or, Incidents in the Every-day life of a Clergyman," by Rev. Edward Spinner, M. A., Vicar of Heston, Middlesex, with an Introduction by Rev. L. W. Bacon; "Essays in Criticism," by Matthew Arnold, Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford; and "A Summer in Skye," by Alexander Smith. To these may be added, as coming perhaps more appropriately under this class than any other—"Bibliographical Tracts, number one;" "Spurious Reprints of Early Books;" "Rogues and Rogueries of New York, a full and Complete Exposure of all the Swindles and Rascalities carried on or Originated in the Metropolis;" "Tardy George;" "Joe Miller's Jests, with Copious Additions," edited by Frank Bollew.

In POETRY AND THE DRAMA the number of publications was larger than in any previous year. Fifty new poets, claimed a hearing, most of them for the first time. Among their productions were the following: "Utterances," by A. J. H. Duganne; "Poems," by Caroline May; "Little Songs for the Little Singers," by Karl Reden; "Love and Friendship's Rosary,"

by E. L. E. Von Meyer; "Poems," by Astarte; "Cabirot, a Poem," by George H. Calvert; "My Angel and other Poems," by Miss M. H. Bulfinch; "The Poets of Portsmouth," compiled by Annie M. Payson and Albert Leighton; "The Snoblace Ball; or, Pil Garlic and his Friends," by "The Spectator;" "Virginia and other Poems," by J. H. Vosburg; "Lyrical Recreations," by Samuel Ward; "A Group of Children and other Poems," by D. C. Colesworthy; "The Changed Cross and other Religious Poems;" "Abraham Lincoln, an Horatian Ode," by R. H. Stoddard (not a new poet), who also published during the year "The Children in the Wood: told in Verse by R. H. Stoddard;" and "The King's Bell," with illustrations, and edited "Melodies and Madrigals," "The Later English Poets," "Under Green Leaves," and "Favorite English Poems;" "Hymns and Sacred Pieces," with Miscellaneous Poems, by Rev. Ray Palmer, D. D. "Poems," by R. W. Emerson; "Songs for the Seasons, from Advent to Trinity," by Rev. William Pinkney, D. D.; "A Summer Story, Sheridan's Ride, and other Poems," by Thomas Buchanan Read; "Ode on the Death of Abraham Lincoln," by S. G. W. Benjamin; "Voices of the Morning," by Belle Bush; "Christian Poems," by Rev. F. R. Holeman; "Vagaries of Vandyke Brown, an Autobiography in Verse," by William P. Brennan; "Seventeen Cantos of the Inferno of Dante Alighieri, translated by Thomas William Parsons;" "Poems," by Edna Dean Proctor; "Puritania, a Satire," by a Metropolitan; "Eva, a Goblin Romance, in Five Parts," by John Savage; "Walt Whitman's Drum-Taps;" "Songs of the Rivers," by Emily T. B. Bennett; "Poems," by T. Buchanan Read, new and enlarged edition, 2 vols; "Anselmo, a Poem," by George R. Farbut; "The Soldier's Sacrifice, a Poem for the Times," by M. S. H.; "Poetical Tributes to the Memory of Abraham Lincoln;" "Country Love &c. City Flirtation: or, Ten Chapters from the Story of a Life, reduced to Rhymes for Convenience' Sake," by H. T. Sperry; "Outcroppings, being Selections of California Verse;" "Poems by Gay H. Naramore;" "War Lyrics and other Poems," by Henry Howard Brownell; "The Poems of Elizabeth G. Barber Barrett;" "Summer Songs," by H. H. M.; "The Poems of Thomas Bailey Aldrich;" "Versions and Verses," by Charles Dexter; "Palm Leaves," by Rev. W. H. Cooke; "The Dutch Pilgrim Fathers and other Poems, Humorous and not Humorous," by Rev. Edward Hopper; "Poems of Faith and Affection," by Mrs. W. H. Milburn; "Victoria, with other Poems," by Sarepta Irish Henry; "Our Heroic Themes," a Poem," by George H. Boker. A volume of poems was also published by Rev. Absalom Peters, D. D., his first effort, though written when nearly seventy years of age. Portions of the lyrical and shorter poems of several of the more eminent of our poets, and particularly of Longfellow, Whittier, and Holmes, were

published in a cheap form, but illustrated, an enterprise of great merit, as having for its object the placing the best poetry of the language within the reach of all classes. The poems of Bayard Taylor, complete, were published during the year in one volume. Above thirty volumes of compilations of poetry were published, many of them possessing very little merit, but others of a high character and permanent value. The following were the best: "Wayside Hymns, Selected from Various Authors;" "Elim; or, Hymns of Holy Refreshment," edited by Rev. F. D. Huntington, D. D.; "Hymns for the Church on Earth," selected and arranged by Rev. J. C. Ryle; "Home Ballads, by our Home Poets;" "The Late English Poets," edited by R. H. Stoddard; and "Golden Leaves from the British and American Dramatic Poets," collected and arranged by John W. S. Hows; "Hymns for Mothers and Children," second series, compiled by the author of "Hymns of the Ages" (Miss Wentworth); "Festival of Song, a Series of Evenings with the Poets," prepared by the author of "Salad for the Solitary" (Frederick Saunders); "Companion Poets," illustrated (Longfellow's Household Poems, Tennyson's Songs for all Seasons, Browning's Lyrics of Life); "Songs of Praise and Poems of Devotion in the Christian Centuries," with an Introduction by Henry Coppée, Professor, etc.; "The Seven Great Hymns of the Mediæval Church;" "O Mother Dear Jerusalem; the Old Hymn, its Origin and Genealogy," by William C. Prime; "The Sabbath Psalter," a Selection of Psalms for Public and Family Worship, compiled by Rev. Henry J. Fox; "The Sunday Book of Poetry," selected and arranged by O. F. Alexander, author of "Hymns for Little Children;" "The Ballad Book, a Selection of the Choicest British Ballads," edited by William Allingham (reprint); "Street Ballads, Popular Poetry, and Household Songs of Ireland" (reprint); "Melodies and Madrigals, mostly from the Old English Poets," edited by Richard Henry Stoddard; "The Poetry of the Orient," by William Rounseville Alger; "Gems from Tennyson;" "Hymns and Prayers for the Church and Home;" "*Deutsches Balladen-Buch*," compiled by Prof. L. Simonson, Trinity College, Hartford; "Favorite English Poems;" "Under Green Leaves: a Book of Rural Poems," edited by R. H. Stoddard; "My Sabbath School Scrap-book, containing Anniversary Dialogues, Addresses, in prose and verse, etc., etc.," by John J. Reid. Among reprints of foreign poetical works, those of Tennyson took the lead; nine editions of either a part or the whole of his poems being published during the year. The other reprints were—Sir Walter Scott's Poems, those of Winthrop Mackworth Praed (in two editions), "Pearls from Heine," Shakspeare's Sonnets, Gray's Poetical Works, Milton's Poetical Works, Amelia B. Edwards' "Ballads," "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," "Hood's Lay of the Shirt, and other

Poems," Earl Derby's translation of the *Iliad*, Browning's "Lyrics of Life," Mrs. Sewall's "Lost Child and the Romance of the Mallee Scrub," "Gerald Massey's Poems," a new edition; Jean Ingelow's "Songs of Seven," Robert Buchanan's Poems, Algernon Charles Swinburne's "Chastelard" and "Atalanta in Calydon," Sir E. Bulwer Lytton's translation of Schiller's "Lay of the Bell," illustrated. Mr. Richard Grant White's critical edition of Shakspeare was completed by the publication of the first volume, which had been delayed for the sake of the Memoir; and a Boston publishing house imported a large edition of the Globe edition of Shakspeare published in England.

Dramatic Poetry was not much affected either by American or English authors. Mr. Swinburne's two tragedies above named were the only new English works of the class republished, though a new edition of Talfourd's Tragedies was issued. In this country, Mr. John Savage published "Sybil, a Tragedy in five acts;" Mrs. Sadlier, "The Secret, a Drama;" Mr. Charles E. Moelling, "Faust's Death, a Tragedy in five acts;" and an anonymous drama, "Cecilia," was issued by Messrs. J. and D. Sadlier; and a children's play, dramatized from Cinderella, was prepared for a Children's Concert at the Academy of Music. Besides these, there were twenty-two German and French plays published by the French and German publishers of Boston and New York, part of them for text-books.

The works on Music were considerably numerous. Of these, ten were collections of Hymns and Tunes for worship on the Sabbath, or for Sunday Schools, or the religious exercises at the opening of other Schools. Of this number, the most important were—"Hallowed Songs," compiled by Theodore E. Perkins, Philip Phillips, and Sylvester Main; "Songs for the Sanctuary," compiled by Rev. Charles S. Robinson; "Happy Voices, for the Home Circle and Sabbath Schools," "The Sacred Harp of Judah" (for Jewish worship), by G. M. Cohen; "Praises of Jesus," by Rev. E. P. Hammond; "Social Hymn and Tune Book, for the Lecture Room, Prayer Meeting, Family Circle, and Mission Church;" the Plymouth S. S. Collection of Hymns and Tunes, by William B. Bradbury; the Sunday School Banner, by T. E. Perkins; the School Service Book, by Rev. Asa Fitz; Musical Leaves for Sabbath Schools, by Philip Phillips. There were also eight or ten collections of vocal and instrumental music, songs, glees, duets, trios, etc., for schools and seminaries, by such experienced musical writers and compilers as Messrs. Emerson, Fitzhugh, Root, Wilder, Davenport, Sharland, and others, and books of musical instruction by Messrs. Root, Meignen, Keys, etc. There were also twelve or thirteen collections of instrumental music for organ, piano, violin, flute, concertina, banjo, etc. There are a number of musical periodicals, monthly, semi-monthly, and quarterly, conducted with great ability. The "Musical Sunbeam

and Sabbath School Manual," a quarterly, was the only new periodical, we believe, issued during the year.

The class of NOVELS is, as usual, very large, a little beyond the numbers of the last year, those of a *general* character averaging a publication of about five per week through the year. Of these, however, one hundred and eleven belonged to the class of cheap novels, ranging in price from ten to fifty cents each, and the greater part of them from ten to twenty-five cents. Of these, ninety-seven were original works and fourteen reprints. The literary merit of the original works was not usually remarkable, but they were popular with a considerable class of readers. Of the remainder of the works of fiction, published during the year, thirty-eight were original and seventy-five reprints. Of the original works, the most important were—"My Own Story," by Marion Leigh; "Moods," by Louisa M. Alcott; "The Morrisons, a Story of Domestic Life," by Mrs. Margaret Hosmer; "The Three Scouts," by J. T. Trowbridge; "Nothing but Money: a Novel," by T. S. Arthur; "Inside Out, a Curious Book," by Dr. S. W. Francis; "Leaves from the Note-Book of a New York Detective," "Private Record of J. B.," "The Thinking Bayonet," by James K. Hosmer; "Husbands and Homes," by Marion Harland (Mrs. Virginia Terhune); "The Ideal Attained, being the Story of Two Steadfast Souls, and How they Won their Happiness and Lost It Not," by Eliza W. Farnham; "Mary Brandegee: an Autobiography," by Cuyler Pine; "The Fixed Stars, or the Goddess of Truth and Justice," "St. Philip's," by the author of "Rutledge" (Miss Miriam Coles); "Silent Struggles," by Mrs. Ann S. Stephens; "At Anchor: a Story of our Civil War," by an American; "Fairy Fingers: a Novel," by Anna Cora Ritchie; "Janet Strong" by Virginia F. Townsend; "Linwood, with Other Stories;" "Looking Around: a Novel," by A. S. Roe; "Hugh Worthington: a Novel," by Mrs. Mary J. Holmes; "The Metropolitans, or Know Thy Neighbor," by Robert St. Clair; "Luke Darrell, the Chicago Newsboy," "Allworth Abbey," by Mrs. E. D. E. N. Southworth; "Atlantic Tales: a Collection of Stories from the Atlantic Monthly;" "Cotton Stealing: a Novel;" "Two Men: a Novel," by Mrs. Elizabeth Stoddard; "Robert Dalby and His World of Troubles: being the Early Days of a Connoisseur;" "Millicent Halford: a Tale of the Dark Days of Kentucky in the year 1861," by Martha Remick; "Home Heroes, Saints, and Martyrs," by T. S. Arthur; "What Came Afterwards: a Novel," by T. S. Arthur; "Standish: a Story of Our Day;" "A Spinster's Story," by M. A. F.; "De Vane: a Story of Plebeians and Patricians," by Hon. Henry W. Hilliard; "The Lovers' Trials; or, the Days before the Revolution," by Mrs. Mary A. Dennison; "Château Frissac; or, Home Scenes in France," by Olive Logan, author of Photographs of Paris Life.

The reprints comprise Dickens' "Our Mutual Friend," and "Dr. Marigold's Prescriptions," two books by Jean Ingelow; new editions of several of Mrs. Grey's and Mrs. Gore's novels; a new edition of one of Mrs. Percy Bysshe Shelley's works; "Too Strange not to be True," by Lady Fullerton; "Quite Alone," by G. A. Sala; the first instalment of a superb edition of Thackeray's works; novels by Charles and Henry Kingsley, J. S. Le Fanu, Mrs. Henry Wood, Miss Braddon, Michael and John Banim, Annie Thomas, Anthony Trollope, Miss D. M. Muloch, William Carleton, Charles Lever, Sir C. F. Lascelles Wrexall, Alexander Smith, Miss Amelia B. Edwards, the author of "Faith Gartney's Girlhood," the author of "Philip Thaxter," the author of "Wondrous Strange," "Ouida," etc., etc. There were also about twenty reprints of French and German novels in the original languages, from the pens of Madame George Sand, O. Feuillet, Constant Gueroult, Ernest Capendu, Erckmann-Chatriain, Ernst Willkomm, Moritz Hartmann, Theodor Storm, etc., etc. There were very few *religious novels* published, aside from those of a juvenile character, and of these all but three were reprints. Mrs. C. J. Barlow published "Helen Macgregor; or, Conquest and Sacrifice;" Mr. Davis B. Casseday, "The Hortons; or, American Life at Home;" and Mrs. A. M. Stewart, "Justice and Mercy: a Tale of All Hallow E'en." Of the reprints, four or five were from the pen of Mrs. Edmund Charles, the author of "The Schönberg-Cotta Family;" two only, "The Diary of Mrs. Kitty Trevylyan," and "Winifred Bertram and the World She Lived In," being new works of that popular author. These both had a large sale. Miss Yonge's "The Clever Woman of the Family," Miss Julia Kavanagh's "Beatrice," and Mrs. Oliphant's "The Perpetual Curate," were the only other reprints of this class worthy of note.

The number of JUVENILE BOOKS was about one-fourth less than the previous year, but a somewhat larger proportion were works of decided merit. The juvenile literature of the country makes steady and somewhat rapid progress each year, both in the style and quality of the books issued, and in the beauty of their typography and illustrations. In the latter particulars, the new books of 1865 exhibited an extraordinary advance upon those of previous years.

In the sub-class of *Juvenile works of Adventure, History, and Travel*, one-third were reprints chiefly of books of Captain Mayne Reid, R. M. Ballantyne, Captain Marryat, W. H. G. Kingston, Sir C. F. Lascelles Wrexall, Madame Eugénie Foa, etc., etc. Of the original works, a large proportion had for their subject the adventures or history of some real or imaginary actor in the recent war. "Oliver Optic" (Mr. W. T. Adams) published three books of this description, "The Young Lieutenant; or, Adventures of an Army Officer;" "The Yankee

Middy; or, The Adventures of a Naval Officer;" and "Fighting Joe; or, the Adventures of a Staff Officer." Mr. H. C. Castlemon, himself an officer on one of the Western gunboats, published "Frank on a Gunboat," and "Frank, the Young Naturalist;" "Carleton" (Mr. Charles Carleton Coffin), of the *Boston Journal*, published a second volume of his Boys' History of the War, under the title of "Following the Flag." Of the books of this sub-class not relating to the war, the most important were: "Treasury of Travel and Adventure;" "Lives of Familiar Insects," by the author of "Violet;" "The Yankee Boy from Home;" "The Young Wrecker of the Florida Reef," by Richard Meade Bache, and two volumes of Miss Sarah W. Lander's Spectacle Series, "Rome" and "Berlin."

In the very large sub-class of *Religious Juveniles*, numbering about two hundred and eighty distinct volumes, less than one-tenth were reprints, and of these the greater part from the prolific pen of A. L. O. E., Madame Wildermuth, Caroline Hadley, Miss Yonge, Mrs. Ruth Buck, etc., etc. The original works of this sub-class were the productions of a great number of writers, some of whom have had large experience in writing for children, while others made their first ventures in that field during the year. As in former years, Nellie Grahame was one of the largest contributors to this description of literature, eight works from her pen appearing among the year's catalogue of juveniles. The author of "Allan Cameron" had seven volumes published during the year; Aunt Fanny (Mrs. Fanny Barrow), six; the author of the "Variety Library," five; Miss Caroline E. Kelly, five; Jacob Abbott, five; the author of "The Dove Series," six; "Champney," five; "Sophie May," six; "Josephine Franklin," six; the author of "Real Children," four; the author of "Aunt May's Children," four; Alice Gray, three; Miss Sarah J. Pritchard, three; J. H. Langille, three; "A. J. G.," three; Susie M. Waring, three; Rev. W. P. Breed, two; the author of "Katie Lee," two; Miss M. E. Dodge, three; "K. M.," two; the author of "Kate Elmore," two; the author of "Kitty's Victory," three; "A. L. W.," two; the author of "Try," three; Miss Alice A. Dodge, two; the author of "The Fisher Boy," three; "Maxwell," three; Theodore Tilton, three; Rev. D. C. Eddy, D. D., two; "Fanfan," two; Mrs. H. McNair, two; Miss Harriet B. McKeever, two; the author of "Rosa Lane," two; the author of "The Best Friend," two; the author of "Win and Wear," two; "E. H.," two; the author of "Autumn Days," two; the author of "Ferris Hollow," three; "Aunt Hattie," two; the author of "Harry's Battles," two; and "Rose Elmwood," "Aunt Annie," Rev. J. Belcher, "H. L. O.," Miss Mary S. Chapman, Rev. F. H. Wines, Julia Leonard, Maria H. Bulfinch, the author of "Douglas Farm," Mary Granger Chase, "M. M.," the author of "High Church," William Rogers,

Rev. R. M. Abercrombie, "A. L. W.," the author of the "Story of a Pocket Bible," Rev. P. W. Clark, the author of "I'd Choose to be a Daisy," Mr. G. P. Disosway, Rev. J. B. Waterbury, "A Clergyman's Daughter," Rev. T. H. Hawks, the author of "Ellen Murray," Henry L. Williams, Jr., "Mrs. Madeline Leslie," the author of "Ellen's Idol," Grace Webster Hinsdale, M. A. Edwards, Maria Louisa Hayward, Mrs. Prosser, Miss C. M. Trowbridge, Edward Howard, Helen Hazlett, Jonathan Cross, Mrs. H. C. Gardner, "Cousin Carrie," the author of "Money," Miss Emily Warner, Alice Warren, George B. Taylor, Mrs. R. J. Greene, "Zell," "Una Locke," the author of "Uncle Paul's Stories," "Harriet Myrtle," Anna Putnam, the author of "Blind Annie Lorimer," "M. H. S.," Robert A. West, Nellie Eyster, Frank Stanley, Marie Louise Hayward, "Lawrence Lancewood," Horatio Alger, Jr., Rev. Edward Payson Hammond, "M. E. F.," Mrs. C. H. Gildersleeve, W. O. Van Horn, and seventy-five other anonymous writers, each one.

Of *Elementary Books for Children* (Picture Books, etc., not of a Fairy or Legendary Character), the number was large, but it was composed to a great extent of reprints or of imported toys not reprinted. A few original works, like Mr. Theodore Tilton's "The Fly," some pictorial Alphabets, and other compiled books of Pictures, were issued; but the foreign colored toys, by their greater brilliancy and perfection in color-printing, mainly occupied the market. In *Fairy and Legendary Books for Children*, there were some remarkable editions of "Old Mother Hubbard;" "The Fox and the Geese," "The House that Jack Built," etc., with original and very spirited illustrations in tint, by H. L. Stephens, of a much higher character than were ever previously attempted, and also editions of "Puss in Boots," "Beauty and the Beast," "Cinderella," "Little Red Riding Hood," etc., with excellent illustrations by the same artist, printed in colors. Nothing of this kind has been attempted in this country until 1864 and 1865. Several editions of Hans C. Andersen's and Grimm's Fairy Stories were also published during the year. A new, original American Version of "The House that Jack Built," finely illustrated, by L. Whitehead, Sen., also appeared. Mrs. Charles (author of "Chronicles of the Schönberg-Cotter Family") published, we believe, first in this country, a little legend entitled "The Song without Words;" and some of the French and German publishing houses issued editions in the original of several of the Fairy Stories of France and Germany.

We ought to notice also, briefly, the appearance of several periodicals for children, of high character, during the year. Two of them, "Our Young Folks," published by Messrs Ticknor and Fields, of Boston, and the "Little Corporal," published by Mr. Alfred L. Sewell, of Chicago, have at once attained a large circulation, which they merited from their ability.

In the Department of ART, which includes Illuminated Books and those whose illustrations constitute their first claim to notice, there were a few books published of great merit.

The illuminated books were—"The Twenty-Third Psalm," with emblematical illuminations of each verse; "The Three Kings of Orient: a Christmas Carol," the words, music, and designs, by Rev. John Henry Hopkins, Jr.; "The Book of Rubies," a collection of the most notable Love Poems in the language, (edited by Thomas Dunn English), with illuminated borders, and "The Christian Armor," with illuminated designs, legends, and scrolls, and illustrations of the text in poetry, etc., by Eliza Crawford Ball. Mr. G. W. Carleton, a New York publisher, issued a little volume of his experiences as a traveller in Cuba, with fifty drawings on wood, designed by himself, under the title of "Our Artist in Cuba." Three little treatises on the popular game of "Croquet," liberally illustrated, were published during the year—one by John Jaques, another by R. Fellow, and a third by one of the members of the Newport Croquet Club, and a new and enlarged edition of the late Mrs. Jameson's "Legends of the Monastic Orders, as represented in the Fine Arts," was issued. Editions of several of the most exquisitely illustrated English works, such as Watts' "Divine and Moral Songs for Children," illustrated by Cooper, Mrs. Barbauld's "Hymns in Prose," by the same artist, "Pictures of Society," Churton and Jones' "New Testament," the superb quarto Testament of Longman, and the Illustrated Bible of Gustave Doré, were imported and met with a rapid sale. The finest American illustrated volume of the year was "The Festival of Song," compiled by Mr. Frederick Saunders, and illustrated from original paintings of the members of the National Academy of Design.

Under the head of MISCELLANEOUS WORKS are included ten manuals and treatises on Masonic subjects, published by the well-known Masonic publishing houses, A. W. Pollard & Co., of Boston, Macoy, Sickles, and Pierson, New York, John Sherer, Cincinnati, and Joseph Covell, of Portland, Me.; a little treatise entitled "Practical Thoughts on Sisterhood, in reply to a Letter of Inquiry, with Extracts from the Principles of Association and Rules of the Sisterhood of the Holy Communion, now at St. Luke's Hospital, by One of their Number;" "Banting's Letter on Corpulence," Mark Lemon's "Jest-Book" (both reprints), and "Umbrellas and their History," by Clyde and Black, with illustrations by Bennett, are the other noticeable books of this department. The year was prolific in NEW PERIODICALS, literary, scientific, critical, technological, humanitarian, artistic, political, and antiquarian. Some of these we have noticed in connection with the topics to which they were devoted, but others deserve mention here. Of monthly periodicals there were twelve commenced in the course of

the year: two, "Hours at Home," and "The Catholic World," devoted to literature with a religious leaning; one, "Beadle's Monthly," commenced just at the close of the year, occupied exclusively with the lighter, though instructive literature; one, "Our Young Folks," having for its aim the instruction and amusement of the young; one, "The New Path," devoted mainly to art criticism; three, "The Progressive Review," "The Radical," and "The Monthly Review," advocating what are called liberal and progressive views in religion, politics, and social reform; the "Social Science Review" professed to deal with social, political, and economical questions; the "Heraldic Journal" had for its object to record the armorial bearings and genealogies of American families; the "Mining Chronicle" was occupied with the statistics, discoveries, and difficult questions pertaining to the mining and petroleum interests; and "The Temple of Public Opinion" presented the opinions of the leading papers on the current questions of the day, with some original comments of its own. There were two or three new Quarterlies, devoted to scientific or professional topics; the most noticeable was the "American Journal of Conchology," edited by George W. Tryon, Jr., and published at Philadelphia. In weekly periodicals a new field was entered, at least new in this country, for England has had for some years weekly periodicals, which, while maintaining a high literary character, and devoting much space to criticism in literature and art, discussed, from a somewhat independent standpoint, political and social questions. "The Round Table," which had been published for a short time in 1864, but then discontinued, was revived under more favorable auspices, and soon made itself felt as a critic in literature, art, manners, and morals. "The Nation" having a somewhat wider scope, brought within its purview not only literature, art, and science, but the political questions of the day, and handled them with great ability. "Progress," a weekly, originally devoted to the interests of the Israelites, took a wider sweep, and embraced general criticism, politics, and religion also. Of the weekly periodicals of a lighter class, "The Chimney Corner," occupied with fiction, biography, and incident, and "Every Saturday," a reprint of the lighter articles from the foreign periodicals, were the best examples. A kind of historical record, entitled "The Weekly Register," containing a record of important documents and events of the times, with essays on subjects connected with art, science, and literature, conducted by A. M. Trimble and O. A. Schaffter, was issued at Lynchburg, Va. Mr. Alexander Strahan, an enterprising publisher of London and Edinburgh, established a publishing house in New York, and issued from thence, though manufacturing them in Great Britain, his three popular monthly magazines, "The Sunday Magazine," "Good Words," and "The Contemporary Review."

II. ENGLISH LITERATURE FOR THE YEAR 1865. Our review of English literature must, for want of space, be brief, and confined to the leading books under each class. In GENERAL HISTORY, the most noteworthy books were: "A History of the Commonwealth of Florence from the Earliest Independence of the Commune to the Fall of the Republic in 1531," by T. Adolphus Trollope, in four volumes, a work of profound research and great merit; "History of the Rise and Influence of the Spirit of Rationalism in Europe," by W. E. H. Lecky, M. A., of Trinity College, Dublin, which, as already noticed, was reprinted here by Messrs. Appleton; a new volume of Mrs. Everett Green's "Calendar of State Papers," illustrating the domestic affairs of the reign of Charles II.; "Higden's Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland," edited by Mr. Churchill Babington; Mr. Prendergast's "The Cromwellian Settlement of Ireland;" Mr. Edward Burnet Tyler's "Researches into the Early History of Mankind and the Development of Civilization;" Dr. Rennie's "British Arms in North China and Japan." Historical works on India and Indian affairs were, as usual, abundant; Mr. G. O. Trevelyan sketched the history of the Cawnpore Massacre; Dr. Knighton published "Elihu Jan's Story; or, the Private Life of an Eastern Queen," a narrative of the last days of the independence of Oude; Sir Charles Jackson set forth "A Vindication of Lord Dalhousie's Indian Administration;" and the Duke of Argyll published a little volume on "India under Dalhousie and Canning;" Major Evans Bell has given a politico-historical account of "The Mysore Reversion;" Captain Hastings Frazer, a sketch of "Our Faithful Ally, the Nizam;" and an anonymous writer a "History of the Sect of Mahārājas or Vallabhāchāryas in Western India," a body of religious fanatics and shameless sensualists.

The Rev. Julian E. T. Woods compiled, in one large volume, "A History of the Discovery and Exploration of Australia;" Mr. William Howitt described the progress of discovery in Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand; Mr. Matthew Macfie issued a volume on the history, prospects, and resources of Vancouver's Island and British Columbia; Viscount Bury gave a history of the progress of colonization in his "Exodus of the Western Nations;" Mr. J. B. Hurlburt published a work on colonial history, with the title of "Britain and Her Colonies;" and Mr. Lyons McLeod, an historical sketch of "Madagascar." The history of the Bourbonist reaction in Italy is told by Count Maffei, with reference to official documents, in two volumes, entitled "Brigand Life in Italy;" a Greek writer, Mr. Stefanos Xenos, compiled a "Diplomatic History of the Annexation of the Ionian Islands to the Kingdom of Greece;" Mr. Americo Palfrey Marras prepared an able essay on "The Secret Fraternities of the Middle Ages;" and Mr. T. W. Allie, Lecturer on the Philosophy of History to the Catholic Univer-

sity of Ireland, put forth a collection of his lectures, under the title of "The Formation of Christendom."

Among the works devoted to the illustration of particular periods of British history, were—a volume edited by Mr. William Branchley Rye, Assistant Keeper of the Department of Printed Books in the British Museum, entitled "England as Seen by a Foreigner in the Days of Elizabeth and James I., comprising Translations of the Journals of the Two Dukes of Wurtemberg in 1592 and 1610; with Extracts from the Travels of Foreign Princes and Others;" "Documents from Simancas relating to the Reign of Elizabeth (1558–1568)," translated from the Spanish of Don Tomás Gonzales, and edited by Mr. Spencer Hall, F. S. A., Librarian to the Athenæum; "Our British Ancestors," by Mr. Lysons; a "History of the Viceroy's of Ireland, with Notices of the Castle of Dublin, and its Chief Occupants in Former Times." Other historical works of interest were—the "Historical Essays" of the late Nassau W. Senior, and those of Mr. Herman Merivale; "Sketches of General History," by the late James Douglas of Cavers; "Persecution of the Knight Templars," by Anthony O'Neal Haye; "Private History of the Insurrection in Poland in 1863," by H. Sutherland Edwards; the second and third volumes of Mr. Philip Smith's "History of the World from the Earliest Records to the Present Time;" the third volume of Mr. George Rawlinson's "Five Great Monarchies of the Ancient Eastern World;" Dr. T. H. Dyer's "History of the City of Rome from its Foundation to the End of the Middle Ages"—a municipal history, having reference to the structures and monuments of the Imperial Capital, not to its political vicissitudes; Mr. Lionel James Trotter's "Sequel to Thornton's History of India;" "Notes on the Battle of Waterloo," etc., with a brief memoir of his life and services, by the late General Sir James Shaw Kennedy, K. C. B., and a "History of the Gipsies," by Walter and James Simson.

The English works on the war in America were fewer than the previous year; the principal were—Lieut.-Col. Fletcher's "History of the American War;" Captain Chesney's second volume of "Campaigns in Virginia, Maryland," etc.; Mr. G. A. Sala's disgraceful "Diary in America in the Midst of War;" and "Belle Boyd in Camp and Prison," a stupid book, which has nevertheless been republished here.

In *Historical and Collective Biography*, the works of most importance were—the fifth and sixth volumes of Carlyle's "History of Frederick II. of Prussia, called Frederick the Great;" a translation of Napoleon III.'s "Life of Julius Cæsar," by Thomas Wright; "Masaniello of Naples," by Mrs. Horace St. John; the third and fourth volumes of Dr. Hook's "Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury;" "Studies in Biography," by Mr. Lionel James Trotter; "Biographies of Richard Cobden and Lord Palmerston," by Mr. John McGilchrist, "Lives

of the Warriors of the Thirty Years' War," by Lieut.-Gen. the Hon. Sir Edward Cust; "Biographies of eminent Soldiers of the Last Four Centuries," by the late Maj.-Gen. Smith, edited by Dr. Leonard Schmitz; the "Life and Character of King John," by Mr. William Chadwick; and "Lives of the Tuscan Sculptors," by Mr. Charles Perkins.

Of *Biographies of Single Individuals*, the following are of the greatest interest: "The Life and Times of Sir Joshua Reynolds, with Notices of some of his Contemporaries," commenced by the late painter Leslie, and completed by Professor Tom Taylor; "Life of Thorwaldsen" from the Danish of J. M. Thiele, translated and edited by Rev. Mr. Barnard; "Life of Michael Angelo," by Hermann Grimm, translated by Fanny Elizabeth Bunnett (reprinted here); "Louis Spohr's Autobiography;" "Furioso; or, Passages from the Life of Ludwig Von Beethoven," and the "Life of Von Weber," by his son, Baron Max Maria Von Weber, all three translated from the German; two biographies of Josiah Wedgwood; one by Miss Meley, and finely illustrated, the other by Mr. Llewellyn Jewitt, F. S. A., smaller, and without illustrations; "The Life and Career of Dr. Dodd," the Clerical Forger, by Mr. Percy Fitzgerald; "The Life and Anthropological Treatises of Blumenbach," translated and edited by Mr. Thomas Bendyshe; "The Life of John Clare," the peasant poet, by Mr. Frederick Martin; "Memoirs of Sir Richard Steele and his Contemporaries," by Mr. H. R. Montgomery, two volumes; the "Autobiography of Sir Benjamin Brodie," edited by Mr. Charles Hawkins, F. R. C. S.; a third volume of Mr. Charles Knight's Autobiographical "Passages of a Working Life during Half a Century;" "Biographical Memoir of Samuel Hartlib, Milton's Familiar Friend," by Mr. Dircks, and a "Life of the Second Marquis of Worcester," by the same author; "Lives of Boulton and Watt, principally from the Soho MSS., comprising also a History of the Invention and Introduction of the Steam Engine," by Samuel Smiles; "The Journal and Correspondence of Miss Berry from 1788 to 1852" (Miss Berry was the friend of Horace Walpole, Hannah More, and most of the notabilities of the latter part of the eighteenth century, and the early part of the nineteenth), by the late Lady Theresa Lewis; Life and Letters of the late Frederick W. Robertson, of Brighton," edited by Mr. Stopford A. Brooks (reprinted here).

In *Theological and Religious Literature*, the principal works were—"The New Testament for English Readers," by the Dean of Canterbury (Henry Alford, D. D.); "The Holy Bible with Notes and an Introduction," by Canon Wordsworth; "Progress of Doctrine in the New Testament," Bampton Lectures for 1865, by Rev. Mr. Barnard; "Discussions on the Gospels," by Rev. Dr. Roberts; The Fifth part of Bishop Colenso's work on the Pentateuch,

"The Hidden Wisdom of Christ," by Mr. Ernst Bunsen; "The Non-Eternity of Future Punishment," by Rev. James Barlow; a History of German Rationalism, by Professor Hagenbach; "The Critical History of Christian Literature," by Mr. Donaldson; "Christendom's Divisions," by Mr. E. Ffaukes; "History of the Early Scottish Church," by Rev. T. McLauchlan; "The Reform of the Church of Scotland," by Dr. Lee, of Old Greyfriars. On controversial topics there were—"Judgments of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council" on Theological Questions; "An Eirenicon," by Dr. E. B. Pusey; "Temporal Mission of the Holy Ghost," by Archbishop Manning; "Essays on Religion and Literature," edited by Archbishop Manning (the last three reprinted here); "Catholic Missions," by Messrs. Strickland and Marshall.

In *Intellectual and Moral Science*, there were several works of remarkable ability. Among them were—"The Secret of Hegel, being the Hegelian System in Origin, Principle, Form, and Matter," by Mr. James Hutcheson Sterling; "An Examination of Sir W. Hamilton's Philosophy, and of the Principal Philosophical Questions discussed in his Writings," and "Auguste Comte and Positivism," both by Mr. John Stuart Mill (reprinted here); "Vindication of the Hamiltonian Philosophy," by Mr. James Hutcheson Sterling; "The Conformation of the Material by the Spiritual, and the Holiness of Beauty," by Mr. W. Cave Thomas; "A Treatise on Logic, Pure and applied," by Mr. S. H. Emmens; "The Argument, *a priori*, for the Moral Attributes of God," by Mr. W. H. Gillespie; "Plato and the other Companions of Socrates," by Mr. George Grote, three volumes; "Time and Space," by Mr. S. H. Hodgson; "Studies of Ethical and Social Subjects," by Miss Frances Power Cobbe; "Recent British Philosophy," by Professor David Masson; "History of the Mathematical Theory of Probability, from the Time of Pascal to that of Laplace," by Mr. Todhunter; "Spiritual Philosophy founded on the Teaching of Samuel Taylor Coleridge," by Mr. Joseph Henry Green; "The Emotions and the Will," a new and enlarged edition, by Mr. Alexander Bain.

In *ANTIQUARIANISM, TOPOGRAPHY, AND FOLK LORE*, departments of literature not cultivated to any considerable extent in the United States, numerous works were published; some of the most interesting were—"The Romance of London," three volumes by John Timbs; "Haunted London," by Walter Thornbury; "Highways and Byeways of the City," by the author of "London Scenes and London People;" "The Great Schools of England," by Howard Staunton, giving the past history, present condition, and prospects of Eton, Winchester, Westminster, St. Paul's, and other endowed schools of England; "Memorials of the King's School, Canterbury," by Rev. J. S. Sidebotham; "Popular Genealogists," giving the history of Sham Family Trees; "History and Antiquities of Masham and Mashamshire," by Mr. John Fisher; "Introductory

Lecture on Archaeology," by Mr. Churchill Babington; "Etoniana;" "Memorials, Archaeological and Historical, of Chester, Manchester, St. Asaph, and Bangor," by Mr. Mackenzie Walcott; "Ancient British Sculptured Rocks of Northumberland and the Eastern Borders," by Mr. George Tate; "The Ancient Pillar Stones of Scotland: an Inquiry," by Mr. George More; "The Killarney Lakes," by Mr. and Mrs. S. O. Hall; "History of Caricature and Grotesque in Literature and Art," by Mr. Thomas Wright; "A Century of Potting in the City of Worcester," by Mr. R. W. Binns; "Three Notelets on Shakespeare," by Mr. William J. Thoms, referring to the Folk Lore embodied in some of Shakespeare's Plays; "Notices Illustrative of the Drama and other Popular Amusements, chiefly in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries," by Mr. William Kelly; "The Book of Were Wolves," by Mr. Sabine Baring Gould; several works on matters connected with the times and death of King Arthur; "Primitive Marriage," by John F. McLennan, Advocate, a remarkable work; "Popular Romances of the West of England: or, the Drolls, Traditions, and Superstitions of Old Cornwall," collected by Mr. Robert Hunt, two volumes; "Cornwall and its Coasts," by M. Alphonso Esquiros; "Walk from London to Land's End and back," with Notes by the Way," by Mr. Elihu Burritt; "Eastern England from the Thames to the Humber" two volumes, by Mr. Walter White; "A Summer in Skye," by Alexander Smith (reprinted here).

IN GEOGRAPHY AND TRAVEL the number of books was very great, and most of them possess much interest. We name the principal ones: "The Alps of Dauphiné, and his Adventures among them," have been described by Mr. T. G. Bonney, F. G. S., a member of the Alpine Club; "The Cruise of R. Y. S. *Eva*," by Mr. Arthur Kavanagh, gives a lively account of Albania; "Village Life in Switzerland," by Mrs. Delmard, describes the social life of the Helvetic Republic; "A Short American Tramp, in the Fall of 1864," is an Account of a Geological Tour, by the Editor of "Life in Normandy;" Mrs. Beke, who accompanied her husband, Dr. Beke, in an antiquarian expedition to the East, gives an account of the journey, under the title of "Jacob's Flight; or, a Pilgrimage to Haran, and thence in the Patriarch's Footsteps into the Promised Land." Other valuable books on these topics are—"Scenes of Wonder and Curiosity in California," by Mr. James M. Hutchings; "Last Winter in Rome," by Mr. Wild; "Stray Leaves from the Diary of an Indian Officer;" "Camp and Cantonment: a Narrative of the Indian Mutiny," by Mrs. Leopold Paget; "Domestic Life, Character, and Customs of the Natives of India," by Mr. James Kerr; "The Giant Cities of Bashan, and Syria's Holy Places," by Rev. J. L. Porter; "A Winter in Algeria, 1863-'64," by Mrs. G. A. Rogers; "A Work on Algeria," by Mr. G. A. Sala; "The Principal Ruins of Asia Minor," by Charles Texier, Mem. of Inst. of France, and R. Poplewell Pullan,

F. R. I. B. A.; a magnificent work; "Travels and Discoveries in the Levant," by Mr. C. T. Newton; "Excursion in the Peloponnesus, in the Year 1858," by the late Sir Thomas Wyse; "Holy Land," by Mr. Hepworth Dixon; "Travels in Palestine," by Mr. H. B. Tristram; "Adventures among the Dyacks of Borneo," by Mr. Frederick Boyle, F. R. G. S.; "The Northwest Passage by Land," by Viscount Milton, and Mr. W. B. Cheadle; "Ten Years in Sweden: being a Description of the Landscape, Climate, Domestic Life, Forests, Mines, Agriculture, Field Sports, and Fauna of Scandinavia," by an old Bushman; "The *Marathon* and the Mediterranean;" "The Harz Forest," by "A Scotch Family;" "The Regular Swiss Round," by Rev. Harry Jones; "The Isthmus of Panama," by Mr. C. T. Bidwell; "Ice Caves in France and Switzerland," by Rev. G. F. Browne; "Guide to Spain," by Mr. O'Shea; "Over the Pyrenees into Spain," by Miss Mary Eyre; "Reminiscences of a Personal Mission to the Friendly Islands and their Dependencies," by Rev. Thomas West, a Missionary; "Queen's Messenger: or, Travels on the Highways and Byeways of Europe," by Captain Hall; "Egypt and Syria," by Mr. S. S. Hill, F. R. G. S.; "Transylvania," by Mr. Charles Bonar; "Journey from London to Persopolis, including Wanderings in Daghestan, Georgia, Armenia, Kurdistan, and Mesopotamia," by Mr. Ussher; "Journey North and South," vol. iii., treating of Canada, by W. H. Russell, LL. D.; "Travels and Researches of Greece," mostly treating of the Natural History of the country, by Captain Spratt; "Central and Eastern Arabia," by W. Gifford Palgrave, a work of deep interest; "Letters from Egypt in 1863-'65," by Lady Duff Gordon; "Buenos Ayres and Argentine Gleanings," by Mr. Thomas J. Hutchinson; "Adventures and Observations on the West Coast of Africa and its Islands," by Rev. Charles W. Thomas; "Peking and the Pekingese," full of valuable information, by Dr. Rennie, of the British Embassy; "Pen and Pencil Sketches in Italy," by an anonymous author; "Narrative of an expedition to the Zambesi and its Tributaries, and of the Discovery of the Lakes Shirwa and Nyassa, 1858-1864," by David and Charles Livingstone (reprinted here).

ESSAYS AND WORKS OF CRITICISM were abundant. Among them were—"The Critical Essays of a Country Parson" (A. K. H. Boyd); "Lacon in Council," by Mr. J. F. Boyes; "Essays on Criticism," by Mr. Matthew Arnold; "The Campaign at Home," and a "Vindication of Dryden," by Shirley (Mr. John Skelton); "Essays of a Recluse; or, Traces of Thought, Literature, and Fancy," by Mr. William Benton Clulow; "Henry Holbeach, Student in Life and Character: a Narrative and a Discussion;" "The Rook's Garden," by Mr. Cuthbert Bede; "Critical and Literary Essays," forming vol. ii. of the Life and Writings of Joseph Mazzini; "Hunting Sketches," and a Don's "Sketches from Cambridge," both by Anthony Trollope; "Chinese Miscellanies," by Sir John Davis.

"Essay on Shakespeare," by the late Cardinal Wiseman; "An Editor off the Line," by Mr. E. B. Miall; "Pages in Waiting," and "The Business of Pleasure," both by Mr. Edmund Yates; "People, Places, and Things," by the author of *Lost Sir Massingberd*; "Characters and Criticisms," by Mr. Hanway; "Soldiering in Sunshine and Storm," by William Douglas, private in the 10th Hussars; "The Three Great Teachers of our Time—Carlyle, Tennyson, and Ruskin," by Mr. Alexander H. Japp; "Sesame and Lilies," and "Ethics of the Dust," both by John Ruskin.

IN POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE there were a few works of great value and importance. Such were the following: "Our Convicts," by Miss Mary Carpenter; "Journal of a Third Visit to the Convict Jails, Refuges, and Reformatories in Dublin, and its Neighborhood," by the Recorder of Birmingham (Hon. M. D. Hill) and his daughter; "The Pauper, the Thief, and the Convict, their Haunts and Habits," by Mr. Thomas Archer; "Principles of Reform, Political and Legal," by Mr. John Boyd Kinnear; "The Ideas of the Day on Policy," by Charles Buxton, M. P.; "Constitutionalism of the Future; or, Parliament the Mirror of the Nation," by Prof. James Lorimer; "Six Months among the Charities of Europe," by Mr. John de Liefde; "Three Years among the Working Classes in the United States, during the War," by the author of "The Autobiography of a Beggar Boy;" "Remarkable Convictions," by "A Writer to the Signet."

IN FINANCIAL SCIENCE, the most important books were—"The Economy of Capital; or, Gold and Trade," by Mr. Patterson; "The Bank of England and the Organization of Credit," by an anonymous author; "The Bubbles of Finance," by a writer in "All the Year Round."

IN TECHNOLOGY AND MECHANICAL SCIENCE, the principal works were—"Wine and other Fermented Liquors from the Earliest Ages to the Present Time," by Mr. James Richmond Sheen; "The English Gentleman's House; or, How to Plan English Residences, from the Parsonage to the Palace, with Tables of Accommodation and Cost, and a Series of Selected Plans," by Robert Kerr, Architect; "History of Architecture," vol. i., magnificently illustrated, and "Lectures on the Holy Sepulchre and the Temple," both by Mr. Ferguson; "Astra Castra; or, the Science of Ballooning," by Mr. Hatton Turner; "The Book of Perfumes," by M. Eugene Rimmel; "Diamonds and Precious Stones: their History, Value, and Distinguishing Characteristics," by Mr. Harry Emanuel; "Precious Stones," by Mr. C. W. King.

IN NATURAL HISTORY, "Homes without Hands," by Rev. M. Wood, and "Strange Stories of the Animal World," by Mr. Timbs, are the best specimens of the popular treatment of topics of physical science.

IN POETRY, amid the almost numberless aspirants for fame, a few have achieved works

which will live. Among them are—Mr. Algernon Charles Swinburne, whose "Atalanta in Calydon," and "Chastelard" (both reprinted here), have created a decided sensation in literary circles in England. Mr. Robert Buchanan, a young Scotchman, whose "Idylls and Legends of Inverburn," attracted great attention in 1864, has made a still deeper impression by his "Undertones," in 1865. These are both reprinted in the United States. Mr. Allingham, in his "Fifty Modern Poems," has given evidence of great poetic ability. Miss Isa Craig has published a drama called "Duchess Agnes," which, though defective as a drama, contains some extremely tender and beautiful writing. Mr. Richard Hartwell Horne, who for many years has resided in Australia, has published a drama, called "Prometheus the Firebringer," characterized by great vigor and power of expression. Mr. Arthur Munby has printed a volume of verses, "New and Old," distinguished by profound thought and emotion; and Mrs. Frederick Prideaux, a name hitherto unknown to fame, has published a poem entitled "Claudia," of decided merit. There were also new editions, many of them with considerable revision and addition, of the poems of Mrs. Fanny Kemble, Sir Bulwer Lytton, Mr. John Edmund Reade, Dean Alford, the late Miss Adelaide Anne Procter, Tennyson, Browning, and Wordsworth. Following Earl Derby's example, translations of the "Iliad" into English hexameters have been made by Edwin W. Simcox and Mr. J. H. Dart; into the Spenserian stanza, by Mr. Philip Stanhope Worsley, and into English blank verse by Mr. Ichabod Charles Wright; of the "Odyssey" into English blank verse, by Mr. George Musgrave; the "Agamemnon," "Chæphori," and "Eumenides" of Æschylus, have been rendered into English verse by Miss Anna Swanwick; and the "Tragedies of Sophocles," by Mr. E. H. Plumptre. Dante's "Inferno" has been translated in the metre of the original, by the Rev. Prebendary Ford; the "Divina Commedia" into English in its own metre, by Mr. John Dayman; Tasso's "Jerusalem Delivered," by Sir John Kingston James, and Goethe's "Faust," by Mr. Theodore Martin.

IN FICTION, the event of the year was the completion of Mr. Dickens's "Our Mutual Friend." Mr. Anthony Trollope's serial story, "Can You Forgive Her?" was also completed during the year, and Mr. Wilkie Collins's "Armada" nearly so; Mr. Trollope also published during the year "Miss Mackenzie," which, in the opinion of the critics, ranked below most of his novels; Miss Muloch (since married) published a novel entitled "Christian's Mistake," which was exceedingly popular; Miss Annie Thomas added to her reputation by her "Theo. Leigh," and "On Guard;" Miss M. E. Braddon contributed "Only a Clod," "Sir Jasper's Tenant," and the first part of "The Lady's Mile" to her already long list of novels; Mrs. Henry Wood, with remarkable reserve, furnished but a single work, "Mildred Arkell," all these

have been reprinted here. Other new novels of considerable merit were—"Sir Felix Foy, Bart," by Mr. Dutton Cook; "Never Forgotten," by Mr. Percy Fitzgerald; "Selvaggio," a novel, intended to show the progress of Protestantism in Italy, by the author of "Mary Powell;" "Constance Sherwood, an Autobiography of the Sixteenth Century," intended to exhibit the sufferings of Roman Catholics in England in the days of Queen Elizabeth, by Lady Georgiana Fullerton; "Sophy Laurie," by Mr. W. C. Hazlitt, son of the eminent essayist; "Who is the Heir?" by Mr. Mortimer Collins; "The Spanish Match, or Charles Stuart at Madrid," by W. Harrison Ainsworth; "One Against the World, or Reuben's War," by Mr. John Saunders; "The Clyffards of Clyffe," by the author of "Lost Sir Massingberd;" "Agnes," by Mrs. Oliphant (reprinted here); "Half a Million of Money," by Miss Amelia B. Edwards (reprinted here); "Faith Unwin's Ordeal," by Miss Georgiana Craik.

Of FAIRY FICTIONS FOR CHILDREN, the most important were—"Little Wanderlin and Other Fairy Tales;" a translation of "What the Moon Saw," and other Fairy Stories, by Hans C. Andersen; "Mehemet the Kurd," a Series of Oriental Stories after the manner of the Arabian Nights, by Mr. Charles Wells; and translations of two Icelandic Sagas; "Gisli the Outlaw," by Mr. Dasent, and "Viga Glum," by Sir Edmund Head.

Some very remarkable ILLUSTRATED BOOKS FOR CHILDREN were produced during the year. "The Divine and Moral Songs of Dr. Watts," every page of which was illustrated in the highest style of art, under the direction of Mr. Cooper, was an advance even upon the beautiful edition of Mrs. Barbauld's "Hymns in Prose," illustrated by the same eminent artist the previous year. A series of toy books for children printed in colors, on Natural History topics, were remarkable for their extraordinary fidelity to nature, the drawing and coloring, vying in this respect with the best executed engravings of the illustrated monographs on Natural History.

In MISCELLANEOUS LITERATURE, we can only notice a very few books not otherwise classified. "Familiar Words," a collection of well-known quotations and popular phrases, with parallel passages in illustration, by Mr. Hain Friswell; "Handbook of Familiar Quotations," compiled by a Lady; "Evenings in Arcadia," a volume of criticisms on the old poets, by Mr. John Dennis; "Molière Characters, Criticisms, and Translations," by Charles Cowden Clarke; "Common Words with Curious Derivations," by Archdeacon Smith; "The Origin of Language," by Rev. Frederick W. Farrar; "Wit and Wisdom from West Africa (African Proverbs, etc.), by Major Burton; "Prehistoric Times, as Illustrated by Ancient Remains, and the Manners and Customs of Modern Savages," by Mr. John Lubbock; "Superstitions of Witchcraft," by Mr. Howard Williams; "The Letters

of Mozart," translated by Lady Wallace (reprinted here).

LOUISIANA. At the commencement of the year, Louisiana was under the State Government previously organized by the cooperation of Gen. Banks, which extended its control to the verge of the military lines. At the same time the military occupation continued unchanged. New Orleans, with adjacent important positions, were held by this occupation. Nevertheless, the State within these limits was treated practically as a restored portion of the United States. Under the call for troops issued by President Lincoln in December, 1864, a draft was ordered to take place in the Department of the Gulf, by Maj.-Gen. E. K. S. Canby, on February 15th. This was the day fixed for the draft in all Northern States. The quotas assigned were as follows: Parish of Orleans and Jefferson, 4,148; St. Charles, 53; Ascension, 45; East Baton Rouge, 118; Lafourche, 176; Terrebonne, 168; St. Mary, 54; Assumption, 65; St. Bernard, 42; Plaquemine, 76; Plaquemine, left bank, 48; St. James (not announced), —; St. John Baptiste (not announced), —; Dis. of Southern Ala., 31; Dis. of West Florida, 90; Dauphin Island, 29.

In order to facilitate the draft, these parishes and districts were formed into Districts as follows: 1st. Parish of Orleans, Jefferson, St. Charles, and Ascension; 2d. Parish of Lafourche, Terrebonne, St. Mary, and Assumption; 3d. Parish of East Baton Rouge, St. John Baptiste, and St. James; 4th. Parish of St. Bernard and Plaquemine; 5th. District Southern Alabama, West Florida, and Dauphin Island.

Enlistments made between the date of the order and that of the draft were credited on the quota, and the bounties provided by law were paid. "Drafted men became soldiers in the service of the United States, by the fact of their names having been drawn in the draft. The notification served upon them by the Provost Marshal's Department is an announcement of the fact, and an order for them to report for duty at a designated time and place. And any person failing to report, after notice is left at his last place of residence, or served on him, unless relieved by proper authority from the requirements of the draft, is pronounced by law a deserter; he may be arrested, held for trial by court-martial, and sentenced to death."

Such were the words of Maj.-Gen. Hurlbut, in his order issued January 17th, to carry out the provisions of the order No. 4, of Gen. Canby, issued January 8th, above mentioned. All the conditions and stipulations established in the Northern loyal States, were in full force in Louisiana. Deserters from the enemy were not to be drafted; and if enlisted, they were to be assigned to regiments serving on the Indian frontier. On the day appointed the draft took place in New Orleans for the number of men deficient. The speedy close of the war, however, removed any occasion for their services in the field. The number of men from the

State in the Federal armies was about forty thousand.

On September 5, 1864, an election of five members of Congress was held, as stated in a previous volume, and the persons so chosen proceeded to Washington, in order to take their seats at the commencement of the session. The first election of members of Congress subsequent to the outbreak of the war was held in December, 1862, in consequence of instructions from President Lincoln to Gen. Butler. Messrs. Hahn and Flanders were elected, and took their seats by the action of the House on February 3, 1863, and their term of office expired on March 4th ensuing. Subsequently, in October, an address appeared in the New Orleans newspapers to the "citizens loyal to the Government of the United States." Under the direction of the parties from whom this address proceeded, it was claimed that an election of members of Congress took place in some parishes, and persons appeared in Washington as duly elected members. Two were present at the election of Speaker of the House, and one of them nominated Gen. F. Blair as a candidate. They voted for Clerk, and one then resigned or retired. The other remained, and compensation was voted to him by the House. But they were not recognized as members after the organization. The next election was held on September 4, 1864, as above stated. The members elect presented themselves for admission to seats, and in February, 1865, a majority of the committee to whom the credentials of the applicant from the First District was referred reported in favor of admission. The committee state the facts which preceded the election, and say: "This election depends for its validity upon the effect which the House is disposed to give to the efforts to reorganize a State Government in Louisiana, which have here been briefly recited. The districting of the State for representatives, and the fixing of the time for holding the election, were the act of the convention. Indeed, the election of Governor and other State officers, as well as the existence of the convention itself, as well as its acts, are all parts of the same movements."

It was urged as an objection to the validity of these measures, that they neither originated in, nor followed any preëxisting law of the State or nation. To which the committee reply, that in the nature of the case, neither a law of the State nor nation to meet the case was a possibility. And in the absence of any such legal form prepared beforehand in the State, and like absence of power on the part of the General Government, under the delegated powers of the Constitution, it followed that the power to restore a lost State Government in Louisiana existed nowhere, or in "the people," the original source of all political power in this country. The people, in the exercise of that power, cannot be required to conform to any particular mode, for that presupposes a power to prescribe outside of themselves, which it has

been seen does not exist. It follows, therefore, that if this work of reorganizing and reestablishing a State Government was the work of the people, it was the legitimate exercise of an inalienable and inherent right, and if republican in form is entitled not only to recognition, but to the "guaranty" of the Constitution. The committee then inquire how far this effort to restore constitutional government in Louisiana has been the work of the people. They say: "The evidence before the committee, and all the information they could obtain, satisfied them that the movement which resulted in the election of State officers, the calling of a convention to revise and amend the Constitution, the ratification of such a revisal and amendment by a popular vote, and the subsequent election of representatives in Congress, was not only participated in by a large majority, almost approaching to unanimity, of the loyal people of the State, but that the loyal people constituted a majority of all the people of the State." They also add, that from all the facts, they find that the election was held under the auspices of a new State organization which had arisen from the ruins of the old, in as much conformity to law as the nature of the case would permit. This report was not acted upon by the House. But Congress by an act appropriated money to defray the expenses of those representatives elect. A question really existed in Louisiana as to the validity of the election of September 5, 1864, when the Constitution was adopted and members of the State Legislature and representatives to Congress chosen. It was asserted that persons had opportunities to vote who had no legal right to vote, and that such persons did vote; that there were men in the Legislature not elected by the people, whose votes were necessary to make up a quorum. The Legislature which assembled soon after the election, held a long session devoted exclusively to local affairs. That the statements of illegality were justified, would seem to be evident from the following proclamation of the acting Governor on May 3d:

Whereas, according to an official statement of J. Randall Terry, late Register of Voters in and for the city of New Orleans, made to me under date of March 6, 1865, nearly five thousand persons are registered as voters on the books of said office who did not possess the qualifications required by law to become voters in this State; and whereas, it is made my duty to see that the laws are enforced; and whereas, the only way in which the elective franchise can be purified and the rights of the citizen be protected against these illegal votes is by a new registration of the names and residences of all the qualified electors of the city of New Orleans—an inconvenience which every good and law-abiding citizen will cheerfully submit to, for the sake of the end to be accomplished;

Now, therefore, I do issue this my Proclamation, declaring the old books of the Register of Voters for the city of New Orleans to be closed from this date, and the registration of all persons contained therein, as well as all certificates issued by virtue of said records to persons, conferring on them the right to vote, to be null, void, and of no effect from and after the present date.

I do further proclaim, and hereby authorize the Register of Voters in and for the city of New Orleans, to open a new set of books, to commence on the first day of June, 1865, for the registering of all voters in and for the said city, in accordance with the qualifications prescribed by the Constitution and Laws of the State, and of which this proclamation will be considered as giving due notice.

Given under my hand and seal of the State, at the city of New Orleans, this 3d day of May, A. D. 1865, and of the year of the independence of the United States the eighty-ninth.

J. MADISON WELLS.

This order led at once to a difficulty between Gen. Banks and the acting Governor. The registry set aside was made under an order of the former, and many persons registered were reported to be negroes.

On March 4th, Gov. Hahn resigned his office, and was succeeded by the Lieut.-Gov. Wells. Gov. Hahn had been elected by the Legislature as a Senator to Congress, at Washington. The new Governor delivered a brief address, and was followed by Maj.-Gen. Hurlbut in a speech, which thus described the condition of the portion of the State in military possession:

Now a few words about your State. Let me call your attention to this fact: the resources of this State are infinitely reduced by the casualties of war. The commerce, whose innumerable wheels used to vex the turbid current of the Mississippi, has passed away—the result of war. Plantations which used to bloom through your entire land, until the coast of Louisiana was a sort of a repetition of the garden of Eden, are now dismantled and broken down. Trade, commerce, every thing, crippled. Crippled, remember, in every instance where this has occurred, as the natural result of that deadly poison of secession which this people unwisely received and unwisely acted on. With all these things, this newly organized State of Louisiana has to confront difficulties such as never beset any community of men before. You have to create almost out of nothing. You have to make revenues where the taxable property of the State is reduced almost two-thirds. You have to hold the appliances and surroundings of government, and maintain them. All this you have to do out of a circumscribed territory and a broken-down country. Hence there is eminent practical wisdom in the suggestion contained in the address you have just heard, that the most rigid and self-denying economy should be exercised in all these relations which you hold to your fellow-citizens. Gentlemen, let me give you a few facts. The United States supports to-day 14,600 poor people here in the city of New Orleans. The same United States—this same military authority—is maintaining and keeping up to a great extent nearly every charity which belongs to the city or State. The levées, on which the life of your country depends, which from local causes cannot be repaired by the civil authorities, must be attended to by the United States, and the sum of \$160,000 is being laid out now by the United States for the purpose of preventing this delta of the Mississippi from being subject to overflow. Now, in view of this state of things, if you desire to take these matters off the hands of the General Government, look to it well that you have the means to carry out the necessities of the times, and the power to compel observance.

The close of the war soon followed. Paroled prisoners in large numbers returned to their homes. All under certain grades were restored to citizenship who took the oath of amnesty prescribed by the President. The Confederate

Governor, Allen, who had located the seat of his government at Shreveport, in the western part of the State, issued, on June 2d, an address to the people of the State, in which he declared that his administration as Governor of Louisiana closed on that day. He said: "The war is over, the contest is ended, the soldiers are disbanded and gone home, and now there is in Louisiana no opposition whatever to the Constitution and laws of the United States." All the Confederate State officers in its various departments rendered their final accounts, and made full settlements with Gov. Allen, who transferred all important records to the care of the Federal military authorities.

On June 10th, Gov. Wells issued the following address:

STATE OF LOUISIANA, EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT,
NEW ORLEANS, June 10, 1865.

To the People of the Parishes of Saint Tammany, Washington, Saint Helena, Livingston, West Baton Rouge, Pointe Coupée, Saint Martin, Concordia, Madison, Carroll, Franklin, Saint Mary, East Feliciana, West Feliciana, Tenassa, Vermillion, Saint Landry, Lafayette, Calcasieu, Acadian, Natchitoches, Sabine, Caddo, Ouachita, De Soto, Rapides, Morehouse, Union, Jackson, Caldwell, Catahoula, Claiborne, Bossier, Bienville, and Winn:

I extend to you my heartfelt congratulations on your being restored to the protection of the flag of our country, the symbol of law, order, and freedom, and which now waves in majestic power over an undivided nation. Our once wealthy and fertile State, now bankrupt and desolate from the ravages of intestine war, resumes her natural relations (which have been temporarily disrupted) within the glorious Union of the States, united by the bonds of universal freedom and ties that can never be severed. It is not my purpose to rake up the ashes of the past, by inquiring who has erred and who has not erred in the fearful struggle the nation has just passed through. Whatever may have been the causes of the outbreak, and however bitter may have been the feelings engendered in the hearts of some, it is better that all such matters be buried out of sight forever. It is not the past, but the present and future, we have to deal with. Great and responsible duties rest upon every citizen at this crisis, to manfully go to work and assist in the reestablishment of civil government. In that connection it is a most cheering sign to see the spirit of submission to the laws, and willingness to acquiesce in the result, manifested by those so recently engaged in hostility to the Government. Even the soldiers return to their homes wiser and better men, frankly owning to the failure of their experiment, and all expressing a desire to atone for the errors of the past by cheerful obedience to the Government, and glad again to enjoy its beneficent rule. You, my friends and fellow-citizens—for I esteem it a privilege to call you so—must follow in the footsteps of so good an example. You must go to work to organize civil government in your respective parishes. Sheriffs, recorders, clerks of courts, and police jurors, will have to be appointed provisionally, until elections can be held to fill these offices as provided by law. You must confer among yourselves, and select men of integrity and capacity to fill these positions. I will act on your recommendations by appointing the persons named by you, if they are men of proper character, and have taken the oath prescribed in the President's proclamation of the 8th of December, 1863, or that of the 29th of May, 1864. This will be prerequisite in all cases, the original or certified copy of which oath must be transmitted with the application for appointment. It is also my intention to organize the Judiciary throughout the State by appointing, provisionally,

Judges of the District Courts and District Attorneys, as soon as practicable. The former class of officers are made appointive by the Executive under the new Constitution for a term of six years, and I invite recommendations from you as to who shall fill those offices, as also District Attorneys.

I cannot urge upon you too strongly the importance of your acting promptly and with unanimity in the matters herein brought to your notice. If you neglect to avail yourselves of the opportunity offered you, I shall be compelled to make appointments to office for your section, from the best information in my possession, and you cannot blame me if they are not acceptable to you. Important elections will be held this fall. Members of Congress and a Legislature will have to be elected; and if each parish is provided with proper officers to open the polls, an election for Governor and other State officers, according to the new Constitution, will take place at the same time.

While the population of that portion of the State which has been so fortunate as to enjoy the protection of the strong arm of the General Government sooner than other sections (and for which they are not entitled to any merit of their own), in order to hasten the restoration of civil government in the State, have adopted a new Constitution and elected a Legislature which has passed laws; yet I feel authorized to say, that it was with no intention of forestalling or denying your rights to participate in the making of the fundamental, as well as all other laws.

In conclusion, I assure you that no one is more anxious to have the whole State represented in all general elections, and particularly for the office of Governor, than myself. J. MADISON WELLS,
Governor of Louisiana.

This proclamation was followed by a local reorganization in nearly all of the parishes. Considerable discussion subsequently took place on the validity of the existing Government of the State. It was created by the Constitution prepared in convention, in 1864. On the one hand, it was urged against the validity of the Constitution, that the first article in the creed of American republicanism was that a State Constitution is the written embodiment of the people's will, expressed in the most authentic form. To make it valid, the voters throughout the State must have an opportunity to be represented in the convention which frames it. A form of government imposed upon a State, no matter how, unless it springs from the will of a majority of its voters lawfully expressed, is not "a republican form of government," such as the United States is bound by its Constitution to guarantee to each State. But the people of the State, as a people, had nothing to do with framing or adopting the Constitution of 1864. It was therefore without a legal sanction, and the government under it a provisional *de facto* government, resting on force as a necessary consequence of the revolutionary state of things in which it had its birth, but to be obeyed and respected as a *de facto* government until it could be replaced by a government of constitutional law. On the other hand, it was urged that the civil business of the State had been transacted under the Constitution of 1864 for a year or more; two sessions of a recognized Legislature had been held; laws had been enacted and put in force in ac-

cordance with that Constitution; a Governor had been elected and was in authority under its provisions. Its first article provided for the abolition of slavery in a formula that had subsequently been inserted in many State Constitutions. It also contained a provision, by a short method, for amendment. Furthermore, every thing was then in a train for a speedy resumption of civil rule in all portions of the State. As soon as the anomalous position under the military authority ceased, every portion of the State Government could be effectually organized, and the first fruits of civil administration would be at once apparent. To this it was replied, that the formation of another Constitution by a convention was the path to restoration pointed out by President Johnson. The Constitution of 1864 had been tried in Congress, and found wanting. The fact that more of the people may have voted under it, than did for it, could give it no higher validity than it had before, for no other choice had been offered to them.

On September 21st Gov. Wells issued a proclamation, declaring that an election would be held in every parish in the State on November 6th, for the choice of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Attorney-General, and Superintendent of Public Education; also Representatives in Congress; also State Senators in place of those whose term of office had expired, and also Representatives to the Legislature. For the guidance of public officers, and for the information of the voters, the Governor annexed the following qualification of voters as established by law:

Every white male who has attained the age of twenty-one years, and who has been a resident of the State twelve months next preceding the election and the last three months thereof in the parish in which he offers to vote, and who shall be a citizen of the United States, shall have the right of voting.

In addition to the foregoing qualification, every elector is required to produce the amnesty oath prescribed in the President's proclamation, either of the 8th of December, 1863, or that of the 29th of May, 1865, sworn to and subscribed by him before competent authority:

"I do solemnly swear or affirm, in the presence of Almighty God, that I will hereafter faithfully defend the Constitution of the United States and the Union of the States thereunder, and that I will, in like manner, abide by and faithfully support all laws and proclamations which have been made during the existing rebellion with reference to the emancipation of slaves. So help me God."

This oath is imperative on and after the 29th day of May, 1865, and will be rigidly enforced. It will be understood, at the same time, that those who are excluded from the benefits of this amnesty oath, by any of the list of exceptions contained in the proclamation, will not be allowed to vote unless specially pardoned by the President.

In all other respects the election will be conducted in accordance with law, which is the same as under the Constitution of 1852, and returns will be promptly made to the Secretary of State.

On October 2d a Democratic Convention was held at New Orleans to nominate candidates for State officers; ex-Governor Robert C. Wickliffe was elected temporary chairman. On taking

his seat, the chairman proceeded to say that he would be false to himself and his country if he were not to say that this was the proudest moment of his life. He saw upon the walls the device of "Welcome all"—forget all differences, all past animosities, and assemble once more under the Constitution of the United States. The temporary chairman was duly appointed permanent chairman. Twenty-one parishes were not represented. Governor J. M. Wells was unanimously nominated by the convention, and the following series of resolutions adopted:

Whereas, The National Democratic party of the State of Louisiana, in general convention assembled, fully recognizing the fact that the issue, which for the last four years has tried the strength of the United States Government, was made openly, manfully, and honorably, and that the decision having gone against them, and,

Whereas, We have now come forward in the same spirit of frankness and honor to support the Federal Government under the Constitution. Therefore,

Resolved, That we give our unqualified adhesion to the National Democracy of the United States, and that we recognize that party as the only agent by which radicalism can be successfully met, and this Government restored to its pristine purity and vigor.

Resolved, That we emphatically approve of the views of President Johnson with regard to the reorganization of the State Governments of the South, whereby the rights of the respective States are kept unimpaired, and in consequence of which these States are to regulate their institutions as freely and with the same guarantees and privileges as are enjoyed by any other State in the Union.

Resolved, That we hold it to be a cardinal rule of action, both under the General and State Constitutions, to exclude from the field of politics all religious questions and controversies, recognizing in each and every one the right to a full and free exercise of his religious opinions and tenets.

Resolved, That we hold this to be a Government of white people, made and to be perpetuated for the exclusive benefit of the white race; and in accordance with the constant adjudication of the United States Supreme Court, that people of African descent cannot be considered as citizens of the United States, and that there can, in no event, nor under any circumstances, be any equality between the white and other races.

Resolved, That while we announce emphatically our opinion that the Constitution of 1864 is the creation of fraud, violence, and corruption, and is not in any sense the expression of the sovereign will of the people of Louisiana, and while we believe that it should be repudiated and abolished as speedily as it can be done legally, yet, as the Government organized under it is a *de facto* Government, and the only *de facto* Government in the State of Louisiana; as the election about to be held is called under that Constitution, by an officer holding his position under that Constitution; as the recognition of Governor J. Madison Wells by the President, Andrew Johnson, is to that extent a recognition of that Constitution and of the Government organized under it, and as this convention has no right to make or alter constitutions or forms of government, we, therefore, recognize it as the existing Government, but recommend the calling of a convention of the people of the State at the earliest practicable period, for the purpose of adopting a Constitution expressing the will of the entire people of the State.

Resolved, That the institution of slavery having been effectually abolished in the Southern States, we consider it our right to petition Congress for com-

pensation for all losses sustained by the emancipation policy.

Resolved, That we will use all the means in our power to favor a return to the economical administration of the finances of the Government and the full and entire payment of its just liabilities.

Resolved, That we advocate the repeal of all ordinances and laws found to have been passed in Louisiana, and which are not in harmony with the Constitution and laws of the General Government, and which are not the deed of bodies constituted by the people at large.

Resolved, That we advocate a levee and labor system, and recommend the immediate adoption of such laws and means as will most effectually relieve the planters and people at large.

Resolved, That considering it consonant with the chivalrous magnanimity of the Chief Executive at Washington, and due to a large number among the people in general, we most earnestly and strongly appeal for an early general amnesty and prompt restitution of property; assured that thereby impending total ruin will be averted and the domestic tranquillity of the Southern States successfully insured.

Resolved, That we invite all law-abiding citizens who agree with us upon the measures and principles above enumerated, without distinction of nationalities, to join us in our opposition to the Radical Republican party, whose tendency and aim are to centralize and consolidate a Government on the ruins of our State institutions.

Previously, on September 9th, the committee of those designated as National Conservative Union, issued an address, in which they say:

There have been recently organized in this city: First, a party calling itself the "National Democratic," which advocates the ignoring of our present Constitution, and the organization of the State under that of 1852; and secondly, another, assuming the title of "Conservative Democratic," opposed also to our present Constitution, but favoring a new Convention. Both of these appeal to old and deeply-rooted prejudices, a yielding to which, at this time, would be certain to imperil the welfare of the State, and delay beyond any possibility the admission of our Representatives into the next Congress of the United States. In addition to these, there is the Radical Republican faction, which advocates negro suffrage and a new Convention. Between these extremes stands the National Conservative Union party, opposing the extension of the elective franchise to the negro, the calling of a new Convention as unnecessary, and recognizing the existence and validity of the Constitution of 1864, as the organic law of this State. This instrument, though framed by a Convention, in which "the people of the State were not wholly represented," is yet framed in the interests of the whole State.

The same committee called a Convention, to assemble on October 9th. The Convention thus called was organized by the appointment of H. Fuselier as chairman, and adopted the following platform:

Whereas, The National Conservative Union party of Louisiana (now assembled in Convention in accordance with Gov. Wells's proclamation of election), believes that the opportune period has arrived when it behooves the good people of this State to come together in a spirit of conciliation, brotherhood, and compromise for the purpose of resuming the relations severed by the secession ordinance of 1861;

And *whereas*, the National Conservative Union party of Louisiana desires that our State should resume, as soon as possible, her relations with the National Government, and accept in good faith the result of the war as overthrowing all the political theories which led to it; therefore, be it

Resolved, That the National Conservative Union party of Louisiana pledges itself to support by all means in its power the Union of these States under the Constitution of the United States.

Resolved, That this Convention recognizes the result of the issues lately dividing the North and South as final and beyond appeal, and that it proudly hails the restoration of Federal authority over the national domain as a triumphant vindication of our republican form of government.

Resolved, That the gratitude and admiration of the country are eminently due to President Andrew Johnson, for the firmness, patriotism, and lofty conservatism which he has displayed in his administration of national affairs; that we regard his reconstruction policy as wise, clement, and conciliatory, affording the people of the South an opportunity to show themselves prepared to fill the part of good and loyal citizens; and that it now becomes the duty of all so to avail themselves of it as to give him no cause to regret his magnanimity.

Resolved, That the allegiance of every American citizen is primarily due, under the Constitution, to the Government of the United States, and that we repudiate the doctrine that any State can dissolve her constitutional relations to the Union except by successful revolution.

Resolved, That we hereby declare our inflexible opposition to the payment of any debt or liability contracted or incurred by any civil or military authority in this State, in furtherance of the war waged against the authority and Government of the United States.

Resolved, That we deem it just and proper that all liabilities incurred by the Government, in the restoration of peace and national unity, should be promptly and honorably liquidated by a system of taxation, uniform in its provisions and bearing equally upon all parts of the country.

Resolved, That we cordially endorse the action of our Conservative friends in the Northern States in their manly opposition to the spread of radical principles, and to the elevation of the African upon a footing of political equality with the white man.

Resolved, That we will maintain the right of suffrage as now established by the Constitution of this State, restricting the elective franchise to the white race alone.

Resolved, That we will favor the establishment of just and equitable laws for the regulation of labor and the fostering of the agricultural interests of this State, a thorough and efficient levee system, and an economical administration of the State government.

Resolved, That we urgently advocate the speedy issuing of a general amnesty, and the repeal of the confiscation law.

Resolved, That regarding, as we do, the Constitution of the United States as the palladium of our liberties, we shall steadily oppose any and every attempt to ostracise any citizen, either on account of his nativity or of his religious opinions.

Resolved, That we most cordially recommend to the next Legislature the passage of a general law for the relief of those who have resided outside of the lines of Federal occupation in this State, and who have been compelled to pay taxes to the officers claiming authority therein.

Resolved, That we earnestly appeal to all conservative loyal citizens of this State, who desire a speedy restoration of our full rights in the Union of States, to unite with us in the support of the candidates of the National Conservative Union party.

The Convention also nominated Gov. Wells for reelection.

At the same time the friends of the late Confederate Governor, Allen, issued the following:

For Governor—The friends of ex-Gov. Henry Watkins Allen, anticipating his immediate return home,

hereby announce him as a candidate for Governor of the State of Louisiana, at the ensuing November election.

Governor Wells, who had been nominated by both conventions, had been formerly a Red River planter, and manifested his devotion to the Union cause by coming within the Federal lines after they were established, and bringing his slaves with him, and thereby emancipating them. He addressed a letter of acceptance to the President of the National Conservative Convention, in which he thus explained his position:

I have also received the platform adopted by the Convention. After carefully reading the same, I am pleased to acknowledge the conservative character and conciliatory spirit that pervades the platform. According to my understanding, there is no material difference in its principles and those adopted by another convention, whose nomination I have already accepted. Both platforms are in unison with the principles, liberal measures, and harmonizing policy of the National Executive, whose lofty patriotism and efforts to uphold the Constitution are fully endorsed. In accepting the nomination, which I do, of the National Conservative Union party, I therefore consider that I can consistently do so on the platform of principles adopted by both conventions and without compromising either.

I am not a party candidate, according to the strict meaning of that term. Heretofore I have acted irrespective of all party trammels. I am warranted in believing that I am indebted to my official record and acts for the high and unusual honor conferred on me in being chosen as their candidate by two conventions from the people, acting under different party names, but both, I am happy to believe, having the same patriotic purpose in view, to wit: the true welfare of the State, and to support the Constitution of the United States and the Union of the States thereunder.

All the other candidates on the separate tickets were different individuals. At the election which was held in November, the number of votes cast was 27,808, of which Governor Wells received 22,312, and ex-Governor Allen 5,497. The total vote of the State in 1860 was 50,510. The Democratic ticket for members of the Legislature was successful in every county except one.

On November 13th the Radical Republicans held a mass meeting in New Orleans, at which resolutions were passed claiming the election of H. C. Warmouth as their delegate to Congress from the Territory of Louisiana, in part by the votes of colored persons, amounting to 19,000; also declaring the State organization repugnant to the Federal Constitution; and also that the State Government has been made repugnant to the Federal Constitution, both in law and in effect; therefore it was apparent to all parties that the President of the United States could not restore it by proclamation. That the State could only be restored in the constitutional way by petitioning Congress for admission whenever a majority of the whole people deem it expedient so to petition. That the temper of a majority of the white voters, nine-tenths of whom were disloyal, rendered it inexpedient at this time to apply to Congress for admission. That even in the face of this condition of things

in Louisiana, they rejoice that the Republican party everywhere, in the recent Northern elections, triumphed, and that this pointed to ultimate success. That their hope was in Congress; that the premature admission of Senators and Representatives from Louisiana would be disastrous, and place them under rebel rule. That, as loyal citizens, they will resort to all peaceable means for redress and for securing the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

On November 23d the Legislature assembled at New Orleans, in an extra session called by the Governor. His message was confined chiefly to local topics which required the attention of that body. He said that it was necessary the State should be fully represented in Washington. For this purpose it was requisite that two Senators should be elected in time to reach Washington at the opening of Congress. The Governor thus repudiated an election of Senators which was made at the session of the Legislature at the beginning of the year. At a joint session of both Houses, presided over by Lieutenant-Governor Wells, Governor Hahn and R. King Cutler had been elected United States Senators—the former to fill the vacancy caused by the withdrawal of Judah P. Benjamin, and the latter by that of John Slidell. Twenty-five Senators and seventy-nine members of the House were present. The Governor further called attention to the finances of the State, to the system of labor, to immigration, and to the educational and charitable institutions of the State—the condition of which was generally very unfavorable. The interest on the public debt had not been discharged for some years. One of the first movements in the Assembly of the Legislature was the appointment of a committee, to whom was referred a resolution providing for the call of a convention to draft a State Constitution. With this resolution were also referred a number of others, following in the lead of the original one. A majority and minority report were made by the committee, which are important as showing the embarrassing division of sentiments in the State.

The majority report assumed in the preamble that the Constitution of 1864 was the creation of fraud and violence, declared the necessity of inquiring into the expediency of a new election of delegates to a convention; stated that great doubts existed as to the mode of revising the Constitution; advocated the submission of the subject to the people, so that they might have an opportunity to act on republican principles. Whether the Legislature would ratify or reject the Constitution of 1864, they should do all in their power to relieve the people of their necessities, and alleviate the pressure of evils under which the State labored. The report specified the means by which the question Convention or no Convention should be submitted to the people; required the Governor to issue his proclamation based on the same grounds as the

late election to the General Assembly; advocated the placing of two ballot-boxes at each poll, in which the electors should vote for or against the Convention, and make choice of delegates to that Convention at the same time: in one ballot-box should be voted the ticket Convention or no Convention; in the other delegate tickets were to be voted. The returns were to be made in conformity with the above programme.

The minority report recognized the Constitution of 1864 as binding. Since the condition precedent to a restoration in the rights, immunities, and privileges of the Union, is the abolition of slavery, the ratification of the constitutional amendment, the repeal of the ordinance of secession, it was incumbent on the Legislature to enact laws to that result. But the Constitution of 1864 had already accomplished this end. The Constitution in question provides in Art. 146 for the manner in which amendments may be made, and the report advocated the amendment to the existing Constitution in place of its eradication; it was held that this mode was by far the cheapest of the two, for a new Convention necessarily involved another large outlay of funds. The gist of the minority report was that there was no necessity for calling a Convention.

The consideration of the reports was postponed to a future day. Meanwhile, on the next day, December 6th, the Assembly passed a resolution to proceed on the same day to the election of United States Senators, in which the Senate concurred. It was objected that this action would be an indirect approval of the Constitution of 1864. In reply it was said, that Messrs. Hahn and Cutler had applied in vain to Congress for admission, and new Senators should therefore be elected. The result was, the choice of Messrs. Randall Hunt and Henry Boyce as Senators. The question of calling a Constitutional Convention was finally postponed to the regular session in January, 1866. At this session bills were passed "to provide for and regulate labor contracts for agricultural pursuits;" "relative to apprentices and indentured servants;" and "to punish in certain cases the employers of laborers or servants." The status of freedmen was declared to be the same as the free negroes in Louisiana have always enjoyed under the laws, thereby admitting their right to sue and be sued, to plead and be impleaded, to own, possess, establish ownership, and have their property defended by the courts, but prohibiting them from voting or participating at elections. A bill was also passed appropriating \$20,000 as a fund for the relief of disabled soldiers.

The proposed amendment to the Federal Constitution was brought up, for the purpose of setting at rest the doubt as to its passage by the Constitution of 1864, and as due to President Johnson and in unison with his policy. It was adopted by a vote of two to one in the Assembly, in the following form:

Resolved, therefore, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana in General Assembly convened, That the aforesaid proposed amendment of the Constitution of the United States be, and the same is hereby ratified and adopted, with the express understanding that in the sense of the General Assembly, the power granted to Congress by the second section of the foregoing amendment, is strictly limited to legislation appropriate and necessary for the prevention and prohibition of slavery or involuntary servitude within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction, and that any attempt on the part of Congress to legislate otherwise upon the political status or civil relations of former slaves within any State, would be a violation of the Constitution of the United States as it now is, or as it will be, altered by the proposed amendment.

The extra session closed on December 22d, by adjournment to the first day of the regular session.

A Bureau of Free Labor, the predecessor of the Freedmen's Bureau, was in operation at New Orleans at the commencement of the year. It had exercised supervision over the freedmen in the military lines during the previous year. The labor year terminated on February 1st, when laborers were allowed to select their places of employment for the ensuing year—one-half the wages earned was also payable at that time. The lessee system of Government plantations, owing to a want of military protection, had generally been a failure. A system of military occupation for the protection of planters was introduced by Gen. Canby with more success, and a system of regulations of free labor adopted by the Federal Treasury Agent under whose general charge the freedmen were placed. It was a kind of Freedmen's Code, since set aside by the instructions of the National Bureau. During the year 1864, fifteen hundred plantations were worked by fifty thousand freedmen under the supervision of a Federal agent, who reported that on not more than one per cent. of the plantations would the laborers fail to receive their full wages. At the close of hostilities, stringent orders were issued by Gen. Herron in northern Louisiana, requiring the freedmen to remain on the plantations until the crops were secured, otherwise they would be arrested as vagrants. The freedmen, generally, believed that at the close of the year there would be a division of property, and they would be able to live in comfort and idleness. In vain the Federal officers endeavored to convince them of the falsity of this opinion, or to induce them to renew their contracts. In their view, the master had been stripped of every thing except his lands for their benefit, and there was no reason why these should not be taken also. A degree of demoralization ensued which presented an unfavorable aspect for crops in the ensuing year. In the State, there were one hundred and forty-one schools for freedmen, attended by nineteen thousand scholars. The amount of school tax paid by the blacks of New Orleans was reported at \$40,000.

The results of confiscation in New Orleans were thus reported:

Government has in fact made very little by its confiscations of 1863-'64. The defaulting quartermaster here turned over \$75 as the total net proceeds of the sales of all the splendid Paris-made furniture, gold and silver plate, and an infinitude of valuable things which were taken from the houses of rich absentees and registered enemies of New Orleans; and Judge Durrell of the United States District Court says that the net proceeds of the confiscation sales of the property adjudged to the United States in his court will not exceed \$100,000. This includes such properties as the eight hundred valuable city lots of John Slidell, with many a splendid store and family residence upon them. Harpies, who have done nothing but make money out of both parties during the war, profit by confiscation, the Government does not.

About eighty plantations, comprising some of the finest sugar estates in the country, were held by the Freedmen's Bureau as liable to confiscation.

In June, the Chief Justice of the United States being in New Orleans, was invited to address an assembly of blacks, to whom he made the following reply:

NEW ORLEANS, JUNE 6, 1865.

GENTLEMEN: I should hardly feel at liberty to decline the invitation you have tendered me, in behalf of the loyal colored Americans of New Orleans, to speak to them on the subject of their rights and duties as citizens, if I had not quite recently expressed my views at Charleston in an address, reported with substantial accuracy, and already published in one of the most widely circulated journals of this city. But it seems superfluous to repeat them before another audience.

It is proper to say, however, that these views, having been formed years since, on much reflection, and confirmed in new and broader application by the events of the civil war now happily ended, are not likely to undergo, hereafter, any material change.

That native freemen, of whatever complexion, are citizens of the United States; that all men held as slaves in the States which joined in rebellion against the United States, have become freemen through executive and legislative acts during the war; and that these freemen are now citizens and consequently entitled to the rights of citizens, are propositions which, in my judgment, cannot be successfully controverted.

And it is both natural and right that colored Americans, entitled to the rights of citizens, should claim their exercise. They should persist in this claim respectfully but firmly, taking care to bring no discredit upon it by their own action. Its justice is already acknowledged by great numbers of their fellow-citizens, and these numbers constantly increase.

The peculiar conditions, however, under which these rights arise, seem to impose on those who assert them peculiar duties, or rather special obligations to the discharge of common duties. They should strive for distinction by economy, by industry, by sobriety, by patient perseverance in well-doing, by constant improvement of religious instruction, and by the constant practice of Christian virtues. In this way they will surely overcome unjust hostility, and convince even the most prejudiced that the denial to them of any right, which citizens may properly exercise, is equally unwise and wrong.

Our national experience has demonstrated that public order reposes most securely on the broad base of universal suffrage. It has proved also that universal suffrage is the sure guaranty and most powerful stimulus of individual, social, and political progress. May it not prove, moreover, in that work of reorganization which now engages the thoughts of all patriotic men, the best reconciler of the most

comprehensive lenity with the most speedy and certain revival of general prosperity?

Very respectfully yours, S. P. CHASE.
Messrs. J. D. RUDANEZ, L. GOLLS, and L. BANKS,
Committee.

The loss of the State on the Confederate side of the conflict was severe. Of fifteen thousand men in the army of Gen. Lee, in Virginia, only six hundred were reported as remaining.

LÜBECK, a free city in Germany. According to the present constitution, which was adopted on December 29, 1851, the executive power is vested in a Senate, composed of fourteen members, and the legislative authority in the "Bürgerschaft" (House of Burgesses), consisting of one hundred and twenty members, chosen by all citizens who are members of any of the twelve guilds of the city. Lübeck is the seat of the Supreme Court of Appeal for the four free cities of Germany, which is composed of a president and six councillors. The "Budget" of 1863 estimates the public revenue at 1,334,450, and the expenditure at 1,300,214 marks current. Area, 109 square miles; population, in 1862, 50,614. They are all Lutherans, with the exception of about 400 Calvinists, 200 Roman Catholics, and 500 Jews. The contingent of Lübeck to the Federal army of Germany is 679 men. The value of imports in 1863 was as follows:

	Marks current.
By Sea.....	20,883,798
By Rail.....	40,010,811
Other Conveyances by Land.....	4,326,085
River.....	1,252,701
Total.....	66,953,245

Lübeck possessed, at the commencement of 1862, fifty-seven sea-going vessels, among them thirteen steamers.

LUTHERAN CHURCH. There were, in 1865, twenty-three Lutheran Church, school, and missionary periodicals published in the United States, namely, seven English, thirteen German, two Swedish, one Norwegian. Not included in the above list are two new English papers, which in the latter months of the year were announced as soon to appear in Virginia and North Carolina.

The number of theological seminaries or theological departments in connection with colleges was fourteen. They are situated at Philadelphia and Gettysburg, Pa.; Columbus and Springfield, O.; St. Louis, Mo.; Hartwick and Buffalo, N. Y.; Springfield and Paxton, Ill.; Strawberry Point and Decorah, Ind.; Newberry, S. C.; Watertown, Wis.; Selinsgrove, Pa.

The number of colleges and collegiate departments is sixteen; of female seminaries, six. Lutheran Orphans' Homes and Christian Hospitals for the Sick have been established in various parts of the country. In 1865 such institutions were in operation at Pittsburg, Zeligople, Rochester, Germantown, Middletown, Pa.; Buffalo, N. Y.; Toledo, O.; Milwaukee, Wis., and other places.

The "Lutheran Church Almanac" for 1866

LUTHERAN CHURCH.

(published in Allentown, Pa., by the Rev. S. R. Brobst), gives the following statistical view of the Lutheran Church in the United States:

	Minist- ters.	Congrega- tions.	Communi- cants.
1. Synod of Pennsylvania and ad- jacent States.....	119	268	49,222
2. Ministerium of New York.....	62	60	12,924
3. Synod of Maryland.....	40	41	7,089
4. Synod of North Carolina*.....	23	38	4,503
5. Joint Synod of Ohio †.....	184	230	85,000
6. Synod of Tennessee †.....	32	65	5,300
7. Synod of West Carolina*.....	42	54	9,539
8. Synod of West Pennsylvania.....	46	97	11,615
9. Synod of Virginia*.....	30	68	8,743
10. Hartwick Synod (New York).....	27	81	4,400
11. East Ohio Synod.....	37	60	4,003
12. English Synod of Ohio.....	12	32	2,450
13. English Synod (New York).....	26	33	2,745
14. Allegheny Synod (Pa.).....	39	94	6,396
15. East Pennsylvania Synod.....	60	118	15,647
16. Synod of West Virginia*.....	20	37	2,809
17. Pittsburg Synod.....	54	190	9,353
18. Miami Synod (Ohio).....	38	55	4,100
19. Synod of Illinois.....	28	49	4,646
20. Buffalo Synod (New York and other States) †.....	30	40	5,000
21. Wittenberg Synod (Ohio).....	38	44	2,265
22. Olive Branch Synod (Indiana).....	20	49	2,155
23. Synod of Wisconsin †.....	47	69	11,013
24. Synod of Northern Illinois.....	29	50	1,520
25. Synod of Texas*.....	28	22	2,350
26. Synod of Southern Illinois.....	12	27	1,250
27. Joint Synod of Missouri and other States †.....	260	230	30,000
28. Norwegian Synod (Wisconsin, Iowa, and other States) †.....	30	180	20,000
29. Central Pennsylvania Synod.....	48	96	7,500
30. Synod of Iowa (German) †.....	50	65	6,800
31. Synod of Iowa (English and German).....	18	45	1,400
32. Synod of Northern Indiana.....	26	74	2,000
33. Michigan Synod †.....	15	35	2,000
34. Melancthon Synod (Maryland).....	18	29	4,300
35. Union Synod (Indiana) †.....	10	15	2,000
36. Canada Synod †.....	13	30	1,500
37. Mississippi Synod †.....	7	11	2,000
38. Augustana Synod (Swedish and Norwegian) †.....	39	73	8,434
39. New Jersey Synod.....	8	11	1,500
40. Minnesota Synod.....	9	15	1,500
41. Holston Synod (Tennessee).....	7	13	1,200
	1,637	2,556	312,015

The Synod of Kentucky, at its session in May, 1865, passed a resolution to dissolve, and it commended the ministers and churches within its bounds to join the Olive Branch Synod of Indiana.

A contributor to the "Lutheran" of Philadelphia gives the following survey of the expressions of the Lutheran synods on the loyalty question during the war: "I happen to have in hand the minutes for the year 1864 of twenty-three synods, out of the twenty-four thus associated, the Synod of Kentucky alone excepted. In running my eye over these pamphlets, I have found that the larger number of these bodies did, in the last year, give strong evidence of an unmistakable position on the side of loyalty and nationality. In regard to the remainder of these synods, I have examined other numbers of their minutes from 1861 to 1863, and am gratified to find that only two synods appear without giving a decided expression in the right

* The synods marked † are not connected with the General Synod, which meets biennially. Those marked * formerly belonged to the General Synod, but were not represented at the last meeting of the General Synod.

direction. Among the twenty-two synods *not* 'silent' was that of Kentucky (lately disbanded), which adopted the strong resolutions on the state of the country passed by the General Synod in 1862. One of the remaining two bodies is the little Synod of Minnesota, which came into the General Synod at the last meeting of the latter. Of this body, I have before me only the minutes of 1864; but I find therein presumptive evidence that all is right. A committee was appointed to prepare a report on the war; but, as the minutes were presented in the briefest space possible, the report is not printed. The Melancthon Synod in Maryland is the only one left to be noticed. In glancing the eye over the minutes, I have met with nothing of a patriotic character."

In 1865 many of the synods passed resolutions for appointing missionaries for the freedmen, and for calling the attention of the next General Synod (which meets in 1866) to this work. The Pittsburg Synod also passed the following resolution on the state of the country: "We pledge ourselves to use our influence in every proper way, that full justice be done to our colored brethren, who have so long been the victims of this most unchristian oppression." The Philadelphia Synod unanimously expressed the hope that "all classes and conditions of men may, in accordance with the spirit of the blessed Gospel, and the fundamental principles of our land, as expressed by the fathers and founders of the same, come fully to the enjoyment of certain inalienable rights, among which are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Similar resolutions were passed by other synods.

LYNCH, WILLIAM F., formerly a captain in the U. S. Navy, and afterwards a commander in the Confederate navy; an author and explorer, born in Virginia in 1801, and died at Baltimore, Md., October 17, 1865. He entered the United States Navy in 1819, his warrant as midshipman dating January 26th of that year. He was promoted a lieutenant in May, 1828, and as such made his famous expedition to the Dead Sea and near Jordan in 1848. The plan of this expedition originated with Lynch, and, on receiving the sanction of the Government, was carried out by him with much success and

credit. He sailed from this country for Smyrna in the naval storeship *Supply* in November, 1847. He visited Constantinople to obtain the requisite authority and protection from the Turkish Government to pass through Palestine. He made this necessary overland journey on camels, and by the aid of Arabs and others. His party was landed in the Bay of Acre in March, 1848, and in the following April began the work of navigating the Jordan to the Dead Sea. A thorough exploration and sounding of the sea were made. Among other curious features of the labor was the establishment by a series of levels of the depression of the Dead Sea below the level of the Mediterranean, a former survey by Lieut. Symonds, of the British navy, being fully corroborated as correct, and the depression established as one thousand three hundred and twelve feet. On his return Lieut. Lynch published a narrative of his expedition, which has passed through several editions and attained a position among standard works. On his return he was promoted a commander. He prepared to engage in an expedition into Africa, but the exploration was abandoned. In 1851 he published a volume entitled "*Naval Life; or, Observations Afloat and on Shore.*" In 1856 he was promoted captain, and this position he retained until his resignation in 1861 to join the South. His commission as flag officer, as the Confederate Navy Department designated the rank of commodore, was dated June 10, 1861. He was immediately assigned to duty as commander of the defences of North Carolina. He commanded the naval squadron which resisted Gen. Burnside's attack on Roanoke Island on the 7th and 8th of February, 1862, and subsequently commanded the remainder of the fleet, which was surprised two days after by a portion of Commodore Rowan's fleet, which pursued to Elizabeth City. Lynch was on shore at the time and escaped. He remained in the interior of North Carolina for a long time, and did not make his appearance again until Porter's attack on Fort Fisher developed him as the commander at Smithville. When Fort Fisher fell Lynch dismantled the Smithville defences and retired with his marines to Wilmington, and thence into the interior.

M

MAGIE, DAVID, D.D., a Presbyterian clergyman, born near Elizabeth, N. J., March 13, 1795, died at Elizabeth, May 10, 1865. His ancestors were of Scotch origin, men of deep piety, and strongly attached to the principles of the Presbyterian order. When in his eighteenth year, during a revival of religion, he was converted, and in June, 1813, made a public profession of his faith. From this time his whole desire was toward the ministry; but being the eldest of five children, and his mother a widow in somewhat straitened circumstances, he had at first

some struggles concerning the path of duty. Having decided to enter the ministry, he commenced a course of study under the direction of Dr. John McDowell, entered the junior class in the college of New Jersey in 1815, and, after graduating with honor, entered the theological seminary of that place in the fall of 1817. After spending one year in the seminary he was solicited by the Faculty of the college to accept the office of tutor, which he held for two years. Subsequently he was licensed to preach by the Presbytery of New Jersey, and

in 1820 entered upon the pastorate of the Second Presbyterian church in Elizabeth. His health failing, he was obliged to spend the winter of 1822 in Georgia, from which change of climate he received much benefit. In 1826, however, he was again obliged to visit Savannah, and with the same happy result. He received calls to two churches in that city, but declined both, and subsequently several others in his own neighborhood and the West; but his heart could not be drawn from his own people, and he continued to hold the place of his first choice through life. Dr. Magie held several positions of honor and trust; as trustee of the College of New Jersey, director in the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, director in the American Tract Society, and director in the Theological Seminary at Princeton. In 1842 he received the title of Doctor of Divinity from Amherst College.

MAGNAN, BERNARD PIERRE, Marshal of France, born in Paris, October 7, 1791, died at Paris, May 29, 1865. He was educated for the law, but in his eighteenth year he enlisted as a private soldier in the 66th regiment of the line, and in the course of four years' service in the campaigns of Portugal and Spain, gained, by his good conduct and valor, the rank of captain and the cross of the Legion of Honor. He was then transferred to the Imperial Guard, with which he took an active part in the last campaign of France, and served at the battle of Waterloo. He was next, through the influence of Marshal Gourion de St. Cyr, admitted to the Bourbon Royal Guard, serving with distinction in Spain in 1823, where he gained the rank of colonel, and in the expedition against Algiers in 1830, for which he was made commander of the Legion of Honor. In 1831 he was in garrison at Moultrison, when he received orders to march on Lyons, where a dispute about wages had caused an insurrection among the workmen. Having reached the gates of the city, in order to avoid effusion of blood he commenced treating with the insurgents; but this course not meeting with the approbation of the Government of Louis Philippe, the humane officer was placed on half pay. He then offered his services to the king of the Belgians, who at once appointed him general of brigade, charged him with the investment of Maestricht, and afterwards confided to him the military division of Ghent. In 1839, when there was danger of war with Holland, Gen. Magnan commanded, at the camp of Beverloo, the advanced guard of twenty-five thousand men, being half of the Belgian army. Peace having been signed the same year he quitted Belgium and returned to France with the rank of major-general, to which he had been promoted in 1835. After being stationed for a short time in the Pyrénées, he obtained command of a division in the department of Nord, which he held for seven years, during which time he was repeatedly called on to suppress insurrections among the workmen of Lille and of Roubaix. In 1840, having been

accused of complicity in the attack by Louis Napoleon on Boulogne, he defended himself before the Chamber of Peers. At the time of the revolution in 1848 Gen. Magnan was unemployed, and Louis Philippe declined the offer of his services; he, however, accompanied the Duchess of Orleans and her children to the Chamber of Deputies, when the abdication of the king in favor of his grandson, the Count de Paris, was proposed; but the project was not listened to, the republic being proclaimed instead. Under the new rulers Gen. Magnan commanded the division of the Alps. During the insurrection of June he advanced to the relief of Paris, marching one hundred and twenty leagues in seven days. Subsequently he suppressed a movement in Lyons, for which service he received the cordon of a grand officer of the Legion of Honor, and was promoted to command the division of Strasbourg. While there he was chosen by the electors of the department of the Seine as one of their representatives to the Legislative Assembly, but his military duties on the frontiers prevented his taking any active part in the sittings. As commander-in-chief of the army of Paris, a post he had held since 1851, he took a prominent part in the *coup d'état* of the 2d of December, for which he was rewarded with the *bâton* of field-marshal, the dignity of senator, and the office of grand huntsman to Napoleon III.

MAGNESIUM. Brief notices of this metal, its properties and uses, appear under its name in the volume of this *CYCLOPEDIA* for 1863, and under the title *LIGHT* in that for 1864. The continued developments in connection with the subject, and particularly as to the qualities and possible applications of the magnesium light, are such as to warrant a more extended account in this place.

Preparation of Magnesium: Sonstadt's Method.—During some years, in which the peculiar properties of this metal and of the light afforded on combustion of it were becoming generally known, the processes of obtaining it remained beset with difficulties and suited only to the laboratory; and the consequent limited supply and high price prevented the introduction of the metal into general use. M. E. Sonstadt, however, set out to devise a process for preparing magnesium on a manufacturing scale; and it now appears that in this he has entirely succeeded. The first requisite was to obtain economically the anhydrous chloride of magnesium, free at the same time from ammonium or other prejudicial intermixture. By heating to redness the hydrated chloride of the metal in a dry current of gaseous chlorhydric acid, a perfectly anhydrous and pure chloride is obtained. This process, however, is tedious. The mother-liquor left after extraction of common salt from seawater constitutes a convenient source of chloride of magnesium, the only purification required being a precipitation of sulphates present by the chlorides of barium and calcium, and of the

excess of barium exactly by carbonate of soda or of potassa. Where this mother-liquor cannot be obtained, and the chloride must be artificially produced, the sulphate of magnesia (Epsom salts) serves as a better crude material than the so-called magnesia of commerce. The sulphate, it appears, is decomposed by carbonate of soda, and the carbonate of magnesia obtained is submitted to repeated washings with hot water, alternated with drying by means of great pressure or by aid of a centrifugal machine. This artificially prepared carbonate of magnesia gives the best results; but the native carbonate, found in many parts of the world, which never contains sulphates and frequently so little of a certain undetermined prejudicial ingredient (*X*) often arising during the operation with the commercial carbonate, or of other impurities, that it serves even without preliminary purification as a good primary material. By saturating chlorhydric acid with this native carbonate, the chloride of magnesium is readily prepared.

To extract, in the next place, the metallic magnesium, equivalent quantities, in solutions, of the chloride or magnesium obtained in any of the ways now indicated and of the chloride of potassium or sodium (M. Sonstadt, in the outset, at least, recommending the former, though the latter appears now to be employed in practice), are mixed, and the mixture evaporated to dryness, and fused at a red heat to expel the last remains of water; the fused mass is turned into shallow sheet-iron pans to cool, and after solidification is broken up into small pieces, and till wanted kept excluded from the air; finally, there is added to the fused chlorides [47.5 parts by weight of $MgCl$, with 74.5 of KCl , or 58.5 of $NaCl$] also an equivalent [23 parts] of metallic sodium, this being simply placed in one mass in the bottom of the iron crucible employed, and over it the other material; and an iron cover being carefully luted on, the crucible is heated for a length of time depending on its size, in a convenient furnace. The reaction begins at a dull red heat or below, and is speedily completed by the heat developed by the change within the material, when, to avoid loss of magnesium in vapor, the crucible must be quickly removed: the sodium has withdrawn the chlorine from its union with magnesium, leaving the metal free within the mass. Crucibles into which silica enters, owing to the fact that at the temperatures required in the process magnesium combines with the silicium, cannot be employed; nor can those of platinum, with which the metal forms an alloy. The contents of the crucibles, having been allowed to cool, are then removed in a block: on breaking this up, the crude magnesium is found in masses of various shape and size down to small grains. These are separated by simply mechanical means from the saline matrix, then washed with water, and dried gently at below $100^{\circ} C$.—*Technologiste*, Nov., 1864; vol. xxvi.

The fact that, melting at a bright-red heat, magnesium then speedily volatilizes, is availed

of for refining the crude metal, obtained in the manner now described. The magnesium is distilled in a crucible, a tube within which extends from near the lid down through the bottom into an iron box beneath the bars of the furnace, and which is kept cool. The crucible being filled to the mouth of the tube with the crude metal, and the lid carefully luted down, atmospheric air is expelled by injection of hydrogen. As the crucible becomes heated, magnesium rises in vapor and free from impurities, and descends through the upright tube into the box below, where, at the end of the operation, it is found as a conical pile of drippings. It can then be melted, and cast into ingots or other desired form. A second distillation, however, may be required.—*Artisan*, July 12, 1865; *Technologiste*, vol. xxv., p. 181.

The preparation of magnesium, by Sonstadt's process, is already being carried on by Messrs. Mellon & Co., at Salford, in the suburbs of Manchester, England. It is stated that the metal is being produced in considerable quantities, and that the price of the ordinary magnesium wire, some months previously as high as six cents the foot, is already reduced to at most but two cents. The preparation of the metal, and by the process named, has also been commenced recently by the "American Magnesium Company," of Boston. Statements met with are to the effect that at the former of the two manufactories named, the crude material used is the native carbonate of magnesia; while that adopted at the latter is the dolomite, or magnesian limestone, in which magnesium is present to the amount of thirteen or fourteen per cent. Faraday has stated that every ton of sea-water contains over two pounds of magnesium, in the form of chloride, so that the entire ocean must contain 160,000 cubic miles of magnesium, a quantity which would form a cubic block fifty-four miles on a side. As, in the process of manufacture above described, when through care no waste of sodium is allowed, every twenty-three pounds of that metal converted into chloride can release only twelve pounds of magnesium, it follows that the cheapening to be desired in the cost of this metal, as well as in that of aluminium and cadmium obtained through a like reaction, must, in an important degree, wait for and depend on a prior reduction in the cost of sodium.

Properties of Magnesium.—These are already so well understood that they need not here be stated in full. The metal, when yet untarnished, is of a bluish-white color, resembling silver, than which, however, it is said to be even more beautiful. While the specific gravity of aluminium is 2.56, that of magnesium is only 1.75; so that whilst the former has *one-fourth*, the latter has but *one-sixth* the density of silver (10.50); and an ounce of magnesium has accordingly six times the bulk of an ounce of silver. Exposed for some time to the atmosphere, the metal becomes covered with a thin coating of oxide, taking on

the appearance of tarnished zinc. Faraday states that the film of oxide, once formed over a mass of the metal, protects it from further action of the air. Unlike silver, magnesium is not at all attacked by sulphuretted hydrogen (sulphydric acid gas). The affinity of the metal at elevated temperatures for oxygen is, however, strong. When brought in contact even with water-vapor, in a tube heated over an alcohol lamp, it ignites, burning brilliantly, with disengagement of hydrogen. This observation was made recently by MM. Deville and Caron, who also find that the metal, cold, decomposes water in presence of the feeblest acids, even carbonic acid.

Thermic Equivalent of Magnesium.—This subject has been investigated by Dr. Thomas Woods, who states that his interest in the question arose not alone from the fact of the great amount of light yielded on combustion of magnesium, but also in view of researches made some years since by him on the amounts of heat produced by the combination with oxygen of several of the metals, and of the occurrence of those amounts in multiple proportions (*Philos. Magaz.*, Nov., 1852, and July, 1856). The general method adopted by him, is that described in the former of the two papers referred to—dissolving in dilute sulphuric acid, marking the rise of temperature of the fluid, and correcting the result by making the proper allowances for the heat absorbed in the decomposition of water, and that evolved by combination of the magnesia with the acid.

Combination of 4 grs. of zinc, or one equivalent, oxygen—1 (gr.), evolves heat sufficient to raise the temperature of 1,000 grains of water by $9^{\circ}.6$ F.; while combination of $1\frac{1}{2}$ grs. of magnesium, or one equivalent, O—1, suffices to raise the temperature of 1,000 grs. of water $19^{\circ}.2$ F. The latter, the greatest quantity of heat afforded by oxidation of an equivalent of any known substance, is thus also just *twice* that developed by oxidation of an equivalent quantity of zinc. Of potassium and sodium, hitherto the greatest heat-evolvers known, neither produces by oxidation of one equivalent a rise greater than $17^{\circ}.5$ F. in 1,000 grs. of water. The quantity of heat evolved by combination of magnesium with chlorine is, however, greater than is afforded even with oxygen. Dissolving a metal in chlorhydric acid, the acid is decomposed, chlorine uniting with the metal. Adding to the attendant rise of temperature the amount of heat proper to the decomposition, we get the heat actually generated by combination of the chlorine with the metal. And it results that one equivalent of magnesium, combining with one of chlorine, evolves heat enough to raise the temperature of 1,000 grains of water $25^{\circ}.2$ F.; while one equivalent of zinc in like circumstances heats so much water $11^{\circ}.25$; and one equivalent of potassium, $22^{\circ}.9$.

Qualities of the Magnesium Light.—Of the remarkable intensity of the light of burning magnesium—a wire only $\frac{1}{32}$ d (.012) of an inch

in thickness affording for the time as much light as seventy-four stearine candles—it has been offered in explanation that the great heat due to oxidation of the metal is also developed within a brief period and in a small mass of matter, so that it is in consequence greatly concentrated, and gives rise to light-undulations of corresponding rapidity (frequency) and force (amplitude); the effect of such conditions should be just such a light as the metal affords, namely, one which is much more highly than other artificial lights charged with the more refrangible rays—blue, violet, and chemical, or actinic,—and which is also very intense. Compared with other artificial lights, the lime-light is highly bluish; but it is stated that when on a white screen the lime and magnesium lights are thrown side by side, the former acquires by contrast a reddish hue. Dr. Woods' investigations (see above) attest the preëminent heat-yielding capacity of magnesium combinations. But the explanation of this great heat is next to be sought; and this too appears now to be supplied in M. Schröder van der Kolk's recent theory of a *conversion of energy* accompanying chemical actions (See CHEMISTRY, this volume); magnesia, chloride of magnesium, etc., must by this theory be regarded as compounds the energy proper to which is very greatly less than that representing the sum of the energies of the elements entering into them; the lost energy of the act of combination appearing as heat, which, under the usual conditions of the case, suffers almost immediately a further conversion in large degree into light and actinism. And in fact, it would appear to be through effect of the very conditions now considered, that all the valuable qualities of the magnesium light arise.

Thus, containing so large a proportion of the more refrangible rays, it is an *achromatic* or *white* light, being in this respect closely similar to sunlight. Hence, like the latter, and unlike gaslight, which changes most colors to the eye, and almost destroys some, it shows all colors and hues perfectly, that is, without darkening or other modification of them. Owing to the intensity of the light, also, it possesses great penetrating power, being visible to great distances; while its richness in chemical rays renders it admirably adapted to the purposes of photography, in the night and in caverns, etc., wherever in fact sunlight is not present, or its chemical power is insufficient. M. Schrötter has stated, indeed, that the spectrum of ultra-violet rays obtained from the light of burning magnesium is at least six times as long as its luminous portion; and M. Lallemand, agreeing with M. Schrötter, finds that under the influence of the magnesium light, as by sunlight, hydrogen and chlorine gases in mixture combine with explosion, an effect which does not take place in darkness, nor under the influence of the red or yellow rays. M. Chantard states also (January, 1865), that the magnesium light is well fitted to render phosphorescent

bodies luminous, a fact already availed of for an interesting lecture-room experiment. Thus, a series of wide tubes containing different phosphorescent substances, and all appearing white, are placed within a box [lined with black?]: upon throwing upon the tubes the magnesium light, each suddenly glows with its specific phosphorescent color.

The magnesium light has the advantage of being a portable one. The wire can even be carried in a coil in the pocket and lighted with a match, and the trouble involved in such case of portioning out the wire, at the rate of its consumption, may yet be obviated by the devising of very compact forms of the magnesium lamp. One among the greatest advantages of the new light for use in apartments, halls, etc., consists in the circumstance that the material burned disengages no gas or vapor of any sort. The only product of the combustion of a pure wire is, of course, the inert and harmless oxide, *magnesia*; but even this, escaping, it appears, in flocculent form, is said to form a dense white smoke, or rather cloud of ash, which has its inconveniences for certain situations. It has been proposed to force this smoke, or ash, by mechanical means, into dilute sulphuric acid; but the plan appears not as yet to have been carried out. With the exception of the possible diffusion of a dust of *magnesia* in the air of a room lighted by the metal, no agent deleterious to the health could be given off by the latter, and, in any case, nothing is emitted calculated to tarnish or injure articles of furniture or ornament.

Magnesium Lamps: Improved Forms of Material.—Since the discovery that the combustion is improved by flattening the magnesium wire into ribbon, the latter form is coming into general use. In the production of a magnesium lamp, a first essential is, some apparatus that will pay out the wire or ribbon at the precise rate of the combustion. Mr. Wm. Mather, of Salford, and Mr. F. W. Hart, of Kingsland, each produced a lamp in which the wire was delivered by hand from a reel, being then guided between rollers and through a tube, and, in order to avoid risk of extinction, into the flame of a spirit-lamp. To this arrangement, Mr. Alonzo Grant, of Nottingham, affixed clock-work to secure automatic delivery of the wire; and the apparatus, in this form, has proved tolerably successful.

A chief difficulty, in the early use of the light, arose from the risk of sudden extinction, due probably to some foreign material or flaw in the wire. With improvements in the preparation of both metal and wire, this difficulty has already been greatly reduced, a single wire sometimes burning without going out for half an hour. But the risks of extinction are very greatly lessened by using together two or three strands of ribbon or wire, one of these being likely, if occasion require, to relight the other. In this way the spirit-lamp may be dispensed with; and one of Mr. Grant's lamps, paying

out a double strand, has burned two hours without cessation.

Prof. Carlevaris, of Italy, has been investigating the production of the magnesium light, and experimenting with a view to secure the best form of the material. He declares that when magnesium wire is ignited in air or oxygen, the greatest luminous effect is not manifested until after a certain quantity of oxide has been formed and raised by the heat to an excessively high temperature. The most intense heat of the flame leaves the magnesian oxide still solid and unaffected, but the solid particles of oxide serve in the flame the same purpose—of evolving light—as do the carbon particles in the flames of ordinary lights, and platinum or lime in the oxy-hydrogen flame. To raise this oxide to the temperature necessary to give the greatest light, it should be presented to the flame in as small a quantity and as large a volume as possible. To this end, Carlevaris at first introduced into the oxy-hydrogen flame (or, better still, it appears, into that given by a jet of illuminating gas and atmospheric air with one-tenth oxygen), *magnesia*, and, in subsequent experiments, its carbonate; while, finally, he found the best effects from exposing to such flame a piece of the chloride of magnesium (and, as one account states,) in contact with a piece of carbon; the chloride is rapidly decomposed, furnishing the spongy oxide. In this way a light of still greater actinic power than that of metallic magnesium was obtained.

Applications of the Magnesium Light.—Some of these have already been incidentally alluded to. It is stated that the magnesium lamp is likely soon to become, in Paris and London, a regular article of furniture in every silk-merchant's show-room. In winter and foggy days, when the ordinary light fails to show delicate distinctions of color, and in the night, the magnesium light at once exhibits all hues as truly as a clear daylight. The same quality fits the light for the exhibition of colored photographs, and we may add, of course, for night exhibition in picture-galleries, and wherever it is desirable to present truthfully, by an artificial light, delicate and various hues of color.

Good photographic pictures have, in some instances, already been secured by the unaided magnesium light, and the latter has also been used to assist an imperfect chemical action of daylight. Prof. Piazzi Smyth early tested both the illuminating and the photographic powers of the light in the interior of the Egyptian pyramids, and in case of the former, at least, with astonishing success. More recently, the light has been applied to photographing sections of the interior of lead mines, in order to show the quantity of ore exposed and the different veins the miners are following. Capt. Bamber, R. N., of the island of Jersey, has been engaged in adapting the magnesium light to use in mines and tunnels, and for railways. By means of a spring, a train of wheels, and a governor, he supplies the ribbon to a burner within a small

box, the light being exhibited through a powerful lens, or "bull's eye." Burning the thinnest ribbon lately manufactured, the light sufficed for reading a watch at two hundred and fifty yards distance.

Capt. F. J. Bolton, inventor of the "flashing" system of signalling, with the lime light, and which the English Board of Trade is about to incorporate with the commercial code of signals, has very recently experimented with the magnesium light on board the Great Eastern, lying at the time about six miles from shore, off Shoeburyness. A lively conversation was held with the town, the signals from the latter being with the lime light. It is stated that the experiments made proved the magnesium light quite as effective for signalling on Capt. Bolton's plan as the lime light, whilst it is also much cheaper and more convenient. Thus the new light bids fair to come into use for shore and ships' signals, and perhaps to some extent for light-houses; and not only in these, but in other ways, it is likely to render important services in behalf of commerce and in time of war.

Other Applications of Magnesium.—In wire and in other forms, this metal has been suggested as a suitable material for certain purposes of decoration and of ornament, including to some extent ornamental articles of dress; though how well it will serve such purposes, under the ordinary conditions of use and exposure, can scarcely be decided except by actual trial. The considerable degree of strength possessed by good magnesium wire, in connection with its extreme lightness—scarcely heavier, in fact, than like-sized rods of heart of oak—has led to the suggestion of its use in telegraphing; and whether these anticipations be or be not justified by experience, there can be no doubt that many and important uses for a metal possessing qualities so peculiar will in time be ascertained.

M. Bultinck, of Ostend, has proposed the use of magnesium instead of zinc as the positive element of voltaic batteries; and he has determined the electromotive force of a couple composed of magnesium and silver to be three times that of one of copper and zinc. It is stated (*Mechanics' Magazine*) that, being confined to use of the wire, he constructed a galvanic chain; and that he found that this, moistened simply with water, produced all the effects of a "Pulvermacher's" chain moistened with a saline or acid solution.

In *Le Technologiste* for December, 1864, appears an article on the utilization of the chloride of magnesium in the chemical arts; as, for liberating chlorine in the preparation of bleaching salts, the resulting magnesia being subsequently useful for the revivification of peroxide of manganese after its decomposition in liberating the chlorine of chlorhydric acid, also for use in bleaching.

MAINE. The Legislature of Maine convened at Augusta on January 4, 1865, and was organized by the choice of Republican officers

in both branches. On the succeeding day Governor Cony was inaugurated, and delivered his message to the Legislature. Among the measures recommended by him, were the necessity of an organized State militia, the assumption by the United States of all the State debts incurred for the national defence, and the abrogation of the Reciprocity Treaty with Great Britain, which he alleged had proved detrimental to the lumber and agricultural interests of the State.

The funded debt of Maine on January 1, 1866, was \$5,164,500, as against \$699,500 on January 1, 1861, the increase, amounting to \$4,465,000, being due altogether to extraordinary expenses growing out of the war. The expenditures for war purposes since 1861 amount to \$7,357,572, of which the sum of \$4,578,636 was paid for bounties. The amount advanced by cities and towns for aid to families of soldiers to January 1, 1865, was \$1,599,586, which has been for the most part refunded by the State. To this is to be added the estimated sum of \$400,000 advanced in 1865, which was provided for by the tax bill of that year. Deducting \$320,000 refunded by the United States, the amount expended by the State for the support of the war, reaches \$7,037,572. Large claims for money expended in behalf of the National Government are still outstanding, and will be pressed for settlement at an early day. Beyond the above amounts, the cities and towns of the State are in debt not less than \$6,556,183 for bounties. The aggregate of expenditures by the people of Maine for the support of the national cause amounts to \$14,093,572, for which they owe about \$12,000,000. During 1865, bonds of the State to the amount of \$100,500 were purchased for the sinking fund, at from four to five per cent. discount. The total outlay of the State in 1865 was \$2,872,080, of which the sum of \$325,113 represented the entire cost of the civil department. The Legislature adopted the policy in that year of resorting to heavy taxation instead of loans for meeting the annual expenditures. The result was, that the credit of the State remained unimpaired, and \$1,000,000 borrowed in anticipation of the taxes was obtained on terms as favorable, within one or two per cent., as the United States 7.30 loan with its higher rate of interest and exemption from taxation. In accordance with a resolution of the Legislature of 1865, adopted before the conclusion of the war, the \$355,000 of scrip for soldiers' bounties, payable February 1, 1867, was issued in the course of the year. The State tax for 1866, it was estimated, would be reduced \$1,200,000, or about 50 per cent. as compared with 1865.

The troops furnished by Maine to the national forces during the late war comprised three regiments of cavalry, one regiment of heavy artillery, seven batteries of light artillery, thirty-one regiments of infantry, seven companies of sharpshooters, thirty companies of infantry mustered into regimental organizations, and seven com-

panies of coast guards. These, with the recruits constantly sent to reinforce the ranks in the field, and the naval enlistments, formed an aggregate of 71,558 men, being more than one-tenth the population of the State. At the commencement of 1866, there still remained in the service five regiments and one battalion of infantry. Of the numbers above given 8,446, nearly one-eighth of the whole force, perished either on the battle field or from wounds or disease; and 6,642 were mustered out for disabilities resulting from casualties occurring in service or from sickness. No measures have yet been taken by the Legislature to afford permanent State aid to soldiers disabled in the war, although the subject has been recommended to its attention by the Governor.

The political campaign for 1865 opened on August 10th with the meeting of the Republican Convention at Portland. Samuel Cony was renominated for Governor by an almost unanimous vote, and a series of resolutions were adopted, of which the most important were the following:

Resolved, That the citizens of Maine renew their emphatic endorsement of the principles and measures of the administration of Abraham Lincoln, who was stricken down by assassination, for his signal devotion to human freedom and the American Union, and that this Convention expresses its entire confidence in the honesty, integrity, and patriotism of President Andrew Johnson, believing him to be sincerely desirous of restoring the just rights of all parties, and in behalf of the Union citizens of Maine we pledge to him our cordial support in the great work of securing national restoration and equality of human rights and an enduring peace.

Resolved, That if, in attempting to reorganize any State and restore it to the Union, it should be found that the character of the people is such as to render them unsafe depositors of a free republican Government, it is the duty of the United States to hold such State under a provisional government until all its inhabitants shall furnish satisfactory evidence of loyalty and attachment to free State institutions, and a sincere disposition to secure all loyal persons in their States equal political rights.

Resolved, That in reorganizing the States lately in rebellion, it is the right as well as the duty of the national authorities to demand as a condition precedent to their resuming the exercise of their political power, that they shall ratify the Constitutional Amendment abolishing slavery, that they shall remove all the disabilities which, under that system, attach to another class on account of color, and secure to all loyal persons perfect equality before the law.

Resolved, That we earnestly endorse the sentiment of President Johnson that the American people must be taught, if they do not already understand, that treason is a crime and must be punished, and we believe that now is the time, if ever, when the law against treason should be enforced; that those who have controlled that treasonable organization lately known as the "Confederate civil and military government," have committed that crime under circumstances of the most aggravated atrocity, and that they should be made an example of, which shall in all coming time deter others from committing the like crime.

Resolved, That in administering the law of treason, principals in crime should be made the first and prominent objects of punishment; and until Jefferson Davis and other rebel chiefs are tried and punished, little good will be accomplished by trying and punishing the men who have been only their instruments.

Resolved, That the Constitution of the United States should be so amended as to secure equality and uniformity of the right of suffrage and representation of the several States in the National Congress.

Resolved, That the Emancipation Proclamation of President Lincoln, the enlistment and efficient service of more than 100,000 colored troops in the army of the United States, the good faith maintained by the whole race amidst treason and the most threatening dangers, the acts of Congress giving them pay and rank with white officers and soldiers, and the post of danger and honor assigned those troops in some of the most desperate battles fought against the rebels during the war, have pledged the national honor that these people shall be free in fact, as they are in name, and that there shall be conferred on them all the political rights of freemen, and that this great pledge, so officially and solemnly made by the Government, the people of these United States will redeem.

The following additional resolution was proposed, but rejected:

Resolved, That all tests, disabilities, and discriminations based on color or race are unjust, anti-republican, and pernicious, and ought to be prohibited by a constitutional amendment.

The Democratic Convention met at the same place on August 15th, and renominated for Governor Hon. James Howard, of Portland, who had been their candidate in the previous year. The following are the most important of the resolutions adopted:

Resolved, As within the scope of sound constitutional principles and to reestablish at the earliest practicable period, it is the duty of the Federal Government acting with as little executive and legislative interference as possible, to observe the true constitutional relations between itself and the revolted States, and to execute all legitimate power and influence to promote and perpetuate that universal harmony, fraternity, and unity, which are essential to the peace, happiness, and glory of the republic, now destined to be "one and indivisible" forever.

Resolved, That the Democracy of Maine do here reassert and declare their fundamental principles of action to be equal and exact justice to all men of whatever State or persuasion, religious or political; peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations; entangling alliances with none; the support of the State Governments in all their rights as the most competent administration of our domestic concerns and the honest bulwark against anti-republican tendencies; the preservation of the General Government in its whole constitutional vigor as the sheet anchor of our peace at home and our safety abroad; a jealous care of the right of election by the people; a mild and safe correction of abuses which are left by the sword of revolution; where peaceable remedies are unprovided, absolute acquiescence in the decisions of the majority—the vital principle of republics, from which there is no appeal but to force—the vital principle and immediate parent of despotism; a well-disciplined militia our best reliance in peace and in the first moment of war; the supremacy of the civil over the military authority.

Resolved, That the ballot is the right of every American citizen, to be restricted only by limitations as the public safety may require, and that the Constitution recognizes the right of the people of each State to prescribe the qualifications of electors, "a power the people of the separate States comprising the Federal Union have rightfully exercised from the origin of the Government to the present time."

Resolved, That the sums advanced by States, and by county and by municipal organizations, to aid in suppressing the rebellion, are a legitimate and equitable charge upon the Federal treasury, to be borne

by the whole country, and the Democracy of Maine are in favor of their payment by the General Government.

Resolved, That banishing all minor party considerations, and acting in the spirit of an enlarged and generous patriotism, we will cordially support President Johnson in the policy which he has avowed, and in all such constitutional measures as he may inaugurate to harmonize the country and restore and cement the Union of the States to enable the States late in revolt to put their Governments in practical operation.

Resolved, That we congratulate the whole country that among the first acts of President Johnson's administration we return to the better days of the Republic in his declaration to accept volunteered gratuities while holding office, and we regard it as a proof of integrity in marked contrast to the bribery and corruptions which have recently characterized and disgraced official station.

The election occurred on September 11th, with the following result:

Governor.	No. of Votes.
Samuel Cony, Republican.....	58,449
James Howard, Democrat.....	81,117
Majority for Cony	22,892

This did not include the soldiers' vote, which, it was estimated, would increase Cony's majority to 23,000.

The Legislature chosen at this election stood:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	81	186	167
Democrats.....	—	15	15
Republican majority,...	81	121	152

The Legislature of 1865 reelected Hon. W. P. Fessenden United States Senator for the term ending March 4, 1871.

MARS. This planet has of late been the object of much telescopic research, in which Airy, Dawes, and Lockyer have taken an important part, and of considerable discussion by these explorers, by Phillips, and others. It will be seen that much still remains uncertain in respect to the planet's geography (if we may so speak) and its meteorology; while to some extent the views held on these points by eminent observers are as yet contradictory.

Prof. Hennessey, before the British Association, 1864, treated upon the question of the amount of polar compression—i. e., the ellipticity—of Mars. He remarked that the physical characters of this planet have attracted much notice on account of its supposed resemblance to our own. If, however, the ellipticity were as great as claimed by some astronomers, the planet would in this particular present a marked contrast with the earth. Now, two eminent observers, Bessel and Johnson, had concluded that the polar flattening of Mars does not vary greatly from that of our globe. And a mathematical discussion by Hennessey himself of the conditions of equilibrium of a fluid like water—supposing such to exist on the planet—had shown that (for the rate of diurnal rotation possessed by Mars), if its ellipticity were as great as by many assumed, there should be an equatorial belt of dry land, while the poles should be enveloped in water. Without stating as yet a positive conclusion, he would say,

especially from an examination of Mr. Lockyer's drawings, that a predominance of equatorial land does not characterize the planet. If, then, there be oceans on its surface, it must be concluded that its ellipticity has been generally exaggerated. It may be added, that the general tendency of the most recent astronomical opinion is to the conclusion that the polar compression of Mars does not greatly exceed that of the earth.

At a meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society, March 10, 1865, Mr. J. Joynson read a paper on the "Opposition of Mars," accompanying it with drawings selected from a large number taken during the opposition in 1862 and that in 1864, and which were so arranged as to show the varying appearances of the planet's disc through one entire revolution, supposing the observer could watch them during the whole of such period. He stated that when Mars was observed in 1862 it was much ruddier to the naked eye than last year; and Mr. Huggins had in the course of the discussion previously remarked, that in August, 1864, the brilliancy of the spectrum of Mars was found to diminish in a remarkable manner at about the line F, a series of strong dark lines making their appearance from this point through to the violet end of the spectrum. This result may have been due to absorption by the dense atmosphere of Mars exerted upon light passing to and reflected from its surface, when that atmosphere was free from clouds. It was to such absorption that Mr. Joynson had long attributed the red color of the planet—*poetic*, "the red planet, Mars"—as seen by the naked eye, and Mr. Huggins also admitted that, when the atmosphere of Mars is freest from cloud and fog its light is most ruddy, while at the same time the permanent markings on its surface are most distinctly seen.

Mr. Dawes presented before the same society, at its June meeting, 1865, a paper on Mars. He argued, on the contrary, that the redness of the planet's light does not arise from any peculiarity in its atmosphere, instancing in proof the circumstance that the color is always deepest in the centre, where the depth of atmosphere traversed by the light is least. The exterior of the disc being whiter (from what cause not stated), the greenish tinge it shows may be an effect of contrast. He thought that usually Mars has not a very cloudy atmosphere.

Prof. John Phillips has, in the *Quarterly Journal of Science* for July, 1865, a very full and interesting discussion of the appearances of this planet. Its compression he thinks not greater than that of the earth, about $\frac{1}{11}$ part. The apparent (angular) diameter being 23", the compression would be but $\frac{1}{11}$ of a second, a quantity too small to be observed with certainty by any but the finest instruments. At the opposition in 1862, the south pole of Mars was visible, being tilted toward the ob-

server about $25\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. Around this pole was a coronet of apparently glittering snow. Lord Rosse had estimated the diameter of this snowed surface in July, three months before, at 1,000 miles; at the beginning of the opposition, in October, it did not exceed 560 miles; and it diminished continually during the two months of observation: thus, from *Martial* latitude 74° S., in July, the snow had receded to 8° S. in October, this pole having been all the time in sunshine. No appearance of snow was then seen about the north pole. In 1864 the opposition was later in our year by about seven weeks—at the end of November; the south pole was tilted toward the observer only about 6° , and the snow had been longer in sunshine. Only a small ellipse of snow could then, and that not invariably, be detected. But now there were sure indications of snows in two situations on the northern aspect of the planet. The appearance reached the latitude of about 50° , constituting an uninterrupted arctic zone in the latter part of the southern *Martial* summer, and toward the close of the northern winter. Fifty degrees of north latitude then free from great tracts of snow, would be a result fairly matching the average climate of our northern zones toward the end of February. Mr. de la Rue's drawings, April, 1856, showed northern and southern snow masses, the northern not then reaching the pole, which was toward the sun; and the equatorial interval between the two was 105° —a fact leading to the conclusion that the temperature is not much lower than that of the earth, upon which the interval may be taken at about 120° .

The surface of the planet, generally free from the appearance of snow, offers a great variety of distinct outline, which separates bright from dusky or shaded parts. In general, an undulated outline is traced along the inter-tropical regions, mostly south of the equator; from this a large tract of bright surface spreads toward the north, while south of it the surface is mostly greenish gray, or appears in half-lighted spaces. Calling the gray parts sea, and the bright land, it would follow that upon Mars water prevails in the southern and land in the northern hemisphere. The tint of the supposed land is that of a soft red, like the diffused air-tints of a hazy sunset, or that given by Indian red, faint. As seen in the observations of 1864, the larger masses of supposed land had the same color as when previously observed, though then more faint, in part at least, through increased distance; but the seas were at that time gray and shadowy, without the very distinct greenish hue noticed in 1862. In his opening address before the British Association, at the meeting of 1865, Professor Phillips, whose remarks in his previous papers would bear the interpretation that he considered the red color of the continental parts of Mars as due to some quality of the land itself, distinctly avowed the opinion already given as

that of Huggins and Joynson, declaring that "enough is ascertained to discountenance the notion of his redness being due to a peculiarity of the soil." In any case, the redness is, as a rule, hardly traceable over any part of the smaller and less distinctly bordered lands of the south. One broad dark surface appeared about the equator in longitude 20, communicating by an apparent channel (a long narrow strait, running N. E. and S. W.—DAWES), with the north polar region, which also presents for the most part apparently a water surface.

Are there, then, in fact, snows?—land?—water?—any thing, indeed, beyond effects of a vast and diversified stratum of cloud? The answer is: the facts go to show a distinct and steady melting away of snows. Then there must be water, and an atmosphere having aqueous vapor. Besides, the characteristic outlines noted upon the planet's surface are too permanent for cloud. Of land and water surfaces on the body of the planet, as one may see by looking from a high mountain on land and ocean, the water surfaces must appear the more obscure. Unlike the earth, Mars appears to have more land than water surface, the land being mostly collected in a broad band, including the intertropical spaces and the northern temperate region, while seas surround the poles, and cover a large proportion of the south temperate zone.

But how account for a climate on this more distant planet not greatly differing from that of our earth, when the mean quantity of sunshine reaching the former should by theory be only the $(\frac{1}{2})^2$ of that affecting the latter? Two suppositions present themselves: the flow of internal heat may be greater; or the waste of heat from the surface may be much less. In fact these two conditions may coexist: directly considered, the second is probably the more important in the case; and yet it appears requisite to suppose a greater communication of heat from the interior of the planet, in order to maintain in the atmosphere, and with the limited ocean-surface of Mars, the greater quantity of vapor, to the presence of which the retaining of the sun's heat should be due. For Prof. Tyndall has shown that an atmosphere charged with vapor is to its planet as the "clothing" or "jacket" to a steam cylinder; it keeps in the heat; and in case of an atmosphere holding vapor, the deeper and denser the stratum of the latter, the greater the effect. The vapor, while it admits freely the sun's radiant heat, possesses in proportion to its extent in height and the percentage of it present, a greater power of arresting the outflow into space both of the planet's central heat and that it receives from the sun. Possibly the atmosphere of Mars may be peculiar in quality; if so, spectrum analysis may yet indicate that fact. Many independent observations go to show that this planet's atmosphere is extensive, but also that it is not always loaded with clouds.

Finally, a determination of the true constitution of Mars will be likely to lead, though more slowly, to a knowledge of the physical peculiarities of the other planets; and, it may be added that, in his paper on Mars before the Royal Society, January, 1865, Prof. Phillips concluded that, upon the whole, we may perhaps be allowed to believe that Mars is habitable—the conclusion, as here put, of course implying, by beings constituted not very differently from ourselves.

MARYLAND. The General Assembly met on the 4th of January, and continued in session till the 24th of March. The most important bill passed was one in accordance with the first article of the new Constitution, which directed that the General Assembly should provide by law for a uniform registration of the names of voters in the State, which registration should be evidence of their qualification to vote at any election thereafter held, after which no person should vote unless his name appeared on the register. According to this law, the following classes were excluded from the right of suffrage:

- 1st. Persons who are not white male citizens of the United States.
- 2d. Persons who are not twenty-one years of age.
- 3d. Persons who have not resided one year in the State and six months in the county.
- 4th. Persons who have been in armed hostility to the United States, or in any manner in the service of the so-called Confederate States.
- 5th. Persons who have left the State of Maryland and gone within the military lines of the so-called Confederate States, with the intention to adhere thereto.
- 6th. Those persons who have given aid, comfort, countenance, or support to those engaged in armed hostility to the United States, or in any manner adhered to the enemies of the United States.

The persons included in the sixth class were defined by the fourth section of the Constitution to be:

- 1st. Those contributing to the enemies of the United States, or unlawfully sending within the lines of such enemies money, or goods, or letters, or information.
- 2d. Those who have disloyally held communication with the enemies of the United States.
- 3d. Those who have advised any person to enter the service of the said enemies, or aided any person so to enter.
- 4th. Those who may have by any open deed or word declared their adhesion to the cause of the enemies of the United States.
- 5th. Those persons who have declared a desire for the triumph of said enemies over the arms of the United States.

At a State convocation of registers of voters held at Baltimore for the purpose of securing concert of action throughout the State, the following list of questions to persons applying for registration, was agreed upon:

- 1st. What is your full and true name?
- 2d. Do you consider the oath just taken as legally and morally binding as if administered by a judge of the court or a justice of the peace?
- 3d. Are you perfectly aware that any false statements made in said oath, or false answers given to any question which may be propounded to you, renders you liable to indictment for perjury, and, if found guilty, to confinement in the penitentiary not less

than one nor more than eight years, and forever disqualifies you from voting or holding office, in addition to the moral turpitude and future punishment due for false swearing?

- 4th. What is your age?
- 5th. Where were you born?
- 6th. How long have you resided in this State, and in this county, city, ward, or district?
- 7th. If naturalized, where are your papers?
- 8th. Have you ever, since twenty-one years of age, been convicted of larceny or any infamous crime, and confined in the penitentiary and not pardoned out by the Governor?
- 9th. Have you at any time been in armed hostility to the United States or the lawful authorities thereof?
- 10th. Have you ever been in any manner in the service of the so-called "Confederate States of America"?
- 11th. Have you ever left this State and gone within the military lines of the so-called "Confederate States or armies" for the purpose of adhering to said States or armies?
- 12th. Have you ever given any aid, countenance, or support to those engaged in armed hostility to the United States or the so-called "Confederate States of America"?
- 13th. Have you ever, in any manner, adhered to the enemies of the United States or the so-called "Confederate States or armies"?
- 14th. Have you ever contributed money, goods, provisions, labor, or any such thing, to procure food, clothing, implements of war, or any such thing for the enemies of the United States or the so-called "Confederate States or armies"?
- 15th. Have you ever unlawfully sent within the lines of such enemies money, goods, letters, or information?
- 16th. Have you ever, in any manner, disloyally held communication with the enemies of the United States or the so-called "Confederate States or armies"?
- 17th. Have you ever advised any person to enter the service of the enemies of the United States, or the so-called "Confederate States or armies," or advised any one so to enter?
- 18th. Have you ever, by any open word or deed, declared your adhesion to the cause of the enemies of the United States or the so-called "Confederate States or armies"?
- 19th. Have you ever declared your desire for the triumph of said enemies over the armies of the United States?
- 20th. Have you ever been convicted of giving or receiving bribes in elections, or of voting illegally, or of using force, fraud, or violence to procure yourself or any one else nominated for an office?
- 21st. Have you ever deserted the military service of the United States and not returned to the same, or reported yourself to the proper authorities within the time prescribed by the proclamations of the President of the United States and the Governor of this State?
- 22d. Have you, on any occasion, expressed sympathy with the Government of the United States?
- 23d. Have you voted at every election held in the State of Maryland since 1861, and if not, state your reasons for not doing so?
- 25th. During the rebellion, when the armies were engaged in battle, did you wish the success of the armies of the United States, or those of the rebels?
- 26th. Have you, in taking this oath, or in answering any question propounded to you, held any mental reservation or used any evasion whatever?

The effect of the law was the disfranchisement of a very large number of citizens. It was claimed to be unconstitutional; much opposition was manifested toward it, and in some parts of the State resistance was threatened. It was asserted that by its operation the domi-

nant party in the State represented a minority of the aggregate population. At a meeting of the citizens of Howard County on the 26th of August, in favor of supporting the policy of President Johnson, Montgomery Blair, alluding to the registration law, said :

By the terms of that law three members of the dominant party constitute a tribunal in each election district, clothed with absolute power to disfranchise whom they please. Thus, a penalty which has heretofore been inflicted only upon persons convicted of infamous crimes, after a fair and open trial by a court and jury, may be imposed by a secret inquisition. That multitudes of good citizens, against whom no one would dare publicly to make any dishonorable charge, will thus be branded as felons, is most probable. Men who are earnest in a cause, even when disinterested, are apt to doubt the patriotism of zealous opponents. But when they have a selfish motive to heat their passions, toleration is almost impossible. But many of our registers are expectant candidates for the suffrages they are deciding upon. They are generally, too, the nominees of the county committees, who are made up for the most part of standing candidates of the party. Nothing but a strong public sentiment can prevent a partisan enforcement of such a law. I have been against it from the beginning for this reason. Exasperation against the rebellion affected most of those who voted for it, but it was instigated, I fear, by partisanship. It bears the stamp of a disfranchising spirit which existed before the rebellion, the leaders in which taught the rebels how to organize in secret to carry elections against the public will. In my opinion, there never was any justification for such a law, and certainly there is none now. The ostensible reason has passed with the rebellion, and the maxim that the law ought to cease with the reason for it applies in such a case undoubtedly.

To test the constitutionality of the law, the case of "Thomas Anderson vs. the Board of Registration of the fourth district of Montgomery County" was made up. Mr. Anderson appeared before the registers of the district and demanded that his name be registered as a legal voter, at the same time refusing to take the oath required by the State Constitution, and upon the registers declining to do so, applied to the Circuit Court of the county for a writ of mandamus to compel them. Judge Berry deciding that there were not sufficient grounds for the interposition of the court, dismissed the petition for a mandamus, and Mr. Anderson appealed. The case was fully argued by Attorney-General Randall, Mr. Williams, and Reverdy Johnson, before the Court of Appeals, which sustained the action of the registers; Chief Justice Bowie, and Judges Cochran, Weisel, and Goldsborough affirming the constitutionality of the law, and Judge Bartol dissenting from their opinion. Governor Swann, in his message of January 11, 1866, said :

The act passed for the registration of voters, in furtherance of the requirements of the Constitution, has been threatened, I regret to say, with resistance in some parts of the State, chiefly among those who, in the face of the decision of our highest judicial tribunal, persist in denying its constitutionality, and object to the oath of allegiance which it imposes. I trust and believe that such threats are confined to a very small class of our citizens. The intention of both the Constitution and the registry law, was

simply to protect the State against treason, and to show distrust of those who had been connected with it. Complaints have been made that abuses have arisen in the execution of this law, and that qualified voters as well as others have been arbitrarily disfranchised, upon frivolous and irrelevant issues, growing out of mistaken views of the purpose and meaning of that act. I am sure that the Legislature designed no more than that the provisions of the Constitution should be strictly complied with, without the remotest intention of interfering with any loyal citizen entitled to the right of suffrage. The law would have been less liable to abuse had it embodied the feature of appeal to some competent tribunal. The registration act was passed, as is well known, at a time when the ravages of civil war were desolating our State. Large numbers of our citizens, variously estimated at from ten to fifteen thousand, had left their homes, taken up arms against their State, and subscribed to the most stringent oath of allegiance to the so-called "Confederate States." I do not propose at this time to discuss events that have passed, further than to refer to the acts of the Union men of that day in their praiseworthy efforts to save their State from the threatened ruin which hovered over it. I would rather forget the past than reopen afresh these fruitful sources of irritation, which should now be permitted to sleep. If these acts were radical and ultra, much more so was the attempt to revolutionize the State and break up the Union. Maryland, surely, could not have disregarded the first duty of self-preservation. It has been alleged that the dominant party who now control the State represents a *minority* of her aggregate population. If it be so, it is the more to be regretted that so large a number of our citizens should so have identified themselves with the rebellion as to suffer the power which this minority controlled to pass into other hands. Small, however, as the minority may be, it cannot be denied that it is the fair and legitimate representative of whatever there is of loyalty among our people. They are the men to whom you are indebted for the safety of your State and the property which you now enjoy, and without whose uncompromising devotion to the Union Maryland would have been handed over to indiscriminate destruction.

The elective franchise is a function of the State. To confer or withhold it is the province of those who are entrusted with the formation of your organic law. Our citizens engaged in this rebellion have been received with kindness and toleration; they come back, however, to be dealt with as the people in their wisdom may deem most expedient. Threats of resistance to the Constitution and laws could hardly be expected to facilitate them in resuming the privileges of citizenship which they have deliberately abandoned. In the mean time, they have no just right, in any fair view of their existing relations, to complain of the hardships of a law which they have themselves deliberately provoked, and which intended no more than to place the government of the State, at a time of imminent danger, in the hands of its loyal defenders. Are they not the legitimate guardians and depositaries of its power?

The repeal of the registration act, in my judgment, will not materially benefit any class of voters who have been heretofore disfranchised under its provisions. The oath of allegiance prescribed by the Constitution makes it incumbent upon the judges of election to do substantially what the registers are required to do under a fair and proper interpretation of their powers. As the Executive of the State, I do not feel authorized to recommend a repudiation by the Legislature of the organic law of your State by any radical modification of the terms of the registration act. To alter or amend the Constitution, upon which this act rests, would require the sanction of the qualified voters of the State. The regular stated meeting of the General Assembly, under the Constitution, takes place in January next. The delegates

who will compose that body may be expected to represent the wishes of the people upon this subject, as the agitation now going forward will show its results in the ensuing fall elections. No other practical mode of dealing with this question occurs to my mind than by its reference to the representatives of the people who shall compose that body, who, coming fresh from their constituencies, will be prepared to reflect the public sentiment in any action which may be deemed prudent and advisable.

Among the other important bills passed by the Legislature were those allowing citizens in the army to vote; repealing nearly the whole of the "black code;" allowing the bankers of Maryland to accept the provisions of the national banking law, and providing for a uniform system of schools throughout the State. Many of the measures required by the new Constitution were not acted upon for want of time. A bill to provide for the general reassessment and valuation of property throughout the State was rejected in the Senate, after having passed the House by a large majority. A bill for the organization of the State militia was rejected, on the ground that its requirements would be too onerous upon the citizens. John A. J. Creswell was chosen Senator to fill the vacancy caused by the decease of Thomas H. Hicks.

There was received into the State treasury during the fiscal year ending September 30th, the sum of \$2,681,592. Of this amount, \$330,746 proceeded from a loan negotiated by the treasurer, and \$248,742 from the public school tax, leaving \$1,602,104 received from the ordinary sources of revenue, or \$110,013 less than the receipts from similar sources during the previous year. The disbursements during the fiscal year were \$3,125,566, principally for bounties to volunteers, interest on the public debt, and the expenses of the constitutional convention and the General Assembly. Certificates of indebtedness to the amount of \$56,525, issued on account of the Annapolis and Elkridge Railroad, were redeemed during the year. The balance in the treasury at the close of the fiscal year appears from the following statement:

Receipts from all sources.....	\$2,681,592 20
Balance in Treasury 30th Sept., 1864.....	876,899 88
	<hr/>
Disbursements.....	\$3,558,491 58
	3,125,565 58
	<hr/>
	\$432,926 00
Add amount to the credit of Free Schools Fund	43,778 84
Add amount to the credit of Sinking Fund ...	177,178 72
	<hr/>
Total balance in Treasury 30th Sept., 1865....	\$658,878 06

Deducting the balance to the credit of the "funds" and the public school tax from this amount, the balance in the treasury proper was only \$184,184. The sum paid during the fiscal year, on account of bounties to volunteers and others, was \$1,762,421, exceeding the amount realized from loans by \$931,675, and the amount from both loans and county tax, by \$666,878. The total amount paid for bounties by the State up to the end of the fiscal year was \$3,044,090; the amount raised from loans was \$1,356,930, and from the bounty tax \$480,496, leaving

\$1,226,663 to be paid from the revenue derived from other and ordinary sources. The assessed value of the real and personal property in the State liable to direct taxation was \$278,507,519, being a decrease from the assessment of 1864, of \$7,234,836, owing to the fact that all assessments on account of slaves were deducted from the tax-books. The following statement shows the assessed value of real and personal property, with the amount of the levy thereon, in Baltimore city and each county in the State:

	Assessed Value.	Levy
Allegany County.....	\$4,945,415 00	\$14,586 23
Anne Arundel County.....	6,890,105 00	19,170 31
Baltimore City.....	139,199,817 00	837,599 45
Baltimore County.....	21,105,468 00	63,816 40
Calvert County.....	1,990,156 00	5,760 47
Carroll County.....	10,256,074 00	30,763 22
Caroline County.....	2,096,549 00	6,229 65
Charles County.....	8,221,920 00	9,665 76
Cecil County.....	7,764,646 00	22,296 94
Dorchester County.....	4,664,463 00	13,993 39
Frederick County.....	21,819,529 00	63,958 59
Harford County.....	6,580,381 00	20,690 09
Howard County.....	8,868,740 00	11,591 22
Kent County.....	5,219,760 00	15,650 23
Montgomery County.....	4,972,061 00	14,916 18
Prince George's County.....	7,626,412 00	11,439 62
Queen Anne's County.....	5,843,441 00	16,060 32
Somerset County.....	5,211,967 00	15,685 67
St. Mary's County.....	2,602,162 00	7,806 46
Talbot County.....	4,965,938 00	14,597 51
Washington County.....	14,446,646 00	42,889 94
Worcester County.....	4,514,040 00	13,542 12
	<hr/>	
	\$278,507,519 00	\$334,052 94
Amount of Levy for State Tax, at 5 cents on \$100.....	\$139,258 76	
Amount of Levy for Bounty Tax, at 10 cents on \$100.....	273,507 52	
Amount of Levy for Public School, at 15 cents on \$100...	406,321 66	
		<hr/>
		\$334,083 94

Comptroller Jump, urging the necessity of a reassessment, says:

According to the general assessment made in 1852, the value of real and personal property was \$261,243,660, exhibiting an increase of \$49,667,825 when compared with the year immediately preceding, and of \$64,492,515, or nearly thirty-three per cent., when compared with the general assessment of 1841, only eleven years before.

When it is considered that more than thirteen years have elapsed since the assessment in 1852, and that the State has rapidly increased in population, wealth, and general prosperity, and that the assessment of the present year exceeds the general assessment of 1852 but in the sum of \$17,263,859, or less than seven per cent., it is not unreasonable to suppose that a new assessment would insure a taxable basis of at least \$350,000,000, notwithstanding the large investments by the people of the State in non-taxable Government securities.

If the result should prove the correctness of this estimate, a large increase of revenue will be secured to the general treasury and to the schools.

A reassessment is necessary, also, that the burdens of taxation may be equally distributed. In some portions of the State property has greatly enhanced in value, in others only to an inconsiderable extent. Many persons, too, regardless of the moral and political obligation to bear their just proportion of the taxes necessary for the support and good credit of the State, secrete their securities, and perhaps other property, when others, more honest, and the farmer, mechanic, and tradesman generally, are assessed to the full value of their estate. This in-

equality is a heavy grievance, and is aggravated by the lapse of time.

The available assets of the Maryland Penitentiary, according to its annual report, were \$6,269, and the entire debt \$5,019, leaving a surplus of \$1,250. The expenses for the year were \$68,091, the average number of prisoners having been 406, and the cost per head \$167.71. The highest number in confinement at any one time was 432, and the lowest 380. Of 50 prisoners pardoned during the year, 12 were undergoing imprisonment for assisting in the escape of slaves. There were received among the prisoners during the year an extraordinary number of colored women, boys, and men, for short terms.

From the first annual report of the "Baltimore Association for the Moral and Educational Improvement of the Colored People," it appears that on the 9th of January, 1865, the first free school was opened in Baltimore, and that since that time fifteen schools have been opened in different parts of the city, employing sixteen teachers, of whom thirteen were white and three colored. The average number of pupils in attendance was 1,206, and the total cost up to the time of the report \$3,878. Eighteen schools had also been started in the county and were in successful operation. The number of pupils in attendance was 1,110, at a cost to the association of only \$788, the balance of the expense being defrayed by the neighborhoods. The total receipts of the association were \$14,960, and the total expenditures \$13,492, leaving a balance in the hands of the treasurer on November 6th, of \$1,468. To aid in the maintenance of these schools and the establishment of others, it is recommended that a committee be appointed to memorialize the Legislature for an appropriation of \$20,000, or that the colored schools may be included in the general school system of the State.

The State colored convention held at Baltimore, on the 29th of December, passed resolutions to solicit aid to rebuild the seven colored churches burned in the State "by rebels and malicious persons," and if successful, to request the Baltimore Association to establish day and night schools therein. Resolutions in relation to the death of President Lincoln were also passed, including the following:

Be it resolved, That the exalted public and private character of the late President, his freedom from selfish ambition, his fear of God, his devotion to the eternal principles of liberty and justice, and the unsurpassed wisdom and magnanimity which he evinced in carrying out the principles of republican government, will cause his memory to be cherished with love and reverence by us as a people until the end of time.

An address to the "colored citizens of Maryland" was also agreed upon, containing the following advice:

Brethren and Fellow-Citizens: We, the delegates of the State of Maryland, in convention assembled, feel it to be our duty to address you on matters pertaining to our best interests. A very important pe-

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riod in our history has arrived. We have, by the votes of the loyal citizens of Maryland, been lifted from bondage to liberty, and thrown upon our own resources as men.

There are many things claiming our attention which heretofore we were unacquainted with, such as providing for ourselves and families, the education of our children, and other duties of life.

We would therefore advise you, 1st. To feel that you are free, and dependent upon yourselves for support.

2d. We advise you to become men of virtuous habits, disdaining to do any thing beneath the dignity of men.

3d. We advise you to be industrious in all the pursuits of life, purchase property and become men of wealth, owning the soil, for there is no class of men so independent as farmers.

4th. We advise you to educate your children, give them trades, and thereby qualify them for any position in life. For if ever we are raised to that elevated summit in life for which we are striving, it must be done by our individual exertion; no one can do it for us. It is no longer a question whether our race possess competency as soldiers; all we asked for was to give us a trial, and we have proven by many a hard-fought battle, and brilliant victory, that we were men of bravery. Now, we should show by frugality, that all we want is a chance, and we will become as good citizens as any are.

5th. We advise you to use every exertion to contradict the predictions of your enemies, which were uttered previous to the emancipation of the State—that if the slaves were freed they would become a pest to society, and paupers, dependent on public charities.

After instituting a "State league for the proper and perfect enforcement of the rights of the colored people of Maryland," the convention adjourned *sine die*.

Gov. Swann, in his message of January 11, 1866, on the subject of the laws relating to negroes, said:

The system of negro slavery having been abolished throughout the country, it becomes a duty that the status of the freedmen in Maryland should now be distinctly and clearly defined under our laws. From the origin of our State government slavery has been more or less interwoven with our whole domestic economy. The result has been that our statute books are burdened with laws—some long since obsolete, but unrepealed—and mostly all calculated to confuse and lead to embarrassment, in the action of our courts. The relations existing in the past between master and slave being dissolved, the entire system of laws relating to the colored population should be carefully revised by some competent authority, and such changes and modifications recommended as may lead to the adoption of a defined and uniform system for their protection and guidance in the future. In proclaiming freedom to the colored race, the State of Maryland designed to confer upon the negro something more than a mere nominal benefit—she intended freedom in all that relates to person and property. This would not be accomplished, if, after being made free by the provisions of your organic law, the freedmen are left without proper direction under a system of just and equitable laws, or denied the fullest protection in their new relation. There should be entire conformity between these laws and the principles recognized and proclaimed in your free Constitution. In connection with this recommendation, I should hope that steps may be taken, at an early day, to confer upon the freedman the privilege of testifying in our courts—a right which has already been conceded in some of our sister States of the South, and which is urged by the strongest considerations of justice and fair dealing.

I would recommend that authority be given to appoint a commissioner, whose duty it shall be to revise all laws relating to the former status of the negro, and report at the regular session of your Honorable Body in January next, such modifications or additions in the present code as may be suggested by the provisions of the new Constitution abolishing slavery, and the changed relation in which we stand toward the colored race.

With regard to the question of negro suffrage he added :

Maryland has no interest in negro suffrage, beyond the effect which it is calculated to produce upon the general interest and welfare of the country and the negro himself. Her policy is already settled by her new Constitution. To withhold from other States the same power which she has exercised, to deal with this and other subjects of a like character, appertaining to their domestic governments, would be to let go the most popular feature which has heretofore contributed to our bond of union.

The election in the Second Congressional district to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Edwin H. Webster, took place on the 7th of November, and resulted in the success of the Union candidate, John L. Thomas, by 4,677 votes, the Democratic candidate, William H. Kimmell, receiving only 950.

MASSACHUSETTS. The Legislature of this State convened at Boston on January 4th, and was organized by the choice of Republican officers in both branches ; and on the 6th Gov. Andrew delivered his annual message. Among the measures recommended to the attention of the Legislature were the abolishment of the death penalty, modifications of the law of marriage and divorce, and of the usury laws, and an amendment to the Federal Constitution repealing the inhibition duties on exports. The Legislature was also requested to ask the President to convene an extra session of Congress, in case the Thirty-eighth Congress should fail to adopt an amendment abolishing slavery. In conclusion, he intimated that this was the last time he should assume the duties of Chief Magistrate of the Commonwealth. The Legislature adjourned on the 17th of May, having passed two hundred and eighty-five bills and seventy-six resolves. The session was the longest since 1856.

The finances of the Commonwealth received a large share of attention from the Legislature, in view of the necessity of meeting the extraordinary liabilities incurred under the war. A "bounty fund" of ten millions, with interest at five per cent., payable in gold, had been created in 1864 ; but owing to the high premium on gold, which the State was obliged to purchase to meet the accruing interest, only a small part of the loan was put into the market, and the Treasurer of the State negotiated call loans to the amount needed at six per cent., which was one per cent. higher than the law allowed. To remedy these difficulties the Legislature of 1865 authorized a new loan of ten millions, at six per cent. interest, payable in currency, and raised the rate of interest on call loans to six per cent. Before the new currency loan could

be negotiated the overthrow of the rebellion so enhanced the value of United States securities that those of the State stood no chance in competition with them. An act was therefore passed late in the session of 1865 giving the Treasurer authority to borrow money, at such rate of interest as the Governor or Council might determine, until July, 1866, and authorizing a portion of the currency loan of ten millions to be issued, with interest in gold at five per cent. An act was also passed allowing a part of the loan of 1864 to be expressed in the sterling currency of Great Britain for more convenient sale abroad. To defray the current expenses of the State a tax of \$4,700,000 was assessed upon the cities and towns, and a single commissioner was appointed in place of the former Board of Commissioners, consisting of the Treasurer and Auditor.

The coast defences of the Commonwealth received some share of attention, and a resolution was adopted referring to Congress the importance of fortifying Provincetown and of constructing a military road from Orleans to the extremity of Cape Cod. The act passed in 1864 making militia duty compulsory was suspended, and a new act was passed authorizing the militia force to be composed entirely of volunteers, the infantry to consist of seventy companies, with artillery and cavalry in proportion. Provision was also made for a State census in 1865, and for a compilation of the industrial statistics of the Commonwealth, the same to be repeated once in ten years hereafter. An act was passed prohibiting a discrimination in the admission of colored people to theatres and other places of amusement, and a resolution that it is not "expedient or right in principle" to license the sale of intoxicating liquors. Committees were appointed to sit in the recess of the Legislature to consider the "financial condition of the Commonwealth," "what direction shall be given to the liberality of the State in behalf of invalid soldiers," and other matters. Early in the session the Hon. Henry Wilson was reelected a United States Senator for six years from March 4, 1865.

The funded and unfunded debt of Massachusetts on January 1, 1866, amounted in the aggregate to \$23,122,872, of which amount the portion which should be charged to the war account is \$15,108,437. The funded debt was \$19,131,435, of which \$6,574,435 should be set aside, as having accrued from loans to railroad corporations, secured by mortgages and collateral securities in addition to the sinking funds established for the redemption of the scrip. Of the residue, namely, \$12,557,000, all but \$450,000 is provided for by sinking funds, which are supposed to be ample for the payment of the debts for which they are pledged at maturity. Of the total funded debt the amount of \$7,170,000 will not mature until 1894, and this sum will be further increased by the issue of additional scrip for the bounty fund loan, authorized by the Legislature of 1864. This additional issue will

absorb or fund a large portion of the now outstanding temporary loan which has accrued in the payment of bounties. The remainder of the funded debt, amounting to \$11,961,435, will mature in smaller instalments, commencing with \$175,000 in 1866, and so on until 1894. The unfunded debt consists of temporary loans amounting to \$3,991,437, of which the sum of \$1,868,389 is payable on thirty days' notice, with interest at six per cent., and the residue of \$2,128,048 is payable on six or twelve months' notice, with interest at seven and three-tenths per cent. To meet this unfunded debt, there was in the State treasury on January 1, 1866, a balance of \$959,373.77, besides the sum of \$2,000,000 negotiated in the latter part of 1865 on account of the bounty fund loan, and a further sum of \$621,435.53 allowed on account of war claims and awaiting draft at Washington, making an aggregate of \$3,580,798.30. These funds would fall short of extinguishing the unfunded debt by \$410,638.70; but against this unliquidated balance there stands an unliquidated balance of war claims against the United States of \$989,107.89, the greater part of which, it is supposed, will be allowed.

The gross amount of receipts into the State treasury in 1865 was \$24,876,163.77, and the payments therefrom during the same period amounted to \$23,916,790, leaving a balance of \$959,373.77 on hand January 1, 1866. Of the total receipts the sum of \$7,268,669.96 accrued on account of ordinary revenue; and \$16,072,516.59 on account of trust and other funds, including deposit and temporary loans. Of the total payments there was disbursed, on account of expenses payable from the ordinary revenue, the sum of \$6,604,127.91, and on account of various funds \$17,312,662.09. Under the head of general expenses the principal items were:

Legislature.....	\$213,302
Public printing.....	64,818
Attorney-General's Department.....	174,468
Interest and premium on gold.....	195,410
Public charities.....	870,957
Reformatory and correctional purposes.....	216,092

The extraordinary or exceptional expenses included the greater part of the military expenses incurred, and the chief items were:

Quartermaster's and Ordnance Department.....	\$28,914
Surgeon-General's Department.....	12,612
Paymaster's Department.....	13,494
Agencies for sick and disabled soldiers.....	20,225
Coast defences.....	50,838
Arms and equipments.....	68,647
State militia.....	282,966
Bounties to volunteers.....	680,400
Monthly pay of volunteers.....	2,022,510
Home for discharged soldiers.....	16,000
Aid to families of volunteers.....	3,196,350
Interest, with premium on gold.....	1,172,211

The total military expenditures of the State in 1865 for other than purposes of an ordinary character, amounted to \$6,244,933, of which sum \$5,863,188.69 was in payment of bounties and other expenses growing out of the prosecution of the late war, and \$381,744.99 accrued in the maintenance of the military departments of the State, including the purchase

of uniforms, equipments, and other munitions for the use of the State militia. The aggregate amount of claims presented against the United States is \$3,501,766.50, of which \$1,994,814 has been reimbursed, \$621,435.53 is awaiting draft, and \$989,107.89 remains unadjusted. A final account, amounting to \$43,256.98, is yet to be presented, making the total outstanding claim of the State for advances to the General Government on account of the war amount to \$1,032,364.87.

The following table indicates the total receipts and expenditures of Massachusetts for the period embraced between January 1, 1861, and January 1, 1866:

Cash on hand January 1, 1861.....	\$154,941 58
Receipts in revenue during five years, 1861 to 1866.....	24,482,684 43
Receipts on account of sinking and other funds, loans, and other accounts.....	58,948,209 08
	<hr/>
	\$77,985,685 09
Total payments on account of ordinary expenses.....	22,041,317 29
Total payments on account of sinking and other funds, and other accounts.....	54,984,494 10
Cash on hand January 1, 1866.....	959,373 77
	<hr/>
	\$77,985,685 09

During these five years \$18,125,204.34 more were received into the State treasury than since the beginning of the present century to the year 1861, and the average payments of each year, amounting to \$15,895,262.26, were two millions more than the annual expenditure for ordinary purposes for the whole United States during the administration of John Quincy Adams.

The receipts of ordinary income for 1866 are estimated at \$1,400,000, and the ordinary expenses during the same period at \$1,875,000. To meet the extraordinary expenses of the year, including the reimbursement to the towns for aid furnished to families of volunteers in 1865, the further sum of \$2,700,000 will be required, making the aggregate expenses for the year amount to \$4,075,000, and leaving the sum of \$2,675,000 to be provided for.

The number of men furnished by Massachusetts to the army and navy during the late war (reckoning the nine months' men at one-fourth of their actual number, and reducing the naval recruits to the same term of three years) was 131,116. The actual number of men furnished by her for all arms and all terms, including seamen and marines, was 159,165, which is 10,610 more than are now to be found in the State between the ages of eighteen and forty-five. The whole number of colored troops was 6,039, and of foreign recruits 907; and the number of men furnished for different periods of service in the navy was 26,329. From a report of the Paymaster-General of the Commonwealth, brought down to December 31, 1865, it appears that the whole amount of State bounties paid from the beginning of the war to that date, was \$12,803,600. The total expenditure incurred by Massachusetts on ac-

count of the war, including only such expenses as have accrued under the direction and supervision of the several State departments, as authorized by legislative enactments, amounted to \$27,705,109; and, as far as can be ascertained at present, the expenses incurred by cities and towns for bounties and other military purposes, have been not less than this sum. The militia of the State at the close of the year comprised eighty-eight companies of infantry, six companies of cavalry, four batteries of light artillery, and two companies of cadets. In view of what he considered defects in the militia law of 1865, Gov. Andrew delayed the complete organization of the militia and the delivery of the uniforms prescribed by the act, until the Legislature could frame a better law.

At the close of 1865 only one bank of discount, organized on the old system, remained in Massachusetts; all the others had been converted into national banks. As one of the results of this change, the State Board of Bank Commissioners passed out of existence. The savings banks numbered on January 1, 1866, one hundred and two, having deposits amounting to nearly \$60,000,000, a sum exceeding by \$6,000,000 the combined capital of both classes of banks in 1851. The number of depositors in these banks amounted to nearly 300,000.

During 1865 the sum of \$1,940,000 was expended on public schools, exclusive of buildings and books, which exhibits a considerable gain over any previous year. All the municipalities of the State except twenty-two raised by taxation double the sum required by law as a condition of receiving a share of the income of the general school fund. The latter has now reached the maximum of \$2,000,000 fixed by the Legislature in 1864. It is estimated that the amount raised by taxation in 1866 will exceed the entire fund. Harvard University, which, since the adoption of the State Constitution, has been to a certain extent controlled by the Legislature, was, by an act passed in 1865, made an entirely independent institution. Her Board of Overseers, previously elected by the Legislature, are hereafter to be elected by the College Alumni.

The public charitable and correctional institutions of Massachusetts are under the control of a Board of State Charities, created by the Legislature in 1863. They report that for the year ending September 30, 1865, the average population of the State almshouses was 1,919, whose support cost in money drawn from the treasury \$152,500. During the same period, 1,702 paupers and lunatics, belonging to other communities, were removed from the Commonwealth by this Board. Since September 30, 1857, 1,400 paupers, including more than 1,000 lunatics, have in like manner been removed. These removals have cost about \$50,000, or \$3.50 for each person sent. To support those who remain has cost, for the eight years, in round numbers, \$1,100,000 for a constant average of 2,042 paupers, and \$680,000 for an

average of 550 lunatics. As the direct result of this action, no new pauper institution has been designed since 1857, and none appears likely to be required; the average number in the almshouses is less than ten years ago; and notwithstanding the increase of population, especially in that class whence State paupers are derived, the official returns indicate that their number has considerably decreased since 1855. The total expenditure for State paupers in three lunatic asylums, three State almshouses, and one general hospital, was \$270,000. The schools at Westboro' and Lancaster, and the Nautical School Ship, constituting the three juvenile reformatories of the State, maintained during the year 625 inmates, at a cost of \$100,900. The aggregate cost of all charities and reforms was half a million of dollars.

The following table exhibits the condition of the steam railroads of Massachusetts and their operations in 1865:

Capital stock.....	\$78,073,446
Capital paid in.....	65,365,433
Debt.....	25,068,218
Cost of roads and equipment.....	72,175,091
Total income in 1865.....	18,974,914
Working expenses.....	12,801,705
Net earnings.....	6,173,157
Interest paid.....	1,164,179
Amount of dividends paid.....	3,572,317
Surplus, November 30, 1865.....	5,562,486
Total length of rail (as single track) in miles.....	1,975
Tons of freight carried.....	5,277,588
Number of passengers carried.....	20,278,455
Number of passengers killed.....	21
Number of men employed, exclusive of those engaged in construction.....	7,977
Number of employes killed.....	26
Number of persons killed while walking or lying upon the track.....	45
Number of engines owned.....	471
Number of passenger cars.....	578
Number of merchandise cars.....	8,613

The number of passengers carried over all the roads in 1865 was 20,278,455, which was 2,072,032 more than in 1864. Of the fatal accidents to passengers, twenty-one in number, not one was caused through any negligence on the part of employes of the railroad companies. From the report of the Commissioners of the Troy and Greenfield Railroad and Hoosac Tunnel, work on both enterprises appear to be making satisfactory progress. The payments for the year were \$531,416, and the commissioners held a balance at the close of the year of \$12,491. Of the amount expended, \$241,600 was for the Deerfield dam and for buildings and machinery; \$235,542 for work on the tunnel; \$6,000 for commissioners' salaries; \$2,435 for surveys and estimates. The progress of tunnelling the Hoosac Mountain for the last six months has averaged forty-one feet, and for the last three months forty-seven feet per month, which is more by several feet than the estimate of the commissioners. A difficulty has been experienced in excavating the west end of the tunnel, in consequence of a great flow of water from a spring about ten feet below the grade, which for some time interrupted the work. This has been in a measure surmounted, and there is no reason to apprehend that the work will henceforth be materially delayed from any

similar cause. The amount appropriated by the Legislature for the enterprise, including \$800,000 granted in 1865, is \$3,000,000, and the total expenditures down to the commencement of 1866 were \$2,484,943. The commissioners feel confident that an outlay of about half a million of dollars per annum is all that is now required, and expect ere long greater results from such an expenditure than can at the present time be obtained. Much of the labor and expense has thus far been in the nature of preparation, looking to a period, now very near at hand, when the work will progress in a manner entirely satisfactory to the people of the Commonwealth. The commissioners give statistics of transportation between the East and West, to show the necessity for the completion of the tunnel and its road. The practicability of the tunnel having been doubted by many persons, a survey for a railroad around and over the Hoosac Mountain has been completed, and estimates made, by which it is computed that, instead of tunnelling the mountain, the State may relinquish the tunnel to the Troy and Greenfield Company, and proceed to build the new road for a much less amount of money than has already been sunk in the bore. It is said that the road over the mountain could be completed within a year. The plan contemplates going nearly to the top of the mountain, and then by switches making a detour of five miles.

The manufacture of paper is carried on to a greater extent in Massachusetts than in any other State. The following table shows the operations of her paper-mills for the year ending May 1, 1865:

Number of mills.....	77
Tons of stock consumed.....	84,165
Value of do.....	\$5,881,671
Tons of printing paper made.....	5,077
Value of do.....	\$1,922,526
Tons of wrapping paper made.....	4,202
Value of do.....	\$1,157,190
Reams of writing paper made.....	603,989
Value of do.....	\$2,581,004
Tons of other paper made.....	8,221
Value of do.....	\$3,897,501
Capital invested.....	\$3,875,800
Males employed.....	1,381
Females employed.....	1,923

The total value of the paper manufactured during the year was \$9,008,521.

With a view of repeopling the waters of the Connecticut and Merrimac Rivers with salmon, the taking of which was formerly a lucrative branch of industry, a commission was appointed in 1865 to investigate the matter of obstructions to the passage of fish up those rivers by the construction of dams and other artificial obstacles. The commissioners, in their report rendered at the close of the year, arrive at the conclusion that in order to restock the Connecticut and Merrimac with fish, fishways must be built, the pollution of the water prevented, salmon must be bred at the head of the rivers in New Hampshire, and the use of weirs and nets be forbidden in Connecticut. They think that the fishways would always more or less

seriously injure manufacturers. Under these conditions a moderate supply might reasonably be anticipated, but nothing like the primitive abundance.

Gov. Andrew having, in his inaugural address of 1865, called the attention of the Legislature to the excess of females over males in Massachusetts, amounting, according to the census of 1860, to 37,517, a special committee was appointed to consider that part of the address relating to the emigration of young women to the West. The report of the committee shows that there is abundance of occupation in the State for all females willing and having the capacity to work, and that during 1864 and the early part of 1865, the demand for female labor in the large manufacturing towns was always in advance of the supply, notwithstanding the introduction of large numbers of young women into the country from Europe. The committee accordingly discouraged any project for sending the surplus female population to such Western States as have an excess of males.

The registration report, showing the vital statistics of Massachusetts for the year 1863, was laid before the Legislature of 1865. The general statistics for 1863 were—30,814 children born alive, of whom 15,692 were males and 14,579 females; 10,873 couples married, and 27,751 persons died. Compared with the year 1862, the number of births was less by 1,961, and less than in 1861 by 5,181; the number of couples married was less by 141, and the number of deaths greater by 4,777, or 3,666 greater than in 1861. Compared with the annual average for the five preceding years, there was a decrease of 4,423 births, or 5,787 less than in 1860; a diminution of 405 marriages, or 1,529 less than in 1860, and an increase of 5,552 deaths. The natural increase to the population of the State, that is, the excess of births over deaths, was, therefore, 2,563, which is 6,738 less than in 1862, and 10,420 less than in the year 1861. Compared with the returns in 1860, before the breaking out of the war, there were 5,787 fewer births, 1,531 marriages, and 4,663 more deaths. Then the natural increase of population, the excess of births over deaths, was 12,988, and in 1863 it was only 2,563, with a probable increase of at least 25,000 inhabitants. It will be thus seen that the ordinary relation of births, marriages, and deaths, had become altogether deranged during those three years, in consequence, doubtless, of war influences. The number of deaths in the State in 1863 largely exceeded that of any previous year, as is shown in the following table:

	1862.	1862.	1861.	1860.	1859.
Deaths.....	27,751	22,092	24,085	22,068	20,976
Stillborn.....	908	974	1,017	1,062	789

This increase was of course owing to the war. The number of male largely exceeds the number of female deaths. In 1863 it was 109 males to 100 females, which is a very unusual excess for any country. Previous to 1860 the proportion had been about 100 males to 101 fe-

males. The average of the twelve years ending in 1863, was one death to 52 persons living. In 1863 it was one to 45 persons. The deaths in 1863 were distributed rather uniformly through the catalogue of diseases. There was, however, considerable increase of deaths from dysentery, diarrhoea, and diphtheria. The most fatal disease was consumption, which carried off 4,667 persons, being 898 more than in 1862. A general view of the geographical distribution of the more important classes of diseases shows that miasmatic diseases have a marked predominance in the interior counties. Diseases of the digestive organs and bowels are distributed over the State apparently with no geographical distinctions. For diseases of the respiratory organs the most fatal vicinity is Barnstable County, and next Nantucket and Dukes, Hampden, Plymouth, Essex, Berkshire, Bristol, Hampshire, Middlesex, Franklin, Worcester, Norfolk, Suffolk. While Suffolk County is more exposed to acute diseases of the lungs, in tubercular diseases it holds a more favorable position, the series being: Hampden, Franklin, Worcester, Norfolk, Hampshire, Barnstable, Middlesex, Suffolk, Nantucket and Dukes, Essex, Bristol, Plymouth. In developmental diseases, the county of Franklin stands at the head of exemptions, while Hampden, its neighbor, is least exempt. Compared with the number of inhabitants, there was one death in 1,636 in Barnstable, and one in 452 in Hampden, the average for the State being one in 794. In general, the sthenic diseases, characterized by inflammation or fever, prevail more in the interior and elevated lands than on the seaboard; while those of the asthenic type are found in largest proportion in the lowland counties.

The report of the Liquor Commissioner for 1865, shows that in most of the towns of the State supplied with liquors from the State agency, there has been more care manifested in the appointment of the agent and the regulation of the agencies than in former years. The amount of sales from September 30, 1864, to October 1, 1865, including analysis and charges for trucking and package, was \$239,714.25; commissions \$14,504.44; total \$254,218.69. The office and travelling expenses amounted to \$8,345.23, and the profits of the commissioner to \$6,159.21. A conflict has recently arisen between the liquor dealers and the State, on the question whether the former are not protected against prohibitory State legislation, by having taken out a license to sell under the internal revenue act of the United States. The Supreme Court of Massachusetts decided that they were not, and the question has been carried before the Supreme Court of the United States.

The annual political canvass commenced with the meeting of the Republican convention at Worcester, on September, 14th. Gov. Andrew having declined, after five years' service in the executive chair, to be again a candidate, the Hon. Alexander H. Bullock, late Speaker

of the House of Representatives, was nominated in his place. A special series of resolutions were unanimously adopted, declaring "that in the death of Richard Cobden, late a member of the British House of Commons, we feel that our country has lost one of its most earnest and devoted friends, and we mourn his loss as that of a great benefactor of the human race," expressing joy that he, having done so much in our great cause, had lived long enough to be assured of its certain and glorious triumph; and recognizing how much we owe to his co-adjutor, John Bright, who stood as a fearless friend of our country and its cause. Among the regular resolutions adopted were those expressing confidence in President Johnson, agreeing with him that treason is the greatest of crimes, and deserves condign punishment; and the following:

Resolved, That the entire pacification of the country and the restoration of order is an object of the first importance, and one which requires the exercise of the most deliberate and cautious wisdom, in order that there may be no necessity of retracing our steps; and we agree with the Republicans of Pennsylvania, who, in their recent State convention, declared that "the people lately in rebellion cannot be safely intrusted with the political rights which they forfeited by their treason, until they have proved their acceptance of the results of the war by incorporating them in constitutional provisions, and securing to all within their borders 'the inalienable right of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.'" And we call upon Congress, before whom must speedily come the whole question of reorganizing the Southern communities, to see to it that the loyal people, white or black, shall have the most perfect guarantees for safety before any final steps are taken toward the readmission of the revolted people of the South to their forfeited rights.

Resolved, That we stand by the pledge given by the convention which nominated Lincoln and Johnson in 1864, and will not only "maintain the acts and proclamations by which the Government in self-defence has aimed a death-blow at the gigantic evil" of slavery, but will continue to ask for such amendments of the Constitution as will prohibit the existence of that institution in every part of the country; that we claim that no slaveholding constitution, law, or custom broken up or placed at the mercy of the Government by the act of rebellion, shall be repaired or reinstated for the purpose or with the tendency of practically reenslaving the enfranchised blacks, and leaving loyal men under the control of rebel power. And we warn the people that the purpose and intent of the party which plunged the country into war in 1860 and declared it a failure in 1864, is to sacrifice all which has been secured to liberty by a four years' contest, by repudiating its former demands for universal suffrage, and all for the sake of place and power.

Resolved, That so long as any important political questions growing out of the war remain unadjusted, no part of the powers of the Government can be safely committed to any political party composed of Southern men who were lately rebels in arms and Northern men who in national convention, only a year ago, declared that "after four years of failure to restore the Union by the experiment of war, during which, under the pretence of military necessity, a war power higher than the Constitution, the Constitution itself has been disregarded in every part, and public and private right alike trodden down, and the material prosperity of the country essentially impaired, justice, humanity, liberty, and the public welfare demand that immediate efforts be

made for a cessation of hostilities." And further, resolved, that no confidence ought to be placed in the professions of an organization that declared the necessary protection of the polls from the assaults of ruffians and traitors to be "a shameful violation of the Constitution," which ought to be "held as revolutionary and resisted," and that now seeks to reinstate itself in power by nominating soldiers and provost marshals, and passing resolutions of confidence in a Republican administration.

Resolved, That we have no theories to promulgate in relation to the right of suffrage. But as a practical question we declare that so long as the grand issues of the day are the maintenance of the Government, the completed integrity of the Union, the preservation of the national credit and the national faith, and the extirpation of slavery, no test can be made or encouraged which will admit to the elective franchise rebel soldiers and traitorous politicians, and at the same time will exclude loyal men of equal intelligence, thousands of whom have borne arms and shed their blood in the nation's defence, and whose votes may be indispensable hereafter, as President Lincoln said, in his letter to Gov. Hahn, of Louisiana, "to keep the jewel of liberty in the family of freedom." Such tests cannot stand the scrutiny of the loyal American people. If incorporated into the new constitutions of the Southern States, Congress should rectify the abuse and maintain the public faith toward the freedmen, while it provides for the peace, solvency, and security of the country.

The Democratic committee met at Worcester, on September 28th, and nominated for Governor, Gen. Darius N. Couch. Among the resolutions adopted, were the following:

Resolved, That the people regard the subordination of military to civil rule, the restoration of the authority of the courts, with trial by jury, and of the writ of *habeas corpus*, an economical administration of the Government, and the recognition of the equality of the States, as essential to the peace and well-being of the nation; and all efforts to force any rule of suffrage upon any State against the will of the people thereof are subversive of the principles of our Government.

Resolved, That we recognize the obligations by which the whole resources of the country are pledged to the payment of the public debt; and that we believe the burden of the debt should be borne equally by all classes of the people, and the whole property of the country, real and personal, should be subject to all needful regulations; but we do not believe in a system of taxation which places the burden of the debt upon the shoulders of the producing classes.

Resolved, That in order that the public debt may more justly and easily be met, we earnestly desire the speedy restoration of all the States to their proper position in the Union, so that a standing army and its expense may be avoided, and the industry of the whole country have every advantage, and its wealth thereby be rapidly increased.

Resolved, That in the plan of President Johnson to restore the States lately in rebellion to their proper position in the Union, leaving each State to regulate the question of suffrage for itself, "a power the people of the several States comprising the Federal Union have rightly exercised from the origin of the Government to the present time," we recognize a just appreciation of the Constitutional relations of the several States to the Federal Government, and that enlarged statesmanship which looks to the permanent peace and happiness of a great people; and in the prosecution of that plan we pledge to him our vigorous and hearty support.

The election took place on November 6th, with the following result for Governor:

A. H. Bullock, Republican.....	69,912
D. N. Couch, Democrat.....	21,245
Majority for Bullock.....	48,667

The following was the result of the election for members of the Legislature:

	Senate.	House.	Joint ballot.
Republicans	89	221	260
Democrats	1	19	20
Republican majority,.....	88	202	240

An election was also held in the Sixth Congressional district to fill a vacancy occasioned by the resignation of D. W. Gooch, member elect of the Thirty-ninth Congress. Gen. N. P. Banks, Republican, was returned by 8,128 votes to 1,988 for Thomas J. Greenwood, Democrat.

McALLISTER, Hon. MATTHEW HALL, an American jurist and statesman, born in Savannah, Geo., November 26, 1800, died at San Francisco, Cal., December 19, 1865. He was educated at Princeton College, New Jersey, and bred to the law, in which profession for three generations members of his family have achieved distinction. In 1827 he received from President John Quincy Adams the appointment of United States District Attorney for the State of Georgia, at a time when energy and legal ability were requisite to adjust the threatened difficulties, on account of her Indian lands, between Georgia and the General Government. This post had been previously held by his father, under the appointment of General Washington. For many years Judge McAllister was a resident of Savannah, where he was distinguished as an able lawyer and an influential political leader; in the first capacity he evinced the generosity of his heart by invariably refusing to plead against the life of a fellow-creature, always preferring at a sacrifice to support the cause of the defence; and in the latter capacity as a politician, he was an unflinching advocate for the Union. When, in 1852, the attempt was made to engraft the doctrines of nullification upon the policy of the South, he boldly ranged himself with the defenders of the Union and the Constitution, and in the heated discussions of that period exhibited a breadth of knowledge, a logical power, and a fervid eloquence which soon marked him for a popular leader. He was for some years Mayor of Savannah, and in that capacity won for himself an honorable renown for his maintenance of the rights of the humble and lowly. Andrew Marshall, a slave, but a man of extraordinary talent, piety, and eloquence, was the pastor of a colored Baptist Church in the city, and as such was permitted by Mayor McAllister to exercise his calling, though prohibited by a local law from doing so, and his right to preach was defended by the Mayor before a civil tribunal with such effect that he was never subsequently molested. For these deeds of kindness the people of color in Savannah were accustomed for years to pray publicly for Mr. McAllister in their churches. At the age

of thirty-five he was one of the most prominent and influential members of the Legislature of Georgia, and subsequently, for five successive years, represented Savannah in the State Senate, during which time, in the face of a vigorous and persistent opposition, he effected a radical and most beneficial change in the judicial system of that State, by the establishment of the Court for the Correction of Errors. In 1845 he became the Democratic candidate for the governorship of Georgia, and, though his party were in a hopeless minority, such was his personal popularity that he was defeated only by a small vote, and, three years afterwards, represented his native State, as one of the delegates at large, in the National Democratic Convention which nominated General Cass for the Presidency. On the discovery of the mineral resources of the Pacific, Mr. McAllister, at the age of fifty, with a family consisting of a wife and six children, some of whom were still dependent upon his personal exertions, courageously abandoned professional and political preferment, to venture his fortunes amid the hardships and unparalleled energies of that distant coast.

In 1855 he received from President Franklin Pierce the appointment of United States Circuit Judge for the State of California. Titles and claims were in a chaotic state throughout that wealthy country. Mexican and English law conflicted at many points; the deeds and boundaries of estates were exposed to every variety of trespass and chicanery; mines of untold wealth, the stoppage of which for a single day involved thousands of dollars, were subject to his injunction and adjudication; and the industry and fortunes of innumerable families were dependent upon his firmness and legal ability. His record speaks for itself; his decisions were reaffirmed and sustained at Washington; and thus, much of the prosperity and happiness of California is due to the labors and honesty of Judge McAllister, the first United States Circuit Judge of the Pacific Coast. His opinions have been published by one of his sons. During his Judgeship there arose the noted struggle between the citizens of San Francisco and the State Courts; but when an appeal was made to his authority, and the Vigilance Committee had become exaggerated beyond the intention of its originators, and continued to exist alone through fear of the consequences from such a usurpation of authority, it was disbanded by the judicious firmness of Judge McAllister, who was courageously supported in his enforcement of respect for the United States authority, by Admiral Farragut, then Commander Farragut of the Navy Yard at Mare Island, California. Law and order were reestablished, and those who were violent against the action of Judge McAllister became his firm admirers.

Judge McAllister received from Columbia College, New York, the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws at the same time in which it

was conferred upon his brother-in-law, the late Dr. John W. Francis, of New York. During his residence in California he contributed largely toward the erection of a church edifice in San Francisco, as he had previously cooperated in the establishment of several churches in his native State. Failing health compelled him to resign his position as Circuit Judge in 1862, and from that time till his death he remained in private life. Of Judge McAllister's intellectual and moral qualities, it may be generally observed that he possessed in happy combination the shrewd practical sense, the keen analytical power, and the strong moral feeling which characterized his Scottish ancestry, and the fervid imagination and the chivalrous honor which grow out of aristocratic systems and ripen under tropical skies. His learning was both extensive and varied; his style, whether in speaking or in writing, clear and rich; and his language apt and precise. His manners were of the old school, so courtly and so gentle that they won for him affection and commanded for him respect. He was kind and generous to all with whom he came in contact; and young practitioners especially, who in their early struggles are often checked and wounded by the frosty patronage, the trampling jealousy, or the stern severity of their seniors, ever found in him a discriminating adviser and a sympathizing friend. His published works were few—fewer than they should have been, with his high intellectual power and his graceful and elegant style. A "Eulogy on President Jackson," and a volume of his legal opinions published by one of his sons, are the principal monuments which remain of his intellectual labors and his untiring mental industry.

McCARTEE, Rev. ROBERT, D. D., an American Presbyterian clergyman, born in the city of New York, September 30, 1791, died at Yonkers, N. Y., March 12, 1865. His family were of Scotch origin, and his father was a ruling elder in the Scots Presbyterian Church of which Dr. John M. Mason was the distinguished pastor. Young McCartee, after a very thorough course of preparation, entered Columbia College, and graduated in the class of 1808, and leaving college commenced the study of law, and was in due time admitted to the New York bar, where his intellectual and social qualities, his close application to legal studies, and his graceful eloquence, soon won him reputation, and would in a few years have given him a leading position among the profession. After two or three years of practice, however, having become a professor of religion, he felt called to give his talents and his life to the work of the ministry, and accordingly entered the Theological Seminary of the Associate Reformed Church in the city of New York, at the head of which was his pastor, the Rev. John M. Mason, D. D., then in the zenith of his great reputation. He was licensed to preach in April, 1816, and received calls from numerous

vacant churches to settle as their pastor. He finally accepted that of the Old Scots Church, in Spruce Street, Philadelphia. He entered upon his labors there in the autumn of 1816, but was not ordained and installed as pastor till May, 1817. Soon after his settlement he was married to Miss Jessie, eldest daughter of the celebrated Divie Bethune. His labors in connection with the Spruce Street Church were abundant and very successful. The church, which at his coming was weak in numbers was greatly increased and strengthened, and the congregation filled the house to overflowing. The prejudices of the older members were, however, very strong, and their adherence to old habits and forms so strenuous, that the young pastor found his position one of great discomfort, and he resigned his charge on the 31st of April, 1821. He had expected to remove to Baltimore on leaving Philadelphia, but receiving an urgent call from the Irish Presbyterian Church, then worshipping in Orange Street, New York, he accepted it, and was installed as its pastor in 1822. The church was at that time composed of only about thirty members, mostly emigrants from Ireland, and its house of worship was badly located, and in every respect unattractive. By his strenuous efforts and influence a valuable and pleasant site was obtained in Canal Street, on favorable terms, and a new edifice of ample dimensions erected upon it. Here Mr. McCartee soon gathered one of the largest congregations in the city, and in a few years had a communing membership numbering more than one thousand names. From being the feeblest society in New York, his church became one of the strongest and most influential in the Presbyterian denomination. To this church Dr. McCartee (he received the degree of D. D. from Columbia College in 1831) sustained quite other relations than those of the pastors of the city generally. While laboring constantly and indefatigably as preacher and pastor, he was also the adviser, the legal counsellor, and informally the magistrate of his congregation. The troubles, difficulties, and anxieties of even the humblest and most timid were freely unbosomed to him, and his counsel, sympathy, and wise decision, most heartily bestowed. The burden and responsibility of such a position in a congregation so large, forbade his indulgence in the pursuits of scholarship, or his devotion of any considerable time to belles-lettres studies for which he had a strong inclination, and eventually made such inroads upon his remarkably vigorous constitution as to compel him to seek, in 1836, a less laborious and exciting sphere of labor. In that year he became pastor of a small Presbyterian church at Port Carbon, Schuylkill County, Penn., where, in addition to other and more directly pastoral labors, he gave great attention to the intellectual improvement of the miners of that region, and organized a Lyceum of Natural History among them, to incite them to the study of

the sciences bearing on their own pursuits. In the spring of 1840, with renovated health, he accepted a call from the Presbyterian Church of Goshen, Orange County, N. Y., and again assumed his appropriate position as a leader and religious teacher. Here he had a long and vigorous contest, at first almost single-handed, against those whom he deemed as violating the law of the Sabbath. At first many of his old friends were alienated, but in the end he carried his point, and they acknowledged the justice and manliness of his course. In 1849 he removed to Newburgh, to become the pastor of the Union Presbyterian Church, and while residing there (in 1855) lost his excellent and devoted wife. In 1856 he was recalled to New York, to take charge of the Associate Reformed Church in Twenty-fifth Street, which was to be united with the Westminster Church in Twenty-second Street. This union was happily effected, the heavy debt which oppressed the church removed by his earnest efforts, and then, though with a mind still vigorous and active, but with his physical powers impaired by disease, he retired from pastoral duties in 1862, and removed to Yonkers, where the brief remainder of his days was passed.

McCLURE, ALEXANDER WILSON, D. D., a clergyman of the Reformed Dutch Church, and author, born in Boston, Mass., in 1808, died at Canonsburg, Pa., September 20, 1865. He studied in the Latin School of Boston, and at the age of fifteen years entered Yale College. After spending two years at New Haven, his relations were transferred to Amherst College, where he was graduated in 1827. During the last term of his senior year, there was a powerful revival of religion in college, of which he was a very marked subject. From this time forward he looked to the ministry with singleness of purpose, never taking into consideration any other pursuit in life. He immediately entered upon his theological studies at the Andover Theological Seminary, then conducted by Drs. Porter, Woods, and Stuart, whom he ever held in great honor. He graduated at Andover in 1830. After preaching at Malden, Mass., two years, he was ordained there in 1832. A powerful revival of religion during these two years saved that church from extinction. He continued pastor there eleven years, during which time there were many conversions, adding greatly to the strength of the church. After the dissolution of his pastoral relation to the Malden church, he became acting pastor of the Presbyterian church in St. Augustine, Florida. At that time there was a military post established there, embracing two hundred or three hundred soldiers, together with the general and his staff. He labored with great assiduity among the soldiers, as well as in a general way in the cause of temperance, until the officer in charge told him that the guard-house, which had been generally crowded with occupants, of late had little occasion to be used. He persevered in these labors with great benefit to

the community, under obstacles and discouragements that would almost have appalled any other man. From thence he returned to Boston, and soon after commenced the publication of the "Christian Observatory," which he edited more than three years. He assisted also three years in conducting the "Puritan Recorder," then edited by Dr. Parsons Cooke. About this time he was recalled to his own church in Malden, where he remained a few years, and was then installed over the Dutch Reformed church in Grand Street, Jersey City. He remained pastor of that church three years, and on his dismissal, at once entered upon the duties of Secretary of the American and Foreign Christian Union, in place of Rev. Dr. Baird, resigned. In the first year of his secretaryship he was appointed chaplain at Rome. At the anniversaries of the great benevolent societies in London and Paris, he represented his own society in public addresses. He spent much time in Paris in making arrangements and collecting subscriptions for erecting a chapel there. After his return to the United States he occupied himself very earnestly in measures to secure the erection of the Paris chapel. This object was happily effected after having been talked of in vain by good men for more than thirty years. The following spring, March, 1859, he was suddenly attacked by the asthma with great violence, at Rutland, Vermont, on a journey, which soon disabled him from active labors, and from which he never fully recovered. Dr. McClure published a large number of works during his ministry, among which are the following: A little tract called the "Life Boat," which had a wide circulation—it was called "An Allegory;" "Four Lectures on Ultra Universalism," three editions, two volumes of the "Lives of the Chief Fathers of New-England," in the series published by the Mass. S. S. Society, and "Translators Reviewed," giving a biographical sketch of each translator concerned in King James' version. This has been adopted by the Board of Publication of the Reformed Dutch Church. Dr. McClure was a man of extensive learning, a sound divine, and warm and faithful in his friendships.

MEDILL, Hon. WILLIAM, ex-Governor of Ohio, born in Newcastle County, Delaware, in 1805, died at Lancaster, Ohio, September 2, 1865. He received a thorough academical education, studied law, and having removed to Ohio, was admitted to the bar of that State in 1832. He was soon after elected to the State Legislature, and gained some distinction as one of the Democratic leaders; was twice elected Speaker, and was a Representative in Congress from that State from 1839 to 1843. Under the administration of President Polk he was appointed first Assistant Postmaster-General, and subsequently held the office of Commissioner of Indian Affairs, the duties of which position he discharged with great acceptability. When delegates were elected to the Constitutional

Convention, by which the present constitution of Ohio was framed, Mr. Medill was elected as one of the delegates from Fairfield County. Of the Constitutional Convention he was chosen the presiding officer, and he received the award of the members thereof as a presiding officer of rare excellence. At the first election under the present constitution he was elected Lieutenant-Governor by the Democratic party, and succeeded to the Governorship by reason of Gov. Wood having resigned the Governorship and accepted the consulship to Valparaiso. In October, 1853, Mr. Medill was elected Governor, and served out the term of his office. Under President Buchanan he held the position of Comptroller of the Treasury. The duties of every trust reposed in Mr. Medill were discharged with ability and strict fidelity. In his public and private relations he was a man of great purity of character. In his politics he was a Democrat, true and unflinching.

MEEK, Hon. ALEXANDER BEAUFORT, an eminent lawyer and author, born in South Carolina in 1814, died at Columbus, Miss., November 80, 1865. His father, a physician and clergyman of the Methodist Church, removed with his family to Alabama in 1819 and settled at Tuscaloosa. The son was graduated at the University of Alabama, and was admitted to the bar in 1835, where his logic, legal research, wit, and eloquence gave him at once a place in the front rank of his legal compeers. He served in 1836 in the Seminole war, and was soon after appointed Attorney-General of his State, which office he abandoned for an editorial position, as more in consonance with the literary bent of his mind. In 1842 he became Judge of the County Court of Tuscaloosa, and during his term of office published a useful "Digest" of the laws of the State. In 1845 he held the post of law clerk, in the office of the Solicitor of the Treasury at Washington, and in 1846 was appointed United States District Attorney for Southern Alabama, which post he held for four years, the next five being devoted to editorial duties, during which time he was elected, in 1855, to the State Legislature, where he originated and carried out the Free School system of the State. In 1854 he was appointed Judge of Probate for Mobile County, from which office he was ousted at the next election by the Know-Nothing party, who then held the reins of power in Mobile. In 1856 he was a Democratic Presidential Elector, and also in 1860, when he supported Mr. Breckinridge. In 1859 he was reelected to the Legislature, and chosen Speaker of that body, an office which he filled with a grace and dignity and thorough knowledge of parliamentary usages which can never be forgotten by his associates. For years prior to his death, however, his attention was mainly devoted to literary pursuits, and in 1855 he published "Red Eagle," an historic poem of the Creek war, which was soon followed by "Songs of the South," and "Romantic Passages in South-

western History," a prose volume for which his profound interest in the subject and the researches of early years furnished him abundant materials, which were clothed with all the beauties of his diction and the graces of his poetic pen. These works attained a widespread reputation at home and abroad, being highly lauded by the English press. His next undertaking was a "History of Alabama," for which he was arranging and compiling the abundant materials at his disposal, but unfortunately the hand of death prevented the completion of his greatest work, and the historic annals of his State have suffered an irreparable loss. The personal appearance of Judge Meek was very striking, and would arrest attention in any concourse. Rising to the commanding height of six feet four inches, he towered above the heads of common men, and it was a favorite jest among his friends that although "*Meek*, he was by no means lowly." His eyes were blue, his complexion florid, his forehead high and massive, features good, and when lit up by his genial smile, remarkably attractive. His conversational powers were brilliant, his fund of anecdote exhaustless, his wit free and flashing, and his knowledge of men and manners and literature thorough. Judge Meek was an accomplished, and skilful chess-player, and achieved much distinction in competition with some of the most eminent chess-players both in this country and in Europe.

METALS, SOME POINTS IN THE WORKING OF.
Iron of Remarkable Purity.—Dr. Stahlsehmidt has obtained with better success than other chemists the nitride of iron, by means of passing ammoniacal gas through a tube heated to dull redness, and containing the sublimed protochloride of that metal. Among the products of the reaction is the new nitride, NFe , which remains in the tube.

By decomposing with hydrogen the compound named, the author succeeded in separating iron in a state of very remarkable purity. He describes the metal in this condition as "of a silver-white color, extraordinarily ductile, and so soft that it may with ease be cut with a knife. It oxidizes in the air as readily as ordinary iron, and in moist air more readily. It possesses the property of condensing water on its surface when in contact with atmospheric air." Its specific gravity is as low as 6.03. It dissolves in acids without leaving the slightest residue; and it appears to be purer than any iron obtained by any other method.

Exceedingly Hard Iron.—Some years ago, M. Gaudin found that by heating iron, tolerably free from carbon, with a small quantity of boron and to a very high temperature, he obtained a product which could not be forged, but which possessed extraordinary hardness. He has now found that an equally hard iron may be produced by adding to ordinary cast-iron in fusion some phosphate of iron and peroxide of manganese. The product cannot be forged,

but it casts easily; and it is therefore applicable to the construction of such machines or parts of them as require extreme hardness, rather than tenacity. The metal so produced is, moreover, singularly sonorous; and M. Gaudin has proposed it as a material for bells.

Cast-Iron and Steel hardened with Tungsten.—M. Gaudin finds that a metal still harder than that just referred to, is produced by addition of tungsten to the materials for cast-iron. He states that, as a material for cutting rocks, this tungsten iron surpasses every thing previously known; and that crystals of it will cut glass as readily as the diamond.

A statement appears in the *Mechanics' Magazine*, September 8, 1865, to the effect that the tungsten steel so much talked of a few years since, and in the processes for which Mr. Mushet especially was largely interested (*see IRON and STEEL, CYCLOPEDIA*, 1863), proves to have no sufficient superiority in value to warrant its production. M. Le Guen, however, in a note to the French Academy, so late as November 7, 1864, reasserts as the result of his experiments that the addition of tungsten to steel, up to 2½ per cent., greatly increases its tenacity; though the effect is less when the iron is cemented with wood charcoal than when with coke.

In regard to the beneficial effects of the addition of tungsten to cast-iron, greater unanimity of opinion exists; and on this point M. Le Guen still maintains his former views. He states that results of experiments lately made at the Marine Foundry at Nevers go to show that cast-iron has its tenacity improved to the extent of about *one-sixth* by the addition of 2 per cent. of tungsten. As the metal itself has not been hitherto available in sufficient quantities, the addition is made in form of the mineral *wolfram*.

Economical Production of Metallic Tungsten.—Up to the present time, tungsten had been isolated only in small quantities, or in form of a highly infusible powder, or otherwise unsuitable for use. It is now stated that a Swedish metallurgist has discovered a method of reducing tungsten, by which he obtains it at once in the state of fusion, and that ingots of the pure metal, weighing several pounds, have been on exhibition at Stockholm. As obtained by the new process, tungsten does not cost more than a few shillings per pound. If really obtainable so cheaply, and providing also it can be worked, a metal of so great density, and which bears exposure to so intense heat without undergoing fusion, is almost sure to prove of very great value in certain of the arts. While the specific gravity of platinum is 21.5, and that of gold about 19.4, that of tungsten is not less than 17.5; so that this last takes rank among the heaviest known metals.

Iron from Titaniferous Ores.—The metal recently obtained at West Bromwich and elsewhere, England, by the smelting of a titaniferous iron-sand brought from New Zealand, is spoken of as an "almost unprecedentedly fine quality of

iron." It can be puddled in one-half the time commonly occupied, and the loss is no more than one-fourth that usually taking place. The good qualities of the iron so obtained are owing to its freedom from both sulphur and phosphorus, as well as to its containing titanium. This iron is said completely to resist the action of chlorhydric acid.

It being admitted that a small quantity of titanium improves both iron and steel, attention is beginning to be directed toward the titaniferous iron, or "ilmenite," existing in so vast quantities in Sweden, Norway, Russia, Canada, and elsewhere, and which, while it is to be had much more cheaply than the iron-sand, holds forty per cent. of an oxide of titanium against but from nine to thirteen per cent. in the latter. There are difficulties in the way of smelting an ore containing so much titanium, but it is proposed to mix the titaniferous, in small proportions, with the ordinary ores.—*Mechanics' Magazine*, September, 1865.

Gases contained in Molten Iron and Steel.—It has long been known that a disengagement of combustible gases often, if not always, occurs at the moment of pouring molten iron or steel into the moulds. This had been supposed due to the decomposition of the moisture contained in the sand of the mould; but M. Cailletet, in a note to the Academy of Sciences, November 13, 1865, presents facts which disprove such supposition. His experiments leave no doubt that combustible gases are liberated from molten iron during its cooling, and when the iron has not come in contact with sand or other body containing moisture; and those gases he finds to consist mainly of carbonic oxide and hydrogen.

The author succeeded best in his experiments by use of a conical vessel, without bottom, but having attached to its upper part an apparatus for collecting the gases. This vessel, previously heated to redness to free it of moisture, is then plunged down into the molten metal; and, its temperature being still lower than that of such mass, a portion of the latter entering its interior rapidly cools there, and in so doing evolves in all cases the gases which have been named. With these is always mixed some nitrogen, coming in part or wholly from air in the apparatus.

In case of an English gray cast-iron, smelted with coke, the gases obtained consisted, in 100 parts, of carbonic oxide 57.9, hydrogen 33.7, and nitrogen 8.4; and in case of French iron, smelted with charcoal, of carbonic oxide 49.2, hydrogen 33.6, and nitrogen 12.2. M. Cailletet could not succeed in collecting, by the same method, the gases evolved by molten steel, the temperature being so high as instantly to liquefy the vessel used. Collecting those gases, however, by another method, he found them to consist, in like manner, chiefly of carbonic oxide and hydrogen.—*Mechanics' Magazine*, December 15, 1865.

Reduction of Certain Metals by Zinc.—M.

Poumerède has employed the vapor of zinc as a reducing agent, and by use of it has obtained a number of interesting products. By this means, for example, he has procured in metallic form some of the more difficultly reducible of the heavy metals, as chromium, cobalt, nickel, and manganese, and with ease especially from their chlorides or fluorides. M. Peligot exhibited to the Academy of Sciences, March 28, 1864, specimens of nickel and cobalt thus prepared, and also magnificent crystals of iron.

New Smelting Furnace for Copper, etc.—Gen. Raschette, director of the works of Prince Demidoff, in view of the fact that, in the ordinary furnaces with a circular interior, the ores, metals, combustible matters, etc., descend less rapidly about the sides than in the middle—an inconvenience which several engineers have proposed to remedy by making the cavity elliptical—has adopted, instead, the oblong form. He makes the throat quite large, and the height of the furnace moderate, that for working of copper ores being thirteen feet. The fire is placed in the foundations, and two rows of blast-pipes, alternating upon the two long faces of the interior, throw in the blast. Three furnaces of this sort are in operation in the department of the Ural, one being at Perm. Great economy of fuel appears thus to be secured, whilst the slag contains little copper, and the furnaces last longer than the old ones of prismatic form. M. Raschette is, however, probably too sanguine in supposing, as it appears he does, that his form of furnace is the best for all possible ores, and for the extraction of all metals—iron, copper, gold, silver, lead, tin, zinc, platinum, etc.

Utilization of Copper Smoke.—During the last fifty years, several attempts have been made in England, and it appears also on the Continent, to abate the nuisance of the copper smoke given off from the works in which the ores of that metal are calcined, and that by means of utilizing the chief deleterious products—the sulphurous gases, including mainly sulphurous acid—resulting from the sulphur of the ore; but, up to a recent period, these attempts had all proved ineffectual. The smoke from the great copper-smelting establishments of Swansea has for years had the effect of destroying vegetation for many miles over the country around; and the copper-smelters of that district have been in the habit of paying large sums as compensation for the damage thus done.

The roasting of the ores has hitherto been performed either in kilns, grate-furnaces, or muffles. In the first case, the stamped ores are previously mixed with clay or loam, formed into balls and dried. When muffles are used, the pounded pyrites is spread on plates of fire-clay, and requires to be kept continually stirred, to expose fresh surfaces to the air. It appears that no method proposed in connection with these processes has yet practically served the desired purposes of abstracting from the fur-

nace smoke the sulphurous gases, and securing economically their conversion into sulphuric acid.

Messrs. Vivian and Sons, the eminent copper-smelters of Swansea, have of late years been making earnest attempts toward the utilization of the sulphurous gases of the smoke from their works. To this end they have, during the year 1865, examined the new furnace invented by M. Gerstenhöfer, a German chemist, and have purchased his patent for the sum of £4,000. Near the close of the year Mr. Thomas Bell brought forward another invention for the purpose, which excited some interest; and the same firm has invited him to test the practical working of his method. Mr. Peter Spence, who is at the head of the Pendleton Alum Works, probably the largest of the kind in the world, has meanwhile had in operation during three years past a form of copper-ore calcining furnace, devised by him with a view to the utilization of the copper smoke, and for which he claims, over M. Gerstenhöfer's, the merit at least that it does not necessitate a previous pulverizing of the ores.

The value of the sulphur wasted in the copper smoke at Swansea alone has been estimated at £250,000 per annum. But Mr. Spence, taking the amount of ores there worked at about 5,000 tons weekly, and the proportion of sulphur in them as averaging 24 to 28 per cent., finds this equivalent to 3,800 tons weekly of brown oil of vitriol, and to a yearly value, at present prices, of more than £500,000. The quantity of acid named would go far toward meeting the requirements of the staple commercial manufactures of the country, and at a time when so many parts of the world are being ransacked for ores of sulphur. It is now confidently expected that, by means of Spence's or of some other form of smoke-collecting furnace, the sulphur hitherto worse than wasted at the copper works, will hereafter be made to yield to the smelters instead a handsome return in profits.

Spence's Copper-Ore Calcining Furnace.—This furnace is of about fifty feet length from end to end, consisting of two chambers one above the other, separated by a thin partition of fire-brick, and between which no communication exists. The lower chamber, having the fire-place at one end, and opening at the other into the chimney, alone contains and discharges the products of combustion. In each side of the upper or ore-chamber are six apertures, respectively about eight feet apart, through which the workmen can, at the proper intervals, move the ores forward from the less to the more highly heated end of the chamber, these apertures being ordinarily closed with doors. An opening at one end of this chamber also admits continually, while the furnace is in action, a current of air; and this, taking up in its course, the sulphurous and other gases disengaged during calcining by the ores, escapes loaded with these at the opposite end into

sulphuric-acid chambers. Fresh batches of ore, about 1,000 lbs. weight, are introduced every two hours at the end of the ore-chamber farthest from the fire-place (and so the less heated), and are evenly spread out on its floor; and, after the first one or more charges have been put in, these are, of course, just previously raked forward eight feet each, to make room for the new one; the doors are then closed, and the whole is left undisturbed until the time again for a new charge. The first batch put in is withdrawn at the end of twelve hours; and thereafter one is withdrawn and one introduced at the end of every two hours. The action of the furnace is thus unintermitting, and it calcines about six tons of ore in each twenty-four hours. The ores being exposed in their transit to a gradually increasing temperature, clotting is entirely prevented; and their sulphur, combining with oxygen, forms sulphurous acid, to be subsequently converted into sulphuric in the proper chambers and in the usual way.

Mr. Spence states the cost of calcining by his furnace at only 2s. 1½d. per statute ton of ore, which is less than the cost of calcining by the furnaces generally in use; while, further, for every five tons of ore calcined, £9 worth of oil of vitriol is obtained, at a cost of not more than £1, and from constituents which the ordinary furnaces turn to no account. For the three years during which this furnace has been in use, all the sulphuric acid used at Mr. Spence's works, whether at Pendleton or at Goole, have been produced through its agency.—*Mech. Magazine*, October 13, 1865.

Gerstenhöfer's Copper Furnace.—This consists of a rectangular vertical chamber, constructed of fire-brick, and having within it, from above downward, a succession of flat horizontal bars or bearers of the same material, and so arranged that those in any one series do not stand directly over those of the next. The ore, previously finely divided, is admitted in regulated supply between feed-rollers, situated within the roof of the furnace and a little above the uppermost row of bars; and first piling up on these, it gradually flows over and descends upon those below, until, by the time it escapes at the bottom of the furnace, it is supposed to have parted with all its sulphur. Below all the bars is an open space in which a grate of ignited wood or charcoal is kept well supplied till the charge in the furnace is thoroughly fired, but is then withdrawn—the sulphur of the ore afterwards keeping up the combustion. Just above the upper bars are channels in the sides of the furnace, through which escapes the air of the blast or draught—continually thrown in from below—and bearing with it the products of combustion, first, into a chamber in which it deposits the dust from the ores and also arsenious acid, and then into the usual sulphuric-acid chambers. The regulated current of air mechanically thrown in to form the draught, is previously conducted in pipes about the exit channels, and economizes much of the heat of the escap-

ing blast, by taking it up and returning it again into the furnace. The calcined ore falls at last into a space below, from which it can be drawn off into wagons, to be transferred to the next operation.

Among the advantages claimed by the inventor for this furnace, are: the large and continually-renewed surfaces exposed by the finely-divided ore; perfect contact of the draught throughout with the ore; regulation of the supply of ore as required; *do.* of the supply of air, both in reference to the amount of ore, and also for obviating the effect of storms; and finally, the economizing of waste heat of the blast. It has been questioned whether the cost of pulverizing, of the blast, and of the necessary attention, may not exceed the value of the acid obtained. M. Gerstenhöfer states, however, that at the Royal Saxon Sulphuric-Acid Works this furnace is now exclusively employed for the roasting of the pyrites used, and with success.—*Mech. Magazine*, October 8, 1865, etc.

Saving from Slag of Copper Furnaces.—Mr. Spence finds, that besides the loss of sulphur at the Swansea and other copper works, there has been at the former—in respect to which he has made examination—a rejection of much copper, the slag here containing rarely less than 0.5 per cent. of the metal. He has patented the use of a flux which saves a considerable portion of this copper, the flux being simply the spent shale of the alum manufacture—the residue of the shale of the coal-measures, after the latter has been acted on by sulphuric acid for the production of alum.

Non-metallic Impurities of Refined Copper.—Obviously, metallic impurities in copper must exert considerable influence on the quality of the metal; but of these analysis can already detect the smallest traces. Prof. F. A. Abel (London Chem. Society, March 8, 1864) states that of non-metallic elements oxygen is very generally present, and that it is known to have a marked effect on the quality of the copper containing it. Copper being highly oxidable, and its suboxide to a considerable extent soluble in the fused metal, the latter, as prepared by the ordinary metallurgical processes, can scarcely be free from oxygen.

The author had found the process of ascertaining the quantity of oxygen, by reduction with hydrogen, untrustworthy. He proposes a new one, in which it is only necessary to convert a known weight of copper into its nitrate, by digesting it in an aqueous solution of neutral nitrate of silver: along with reduced silver and soluble nitrate of copper, there is obtained also a quantity of insoluble basic nitrate of copper, and which is proportional to the amount of suboxide that had been present in the metal. The author gives a mode of treating the products obtained with sulphuric acid—the account being too long for insertion in this place—and through which the proportion of suboxide in any sample becomes known.

Kapunda copper, a very pure and free arti-

cle, invariably showed some deterioration from oxygen contained in it, and in amount varying from .12 to .33 of 1 per cent. By prolonged fusion of ordinary copper in a closed crucible, under a layer of charcoal, and allowing the metal to cool out of contact of air, Prof. Abel prepared a copper wholly free of oxygen; and the metal in this condition possessed remarkable toughness. Samples of “dry” copper showed .42 to .50 of 1 per cent of oxygen, corresponding to 4.5 per cent. of suboxide. Prof. Abel treats also of carbon, selenium, and sulphur, as impurities in copper, but of which the amounts are very small.—*Chemical News*, March 12, 1864.

Coppering of Cast-Iron.—M. Dullo presents in *Le Technologiste*, May, 1865, a method of coppering articles of cast-iron, which (as he states) serves to avoid the imperfections and sometimes even failure liable to follow the ordinary processes in case of that metal, while it is easy of practice, and affords with every sort of cast-iron excellent results.

The piece to be coppered is first scoured with chlorhydric acid, with very particular care, freeing it of all oxide, and not touching it afterward with the fingers; and it is then left in slightly acidulated water until the moment of transferring it to the coppering bath. This bath is prepared by dissolving the oxide of copper in chlorhydric acid, in the proportions of 25 grammes (about $\frac{7}{8}$ oz. avoirdupois) of the oxide to 170 grammes (nearly 6 oz. by weight) of the acid, and for every such quantity adding 1 litre (1.76 pints) of a mixture, in equal parts of alcohol and water. The piece of iron, still wet, is plunged in this bath; and after the lapse of some hours it will be found quite equally covered with a thick and strongly adhering layer of copper. If the acid of the bath be either too much concentrated or too dilute, the coppering will not succeed, the iron becoming covered with crystals of chloride of copper, or the deposit of the metal occurring speedily but in a thin film only. Alcohol, a poor conductor of electricity, affords the means of enfeebling at will the galvanic action in the bath in which, generally, certain metals are to be coated with certain others; so that, up to a certain limit, an increased proportion of alcohol in the mixture retards the deposition and favors an increase of thickness in the coating; though it is not well to dispense with water altogether.

An inconvenience sometimes attending the above process is the deposit, over a thin layer of the copper, of a layer of its chloride, which requires some time to give place to the metal; where haste is important, it may be necessary to remove the piece from the bath, and, with the same precautions as before, to wash it alternately, twice in succession, first with dilute chlorhydric acid and then with soda lye, finally drying in a dry place. Objects coated as above described can be covered again with a coating of iron nearly as white as silver and of

fine appearance, by plunging them in a solution of 10 grammes of chloride of iron in half a litre of alcohol at 60° C., and in contact with metallic zinc.

New Processes for Covering Metals with an Adherent and Brilliant Coating of other Metals.—The foregoing process may perhaps have been suggested by those of M. Fred. Weil, described in *Le Technologiste*, February, 1865, and also in *Annales de Chimie et de Physique*, for the same year (translated in *Chem. News*, January 5, 1866). In regard to these processes, Prof. Miller, before the British Association in 1865, remarked as follows:

"An extensive branch of industry is now springing up in the improved methods of voltaic deposition of the metals. Weil has, by the use of an alkaline solution of tartrate of copper, contrived to coat iron and steel with a tough closely adherent sheathing of copper, by simply suspending the articles to be coated by means of a wire of zinc in the metallic bath. No battery is required. Lead and tin may in a similar manner be deposited on copper, iron, or steel, if the oxide of tin or of lead be dissolved in a bath of strong solution of caustic soda."

M. Weil employs baths of salts or oxides of the metals, held in alkaline solution (sodic or potassic), either, as more commonly, by means of inoffensive organic matters which tend to prevent precipitation of oxide by the fixed alkali, such as tartaric acid, glycerine, albumen, etc., or by the excess of the fixed alkali itself; and the deposit is secured, according to difference of the cases, either with or without the coöperation and contact of metallic zinc or lead, and at ordinary temperatures or those less or more elevated.

The most usual coatings, and generally speaking the most valuable, are those of copper and of bronze, and particularly as applied upon iron, cast-iron, and steel. The metals to be operated on do not require a previous coating of foreign conducting matters, as black lead; but they are to be thoroughly cleansed with water acidulated with sulphuric acid to 2° B, the action being continued from 5 to 20 minutes, then washed in plain water, and finished in water made alkaline with soda; then cleaned with a scratch-brush, again washed, and plunged into the copper bath in contact with zinc. For this purpose, it is more economical to suspend simply with zinc wire than to use zinc plates; and the time of immersion may vary, according to the effect sought, from 3 to 72 hours.

A copper solution giving very satisfactory results is formed by dissolving in 10 litres of water 350 grammes of crystallized sulphate of copper, 1,500 *do.* of sodio-potassic tartrate, and 80 *do.* of soda lime, containing from 50 to 60 per cent. of free soda. The solution does not attack iron, cast-iron, or steel, or other metals whose oxides are insoluble in potash and soda. Care is to be taken that the iron or other articles

to be coppered do not touch each other. The coating of copper increases within certain limits with the duration of the immersion, and it adheres firmly; but when it is necessary to fit this for resisting alternations of moisture and dryness or the action of sea-water, additional thickness must be given by employment of a battery, either with an acidulated copper solution or with the special solutions above indicated. In cases in which such additional thickness is not necessary, after sufficiently long immersion in the bath, the liquid is drawn off through a tap, and the coppered articles are washed in water, then cleaned with a scratch-brush, and dried, first in sawdust and then in a stove.

When, after a great number of copperings, the liquids become exhausted, they may be renewed by precipitating the zinc in solution by sulphide of sodium, not in excess, and recharging the solution with sulphate of copper. The incidental ingredients, such as soda, sodio-potassic tartrate, glycerine, etc., serve for an indefinite time. In the second of the accounts above referred to, methods are indicated for keeping the copper solution saturated, or of a given strength, throughout operations conducted on a large scale.

The advantages claimed by the author for his process are: 1, the perfect adherence of the copper deposited on iron, cast-iron, and steel; 2, rapidity, simplicity, and economy; 3, faithful reproduction in the coating of the most delicate details; 4, beauty of the colors and tones secured by deposits of different materials or under different conditions; 5, harmlessness and stability of the solution; 6, the power of repairing a damaged copper or other coating secured by these processes.

Yellow bronzes in copper baths bronze in beautiful tints, and without contact with zinc. The finest tints were furnished by an alloy of copper, 83; zinc, 14; lead, 0.6; tin, 1.3; nickel, 1.1. Iron and other metals immersed in contact with zinc in a copper bath to which is added some stannate of soda, or solution of bichloride of tin with soda, are covered with a true bronze (coating of alloy of copper and tin). The zining of copper or coppered articles is speedily effected by immersing them in a concentrated solution of caustic potash or soda, heated to nearly or quite 100°C.; and in a longer time, when the solution is cold. By adding to such solution a salt of tin or of lead, and heating to from 50° to 100°C., the articles just named, as well as iron, cast-iron, and steel, can (in contact with zinc) be *tinned* or *leaded*; though the deposit will contain some zinc. To secure a deposit of tin, pure, and of increasing thickness, place in a vessel containing the tin solution a porous vase holding the alkaline lixivium and the metallic zinc; and then, plunging the article to be tinned into the outer vessel, connect it by a conducting wire with the zinc. In tartro-alkaline baths containing cobalt or nickel instead of copper, and heated, articles in the last-

named metal or previously coppered become covered with a white deposit, consisting of an alloy of zinc and cobalt, zinc and nickel, etc.

New Method of Preparing Aluminium.—The method thus far generally employed for the preparation of the new metal, aluminium, has been that originated by M. Deville, at the works of Salyndra, and which in essential features is identical also with that described under the title *MAGNESIUM*, as in use for the separation of the metal named—the magnesian being of course, however, replaced by aluminic chloride in the process. It is quite fully stated in the *Annuaire Encyclopédique* for 1864, and is in fact now generally well known to metallurgists. The general steps involved in it are three—1, the preparatory reduction of sodium; 2, fabrication of the double chloride of aluminium and sodium; 3, reduction of aluminium by reaction of the two materials named, and by aid of heat. Besides the largest item of expense in this method—the cost of preparing the sodium—another source of increased cost in the product exists in the apparently necessary use of the rare mineral *cryolite*, and which contains both the metals involved in the process, as a flux in the final reduction.

M. Basset, however, has lately revived in more successful form the use of zinc, proposed some years since, for the reduction of aluminium. He fuses the chloride of aluminium with excess of zinc; and he states that the results are a chloride of zinc and an alloy of zinc and aluminium, from which latter all the zinc (volatilizable at such temperature) may be driven off at a white heat. It is stated that by this plan the cost of aluminium is likely to be greatly reduced, so that the metal may be made cheap enough for many ordinary mechanical uses.

Mr. Corbelli separates aluminium from clay, by first purifying the latter from foreign matters, then drying, treating with six times its weight of sulphuric acid to remove iron, allowing the clay to settle and drying again, mixing with about twice its weight of prussiate of potash—the quantity of this, however, to be increased or diminished according to the amount of silica in the clay, adding to the mixture common salt to the amount of one and a half times the entire weight, and then heating the whole together in a crucible to white heat. After cooling, the reduced aluminium will be found at the bottom of the crucible. The principal manufacturers at the present time of aluminium, in England, are Messrs. John Bell & Co., of Newcastle.

Supposed Passive State of Metals.—M. W. Heldt has made numerous experiments in connection with the subject of the so-called passive state of metals, or that in which it has for some years past been supposed that certain metals have been rendered insusceptible of being acted on by ordinary chemical agents. He finds that the change actually taking place is

one that is confined merely to the surface of the metals in question—those, namely, the nitrates of which are insoluble in nitric acid; and that the passivity belongs to this insoluble layer only, and does not indicate any particular electro-dynamic state or polarization. It is, in fact, only those metals the nitrates of which are soluble in dilute nitric acid and insoluble in the concentrated acid that present the phenomena of apparent passivity. With copper and tin the insoluble layer is visible to the naked eye; with other metals it may be seen by aid of a lens. Acidulated water easily removes it, and the metal returns to its normal condition: the liquid contains nitric acid and also metallic oxide. If iron that has been rendered inactive be subsequently touched with copper, zinc, or even iron itself, and either in the liquid or after being withdrawn from it, the disengagement of gas recommences, and the chemical action is renewed, and that simply because the protecting coating has been disturbed.

Many other curious results are noted in connection with the subject, for which the reader must be referred to the abstract of M. Heldt's paper, *Chemical News*, November 26, 1864, or to the original, in *Les Mondes*.

METEORS AND METEORITES. Under the first of these terms may be included the familiar and constant phenomenon of the so-called "shooting" or "falling stars," which disappear in the upper atmosphere, and without leaving any discoverable traces of their substance, and also those solitary incandescent bodies—likewise known as *meteors*, in the most specific sense, and as *fire-balls* or *bolides*—which at rarer and irregular intervals make their appearance within our atmosphere, moving in any direction and at various rates of speed, emitting light along their course, in many instances bursting into fragments with an audible report, and sometimes in form of such fragments, or else entire, reaching the earth's surface, perhaps to bury themselves in the soil; while under the second term are to be included the various solid masses thus coming from the regions of space, either unobserved or as visible meteors, and the peculiar and now known characters of which, in respect to structure and composition, decide that they have not been of terrestrial, but of cosmical origin—these bodies being also known as *meteoric stones*, and as *aéroliths* or *aérolites*. That these are all but so many forms of one and the same phenomenon, is now generally admitted, and grounds for the conclusion will appear in course of this article. Many details of the papers from which we collate are excluded by want of space; and the scientific reader, in particular, must be referred to the original articles for the data and trains of reasoning upon which rest many of the results to be stated. Brief notices of some of the observations of the past three years will first be in place.

November Period.—In the year 1863 observa-

tions were made at many points in this country, as at the Naval Observatory, Washington, by Mr. Ferguson and others (see below, *a*); at another locality in the same city by Mr. C. A. Schott and others (*b*); at Haverford College by Prof. S. J. Gumiere and others (*c*); at Germantown by Mr. B. V. Marsh (*d*); at the Miami University by Prof. O. N. Stoddard and others (*e*); at Kenyon College (*f*); and also elsewhere—the results at the places indicated being as follows:

(*a*.) Time, night of November 13–14th, 10^h 10^m P. M. to 5^h 7^m A. M.—213 meteors; average of estimated durations of flight, 0.37 seconds.

(*b*.) Same night, 8^h P. M. to 2^h A. M.—107 meteors; average duration in 49 of the instances, 0.41 seconds.

(*c*.) Same night, 10^h 38^m P. M. to 5^h 16^m A. M.—316 meteors; about 200 of these being located upon a chart, the lines indicated a radiation from the sickle in the constellation Leo.

(*d*.) Same night, 1^h to 5^h 20^m A. M.—97 meteors; rate, allowing for time lost in recording, 26 per hour; $\frac{7}{8}$ ths of all from the radiant just given, or from near ϵ Leonis.

(*e*.) Night of 11–12th, 10^h P. M. to 8^h A. M.—105 meteors—67 of them conformable [to the radiant already named]; and night of 12–13th, 10^h P. M. to 2^h A. M.—129 meteors—76 of them conformable.

(*f*.) November 11–12th, 210 minutes from 11^h 22^m P. M.—185 meteors; and 12–13th, 381 minutes from 10^h 20^m P. M.—198 meteors; lengths of arc of the flights mapped, from 2° to 25°.

In latitudes higher than that of New York, generally, the state of the sky was unfavorable. The results show a larger number of meteors on November 13–14th than on ordinary nights, and also than on the corresponding nights of some years preceding (*American Journal of Science*, vol. xxxvii., p. 141). Mr. R. P. Greg, of Manchester, England, reports the same year, in reference to Europe generally, that the number of the November meteors has been increasing from year to year, and that the hourly numbers for the 14th exceed those for the 18th of the month. The information met with in regard to the November period of 1864 is too limited to require insertion.

In 1865, night of November 12–13th, Professors Newton and Whitney, with two others (at New Haven, it appears), saw, during 110 minutes from 3^h 55^m A. M., 360 meteors reckoned as conformable—their paths, extended backwards, cutting the area bounded by the stars in the curve of the sickle in Leo—and 70 unconformable; the rate in all being 235 per hour. The radiant appeared to be a small area having its centre near that of the curve of the stars already referred to—say, in R. A. 146°, Dec. + 23°—dimensions probably not more than 3° to 4° in any direction. The unconformable meteors were generally less bright than the conformable. From the morning of

the 13th to that of the 14th, both the whole number of meteors and the proportion of the conformable ones to the whole had diminished; and it is inferred that the earth was nearer the node of the November “ring” on Monday morning than on Tuesday, and that by Wednesday morning it had nearly or quite emerged from the group.—*American Journal of Science*, January, 1866.

August Period.—Observations were made in this country, August 9th and 10th, 1864, at various points, though at many of these the state of the sky was not favorable. At Chicago, night of 9–10th, in the periods, 10^h 11^m–12^h–1^h–2^h–3^h–3^h $\frac{1}{4}$, Mr. F. Bradley and others observed, respectively, 41, 139, 152, 260, 322, and 112 meteors, only a small proportion of the whole unconformable.

On the morning of August 9, 1865, Prof. A. C. Twining observed, from 2^h 20^m to 3^h 45^m, 10 meteors, of which 9 conformed to a radiant in R. A. 47°, N. P. D. 33°; on the morning of the 10th, 2^h 25^m to 3^h 50^m, 19 meteors, all conformable to a radiant of some 8° in R. A., and centering in R. A. 42°, N. P. D. 34°; on the night of the 12th–13th, 10^h 45^m P. M., to 0^h 45^m A. M., 16 meteors, 12 of them conformable to a radiant in R. A. 52°, N. P. D. 32°; and on the morning of the 14th, 0^h 10^m to 1^h 35^m 20 meteors, generally slow in angular velocity, and scarcely belonging to any single radiant. The author believes that no mistake can exist in regard to the shifting of the radiants during the proper August period, which he extends from the first morning hours of the 9th to, at farthest, 11^h P. M. of the 12th. From observations made by Prof. Newton and several others at New Haven, August 15–16th, in which 178 meteors were counted in 3 hours, the former inferred that the whole number of flights visible during a given time at one place will be at least 4.5 times—but not greater than 5 times—the number that can be seen by one person.

Mr. Greg states that the radiant for the August period (1863, Mr. Herschel's summary), is near γ Persei. Signor Secchi and his assistants, at the two stations of Rome and Civita Vecchia (telegraphically connected), and on the nights of August 5th to 10th, inclusive, observed during a total time of 9 hours 26 minutes an average of 41 meteors per hour, 93 of which in all were satisfactorily observed at both stations. The hourly numbers increased till the 8th only; and the general radiant was between Cepheus and Cassiopeia. But the length of the base-line (65 kilometres) sufficed to show many of the meteors in different constellations from the two stations. This fact of parallax, the author thinks, has been too much overlooked: it amounted, in some of the instances referred to, to from 15° to 40°; and it was generally less for the smaller meteors, indicating that the brighter are as a rule nearer to the earth.

Other Periods.—Several other periods of unusual displays of shooting-stars, with corresponding radiant points, have recently been made out.

Mr. Glaisher names the 2d of January, the 10th and 20th of April, the 30th of November, and the 6th of December. Mr. Greg (quoted in *Amer. Jour. of Science*, xxxvii. 445) states that the 2d of January is as prolific, for several of the 24 hours during which it lasts, as is the period of August 9th and 10th, the radiant being about the head of Bootes; that for the 9th-15th of February the radiant is in Leo Minor; that for a moderate number of meteors of very low velocity, of March 6th-10th, a radiant exists in the head of Lynx; and that for the 5th-13th of December, showing of late years a fine shower, a radiant appears half way between α Gemini and β Aurigæ. He states also that the meteors of the Nov. 13th-14th period are not visible in Australia, while those of the August and other periods are so. The subject of radiants will be again referred to.

Tables of Meteors, and Question of Altitudes.—Various estimates of the heights, at appearance and disappearance, of meteors, are given in connection with the question of the height of the atmosphere, in the article *ATMOSPHERE*; the conclusions therein stated being to some extent those of Prof. Newton's paper (with tables, 1798 to 1863), in the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, July, 1864; and of his article on the altitudes of the November and August meteors, 1863, in the same journal, September, 1865. Mr. A. S. Herschel gives, for meteors observed at five stations in England, August 9th-10th, 1863, the averages of the estimated heights as 82½ and 58 miles; length of paths, from 18 to 100 miles; durations, from ¼ to 3 seconds; velocities, from 23 to 71 miles a second.

Incandescence and Dissipation of Meteors.—It has already become generally admitted by physicists that the explanation of the incandescence of meteoric bodies, and of that dissipation of their substance which occurs in much the greater proportion of instances, is to be found in the law of the convertibility and definite equivalence of mechanical and certain other forms of force, with *heat*. Thus, every unit of mechanical force (equal to a lift of 772 pounds avoirdupois through one foot height, at the sea-level), destroyed as motion by friction or other obstacle, generates a unit of heat (equal to that which can warm one pound avoirdupois of water through 1° Fahr.). Most of the movements of bodies with which we are familiar are such as do not suffice to produce appreciable rise of temperature. Moreover, any atmosphere existing at heights of from 50 to 100 miles or more above the earth must be extremely rare. But it appears to be ascertained with certainty, that meteors, after becoming visible, move through this thin atmosphere at the enormous velocities of from 18 to at least about 70 miles a second; while the equivalent in heat of their motion varies, not as the simple velocity, but as its square (Faye); and evidently, every meteor had a still higher velocity before it became luminous than it has after acquiring such condition. Prof. Bunsen, in course of a paper on the meteoric iron

of Atacama, calculated the loss of active force during the fall of a solid coming into the terrestrial atmosphere, and with a planetary speed, to be sufficient to heat such body to 1,000,000° C.; so that, if .998 of the entire heat were lost in the ambient medium, such body could still reach the earth heated to 2,000° C.

Thus, then, through retardation by direct resistance and by friction, the previously dark and invisible masses of meteoric bodies become suddenly heated to luminosity, usually (it is probable) undergoing a sort of combustion, and leaving behind them trains of the disgregated and glowing particles, until they are completely consumed; sometimes (as would be expected) exploding into fragments; and sometimes, from large amount of substance, or low velocity, or both, outlasting the action of the air, and reaching the earth in a hot, and perhaps glowing condition. Still, the extreme rarity of the atmosphere in the usual meteoric altitudes, compels the adoption of low estimates for the weights of the meteoric bodies. Further, by a law of vision, as well as by diffusion of the glowing material, and perhaps by that of the light also, at the source, there is a tendency to enhance the apparent magnitudes of these objects. Dr. Haidinger suggests that non-productive fire-balls (those not reaching the earth), and shooting stars, are of loosely compacted substance—one reason for their not penetrating the atmosphere to greater depths before extinction; and from the like view also it would follow that their size generally is (for solids) out of proportion to their weight. In Mr. Herschel's paper on August meteors of 1863, an attempt is made, by considering the *apparent light* of meteors, and the amount of coal gas which would yield the same at given distances, in connection also with the estimated velocity of those bodies, to determine the *heat* developed in the latter, and then from this (in connection, it would appear, with the length of flight) to infer what must have been the *masses* or *weights* of the meteors. [R. P. Greg, quoted in *American Journal of Science*, xxxvii. 445.] Though such a calculation must proceed upon a large amount of assumption, the result, even as an approximation, is still of great interest. And such result, Mr. Greg states, is to place the weights of the bodies considered at from 20 grains to 7½ lbs. avoirdupois, an average mass being about 1½ lbs. Mr. Glaisher concludes that the largest of the fire-balls included in his catalogue must have weighed nearly 100 lbs.

Herschel has suggested that the principle of dissociation (*see* *CHEMISTRY*) may explain the luminous trail of meteoric bodies—the violent heat sufficing to suspend chemical affinity at the meteoric surface, while the glowing particles of reduced metals and other elements left behind, on cooling to a certain temperature, undergo combustion anew, of course giving out additional light from this cause. The spectrum of a brilliant shooting star, near Capella, was recently observed by Herschel. Its slow move-

ment he followed for more than a second. The spectrum was as continuous as that of Capella, and a little more extended; so that the mass must have been a solid or liquid substance, and not a gas or incandescent vapor. (See *Nebula*, *ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA*, etc.)

Including, then, the known chemical composition of aërolites, all the lines of evidence go to show that all so-called shooting stars and other meteors are in reality originally so many minute planet-like masses, asteroidal bodies of the least possible magnitudes, just as the asteroids properly so called are the (as yet) least possible of visible planets. As Faye intimates, there may be a gradation in magnitude of such bodies, from the smallest known asteroids down to masses which become visible as shooting stars.

Of the distribution of these bodies, more presently: at least, none of them of a magnitude approaching that of the asteroids appear to circulate through the spaces traversed by the earth. Some singular confirmations of the views just stated have been obtained. Dr. Schmidt observed some time since, with one of the powerful telescopes of the Observatory at Athens, the explosion of a meteor, the result being a shower of incandescent fragments; and M. Heis declares that, at 8^h 31^m P. M., October 4, 1864, as he was observing with a telescope the Milky Way, he distinctly saw where a dark mass slowly moved along the half-illuminated sky, eclipsing the stars in its path.—*Reader*, January 21, 1865.)

Our knowledge of luminous meteors is no longer confined to the rarely occurring and wonderful November star-showers, nor even to such phenomena as the ordinary frequency of meteors at periods like those of November and August. Through the recent labors especially of Prof. Newton in this country, of A. S. Herschel, Greg, and Sorby, in England, and of Quetelet, Heis, Secchi, Schmidt, and others on the Continent, very much relating to the phenomena of meteors in general has already been brought as distinctly within the domain of astronomical science as are the orbits and periodical return of comets.

The November Period due to a Heliocentric Meteoroidal Ring.—Prof. Newton has in the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, vol. xxxvii., p. 377 (May, 1864), a highly interesting and complete discussion of this subject, under the title of "The original accounts of the displays in former times of the November Star-Shower," etc., its conclusion appearing in vol. xxxviii., p. 53—a paper in regard to which Mr. Glaisher remarks, that "it constructs the elements of the November meteoric ring solely from historical data, and in such a manner as to leave very little for further observations to supply." From various works and records are gleaned the dates and descriptions of the great 83-yearly November star-showers, beginning with A. D. 902, and ending with the still remembered and very remarkable display of the year 1833. From

the data thus obtained, the author deduces among others the following conclusions:

From the middle of the first of the given displays, say October 18th, A. D. 902, at 5^h A. M., Italian time, to the middle of the last shower, November 18th, 1833, there were 931 (terrestrial) periods, of 365.271 days each. This time comprises 28 cycles, of 33.25 years each,—the years 902 and 1833 happening, it would appear, to occupy approximately corresponding places in their cycles. The length of that part of a cycle during which extraordinary displays may occur, is at least 2 years 8 months, while the numbers of shooting stars may be greater than usual for at least 5 or 6 years. The meteoroidal bodies which afford the November showers, move in a nearly circular orbit about the sun, its inclination to the ecliptic being 17°, and their motion in their orbit being retrograde. The revolutions appear to be $1 + \frac{1}{33.25}$ in a terrestrial year; so that the annual revolution of the ring—supposing the showers of A. D. 902 and 1833 to have the same places in their cycles—occupies 354.621 days; and within the whole time given 959 revolutions, nearly, have occurred. The meteoroidal bodies, however, would appear not to form a ring of uniform density, but a compact elongated group or cloud, its length $\frac{1}{10}$ th to $\frac{1}{5}$ th the periphery of the ring—actual length more than 40,000,000 miles; while, if a shower lasts 5 hours, the thickness of the ring would be the distance passed over by the earth in that time \times the sine of the inclination of the orbit = more than 100,000 miles. Allowing for the earth's attraction, the velocity with which the bodies enter our atmosphere is about 20.17 English miles per second. We have most reason to expect the next star-shower on the usual days (November 13th, 14th), of the year 1866, and that it will be central over the western Atlantic. The author does not, however, state this as a prediction. The anticipation implied in the paper, of star-showers in the years 1864-'65, appears scarcely to have been realized.

Shooting Stars from other Radiants, and Sporadic: Question of Other Rings.—In the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, March, 1865, appears an abstract of another elaborate and highly original memoir by Prof. Newton, which was read before the National Academy of Sciences, August 6, 1864, but of which a bare outline only can here be given.

The author undertakes to investigate the phenomena of shooting stars generally, as seen on all clear nights; and he makes his table (1798 to 1863), already referred to, the basis of the computations, combining with its data observations from a variety of other sources. Disregarding the instances of which the middle point of path is at altitudes less than 30, or greater than 180 kilometres, he finds for these successive intervals of elevation, 30—60—90—120—150—180 kilom., the numbers of meteors, 114, 243, 277, 106, and 57, respectively; the mean altitude of middle point of path being

thus 95.55 kilom. = 60 miles nearly. The relative frequency of meteor-paths in different parts of the visible heavens varies in the main with the zenith distance only; and about 1 in 50 of all shooting stars seen at a place should have the middle points of their apparent paths within 10° of the zenith. The number of shooting stars visible within a given period over the whole earth is to be considered as 10,460 times the number visible at one place. Admitting that one observer will see an average of $7\frac{1}{2}$ meteors per hour, and that the number visible at one place is at least 4 times this, we have then the whole number of meteors that traverse the atmosphere daily, and that—sun, moon, and clouds permitting—should be visible to the naked eye, equal to $10,460 \times 7\frac{1}{2} \times 4 \times 24$, or more than seven and a half millions. Of 1,016 paths, the mean length was found to be $12^\circ.6$. The meteor-yielding mass, before it has become luminous by entering the earth's atmosphere, the author terms a *meteoroid*. Now, taking into account the much greater number of shooting stars visible with the telescope than with the naked eye, say 1,582 hourly with a comet-seeker, if the whole heavens could be watched, we have for the whole number of meteoroids coming daily into the air, at least $10,460 \times 1,582 \times 24$ —more than 400,000,000! The mean actual length of the visible part of meteor-paths is found from the data under consideration to be less than 65, and greater than 89 kilometres; the smaller of the two limits being probably nearest the truth. The mean duration of 368 meteors observed at Geneva, Switzerland, in one night, was 0.49 sec.; that of 499 estimates made in August and November, 1864, 0.418 sec.; mean of the 867 flights, 0.45 sec. From such length of path, and duration, may be inferred a mean actual velocity of between 78 and 130 kilometres per second, the least of these (more than 48 miles) being twice and a half the velocity of the earth in its orbit about the sun. This does not seem consistent with the supposition that most of the meteoroids move in closed orbits about the sun; but qualifying considerations are introduced, as that the assumed altitudes may be too great, the estimated times too small, etc. At least three suppositions respecting the distribution of orbits of meteoroids are naturally suggested:

"1st. They may form a number of rings, like the August group, cutting or passing near the earth's orbit at many points along its circuit. The sporadic shooting stars may be outliers of such rings.

"2d. They may form a disc in or near the plane of the orbits of the planets.

"3d. They may be distributed at random, like the orbits of comets.

"According to the first of these suppositions, there should be a succession of such radiant, corresponding to the several rings. Dr. Heis and Mr. Greg believe that they have detected such a series."

It may here be remarked that some writers

have admitted as already determined 56 radiant points of shooting stars, corresponding to as many known epochs in every year, and in which meteors proceeding from those definite positions in the heavens may be expected to be visible. Prof. Newton's discussion of the subject, however, leads him, in view of the apparent distribution of meteors throughout the 24 hours (that is, as entering the atmosphere from all directions in space), and in view of the seeming fact that their mean velocity considerably exceeds that of the earth, to conclude—though not yet with absolute certainty—that the orbits of the sporadic meteors generally, are not approximately circular, but that they resemble more the orbits of the comets.

Finally, apart from the space occupied by our atmosphere, there are in the mean, in each volume of the size of the earth, of that space which the earth is traversing in its orbit about the sun, as many as 13,000 small bodies, each body such as would furnish a shooting star visible under favorable circumstances to the naked eye; while, if telescopic meteors were counted, the number would be increased at least forty-fold. It is not probable that the space near the earth's orbit is much more thickly strewn with these bodies than other parts of the solar system. Their velocity, different from that of the earth, implies that they are not grouped closely about the earth's orbit. These bodies cannot be regarded as the fragments of former worlds, but are rather the materials from which the worlds are forming. It may here be added, that some writers have regarded meteoroids, at least those large and compact ones which reaching the earth constitute meteorites—those "pocket-planets," as Humboldt has termed them—as being portions scattered by the disruption of parent planets which were too small and powerless to reclaim their own fragments.

Accounts and Descriptions of Some Meteorites, mostly recent.—In the *Philos. Magaz.*, new series, vol. xxviii., will be found an account, by Dr. Haidinger, of the meteorite of Albereto, in the Modenese, and in relation to which—falling in July, 1766—a pamphlet has been left by Troili. This contained disseminated through it grains of the native protosulphide of iron, since named Troilite. In the same volume appears a notice by Maskelyne of a meteorite falling, June 16, 1860, near the village of Kusiali in India, and which contained much of the white flocculence abounding in some only of these bodies; and also, an abstract of a paper by Mr. H. C. Sorby, on the mineralogical structure of meteorites. An article on the physical history of meteorites appears also, along with a republication of that last named, in the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, January, 1866.

In the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, vol. xxxvii. (1864), will be found the analysis, by Prof. C. A. Joy, of New York, of a meteorite from Chili (noticed also in vol. xxxviii., p. 386); while in the volume last mentioned will also be found accounts, including analyses, of sev-

eral other meteorites, with notes on meteoric irons. In the same journal, for March, 1865, an interesting *résumé* is given of investigations respecting the meteor and meteorites of Orgueil, the latter falling near the village of that name, in France, on the evening of May 14, 1864; and in the number for September, 1865, a description and analysis, by Prof. J. L. Smith, of Louisville, of a meteorite from Arkansas. (See METEORIC IRON, CXC., 1861.)

Composition of Meteorites.—By a very minute analysis of the Chili meteorite, Prof. Joy finds in this, in 100 parts, Fe, 48.298; Ni, 5.298; Co, 0.838; Mn, 0.375; Cu, 0.040; S, 2.693; P, 0.115; SiO₂, 20.689; MnO, 0.976; Cr₂O₃, 0.477; NiO, 0.073; FeO, 10.417; CaO, 1.548; Al₂O₃, 3.772; MgO, 4.278; SnO₂, 0.189—total, 100.076; and he deduces the mineralogical composition of the meteorite, as, Nickel iron (with Co, Mn, and Cu), 48.689; sulphide of iron, FeS, 7.405; chrome iron, Cr₂O₃.FeO, 0.701; Schreibersite (Fe, Ni, and P), 1.563; olivine, 11.677; Labradorite, 29.852; tin-stone, SnO₂, 0.189. In the meteorite of Bishopville, S. C., 1843, M. Rammelsberg finds silica, alumina, sesquioxide of iron with some Mn₂O₃, magnesia, and lime, besides a small loss, probably of alkalis. For the composition of the whole Orgueil meteorite, M. Pisani gives, SiO₂, 26.08; MgO, 17.00; FeO, 6.96; MnO, 0.36; CaO, 1.85; NaO, 2.26; KO, 0.19; Al₂O₃, 0.90; with chromic iron, 0.49; magnetic iron, 12.03; nickeliferous sulphide of iron, 16.97; water, and supposed organic substances, 14.91—total, 100.

The last-named meteorite was examined also by other chemists, among whom MM. Cloëz and Wöhler conclude that a black amorphous substance contained to the amount of 6 per cent. in it is a true organic substance—a kind of *humus*, consisting of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen in proportions quite similar to those occurring in lignite and peat. This fact, if it be such, is somewhat startling, in view of the conclusion drawn from it, that, from whatever portion of space this meteor may have come, organic matter, and hence living organisms, must probably there have had an existence.—Note in *Reader*, February 11, 1865.

Thus it still remains true, that the meteoric stones which reach the earth and have been examined reveal in their composition only such elements as have long been known as entering into the earth's solid and liquid mass and its atmosphere; though some differences present themselves in the forms of combination entered into by those elements. Indeed, very many terrestrial chemical elements, both among such as are abundant, and among such as are very rare and till recently unknown, have not yet been detected in any meteorites analyzed.

Structure of Meteorites.—Mr. Sorby, in the first of the papers by him already referred to, applies to the case of meteorites the principles he had before developed in his study of terrestrial rocks (*Quarterly Jour. Geolog. Soc.*, 1858, vol. xiv). Thus, he had shown that the pres-

ence in crystals of *fluid*, *glass*, *stone*, and *gas-cavities*, respectively, enable us to determine in a very satisfactory manner under what conditions the crystals were formed. The olivine of meteorites, like that of lavas, contains excellent *glass-cavities*, proving that the material was at one time in a state of fusion; and the former, also *gas-cavities*, indicating the presence of some gas or vapor (Parnallee, etc.). The vitreous substance, found both within and without the cavities, is of a claret-brown color, with the structure and optical properties of artificial glasses. Some isolated portions of meteors have also a structure very similar to that of stony lavas, the crystals having evidently formed during solidification and where found. In others, the mass is one apparently of broken fragments afterwards compacted by mechanical and chemical actions (L'Aigle), the structure here resembling that of consolidated volcanic ashes. The particles in some cases indicate a breaking-up after cooling from fusion; in others, being globular, a breaking-up while in the fused or semi-fused condition (Parnallee, etc.). Thus, in certain peculiarities of physical structure, meteorites are connected with volcanic rocks, while in others they differ most characteristically.

In the second of his papers referred to, Mr. Sorby proceeds from the conclusions he had reached in the first, regarding it as proved that the material of meteorites has been to some extent fused, in some part, at least, compacted from minute detached particles, and in other portions showing evidence of having been condensed from a state of vapor; while, at the same time, he declares it extremely improbable that masses so constituted have ever been portions of the moon or of a planet. In accordance with the observed facts of structure, he traces hypothetically a history of the formation of such masses, from the time in which their materials must have existed in a vaporous condition, as the black lines of the spectrum prove that certain metals now do in the atmosphere of the sun, down through their aggregation into a sort of cometary cloud, to that of a fused and crystallizing mass, broken and comminuted by movements pervading it, and later compacted again, and under the influence of heat undergoing a sort of metamorphism. The view presented may be regarded as a modified form of the nebular hypothesis. The relative amounts of metallic constituents in meteorites would appear to have increased with lapse of time: various iron-compounds, in particular, appear as if having entered and been condensed within them, from the vaporous state; though some irons may have separated from the general mass through difference in specific gravity. Meteorites are thus, probably, records of the existence in planetary space of physical conditions more or less similar to those now confined to the immediate neighborhood of the sun, and at a period indefinitely more remote than that

of the occurrence of any of the facts revealed to us by the study of geology—at a period, in fact, which might be called *pre-terrestrial*.

Classification of Meteorites.—Mr. R. P. Greg has published a pamphlet, containing an arrangement of meteorites based on mineralogical and structural characters. Of this an outline only can be given, the reader being referred for the definitions of the groups to an abstract in the *American Journal of Science*, November, 1865. The system is as follows:

CLASS I.—*ÆROLITES.*

ORDER A. Specific gravity mostly between 1.7 and 8.2, and containing little or no metallic iron. *Groups*—*a*, Carbonaceous; *b*, Howarditic; *c*, Feldspathic; *d*, Crystalline (magnesian-silicates); *e*, Vesicular.

ORDER B. Sp. gr. mostly between 3.25 and 3.9. *Groups*—*a*, Variolitic; *b*, Sommitic (Mt. Somma, Vesuvius); *c*, Tufaceous; *d*, Psammitic (2 forms); *e*, Chondritic (2 forms); *f*, Blanskitic (Blansko meteorite); *g*, Erxlebenitic (Erxleben *do.*).

CLASS II.—*SIDEROLITES.*

ORDER C. Sp. gr. 4–7, meteoric iron, containing or mixed with stony material and silicates. *Groups*—*a*, Pallasites (2 forms); *b*, partly or irregularly mixed with silicates; *c*, containing *ærolitic* fragments, imbedded in iron.

CLASS III.—*METEORIC IRONS, OR ÆROSIDERITES.*

ORDER D. Sp. gr. between 7 and 8. *Groups*—*a*, Agrammic (2 forms); *b*, Microgrammic; *c*, Eugrammic; *d*, Spora-grammic (2 forms); *e*, Nephelic; *f*, Undetermined.

METHODISTS. The year 1866 being the centenary of American Methodism, and the General Conference of 1864 having passed a resolution to celebrate it in an appropriate manner, the attention of the Church was prominently occupied with the necessary preparations. The programme for the celebration of the year was definitely agreed upon in the meeting of the General Centenary Committee, held on November 8, 1865. The most important points of this programme were the following: A "Centenary Educational Fund" is to be placed before the people as the prominent object for connectional contributions. This fund is to be placed in the hands of a board of 12 members (2 bishops, 4 ministers, 6 laymen), to be called the "Centenary Connectional Educational Board of the Methodist Episcopal Church." To contributors desiring to specify the precise objects of their centenary subscriptions in whole or in part, it shall be open to include the following objects, namely: 1. The Centenary Educational Fund. 2. The Garrett Biblical School at Evanston. 3. The Methodist General Biblical Institute at Concord, to be removed to the vicinity of Boston. 4. A Biblical Institute in the Eastern Middle States. 5. A Biblical Institute in Cincinnati or vicinity. 6. A Biblical Institute on the Pacific coast. 7. The erection of Centenary Missionary buildings for the Mission House at New York. 8. The

Irish Connectional Fund. 9. The Biblical School at Bremen, Germany. 10. The Chartered Fund. (Such sums as contributors may desire to appropriate in that way to the support of worn-out preachers, their widows and orphans.)

A separate Sunday-School Children's Fund is to be established, for the purpose of assisting meritorious Sunday-School scholars of either sex who may need help in obtaining a more advanced education.

The membership of the Methodist Episcopal Church, in 1865, was, according to the "Methodist Almanac for 1866," as follows:

CONFERENCES.	NUMBERS IN SOCIETY.		
	Members.	Probation.	Total.
Baltimore.....	12,087	1,698	13,785
Black River.....	19,658	1,941	21,599
California.....	8,913	588	9,501
Central German.....	7,826	1,068	8,894
Central Illinois.....	16,652	1,465	18,117
Central Ohio.....	15,822	1,586	17,408
Cincinnati.....	25,105	2,115	27,220
Colorado.....	214	15	229
Delaware, col.....	6,504	828	7,332
Dee Moines.....	5,423	1,811	7,234
Detroit.....	14,559	1,579	16,138
East Baltimore.....	29,246	4,296	33,542
East Genesee.....	19,492	1,615	21,107
East Maine.....	8,715	1,907	10,622
Erie.....	25,523	2,294	27,817
Genesee.....	7,866	683	8,549
German Mission.....	8,465	1,151	9,616
Holston.....	5,799	696	6,495
Illinois.....	26,029	2,945	28,974
India Mission.....	117	92	209
Indiana.....	21,886	2,760	24,646
Iowa.....	14,966	1,450	16,416
Kansas.....	4,086	1,287	5,373
Kentucky.....	2,489	411	2,900
Liberia Mission.....	1,350	102	1,452
Maine.....	10,503	1,709	12,212
Michigan.....	12,748	1,730	14,478
Minnesota.....	5,996	1,088	7,084
Missouri and Arkansas.....	7,161	1,464	8,625
Nebraska.....	1,309	320	1,629
Nevada.....
Newark.....	20,636	2,513	23,149
New England.....	18,070	2,044	20,114
New Hampshire.....	10,567	1,550	12,117
New Jersey.....	22,708	8,652	31,360
New York.....	82,807	4,423	87,230
New York East.....	28,213	8,404	36,617
North Indiana.....	20,269	5,025	25,294
North Ohio.....	18,282	862	19,144
Northwest German.....	4,686	1,047	5,733
Northwest Indiana.....	15,562	1,876	17,438
Northwest Wisconsin.....	2,280	445	2,725
Ohio.....	27,084	2,069	29,153
Omaha.....	16,884	1,914	18,798
Oregon.....	2,592	496	3,088
Philadelphia.....	45,970	6,179	52,149
Pittsburg.....	84,889	5,365	90,254
Providence.....	14,858	1,098	15,956
Rock River.....	16,910	1,590	18,500
Southeast Indiana.....	18,870	1,807	20,677
Southern Illinois.....	17,911	8,167	26,078
Southwest German.....	8,694	778	9,472
Troy.....	22,881	2,058	24,939
Upper Iowa.....	12,010	1,496	13,506
Vermont.....	11,826	1,476	13,302
Washington, col.....	7,877	817	8,694
West Virginia.....	12,808	2,497	15,305
West Wisconsin.....	6,177	748	6,925
Wisconsin.....	10,186	1,496	11,682
Wyoming.....	18,295	2,068	20,363
Total 1865.....	820,860	104,425	925,285
Last year.....	829,879	93,941	923,820
Increase.....	5,484
Decrease.....	8,519	8,665

The number of effective preachers in 1865 was 6,121, of superannuated 872, of local preachers 8,113. The contributions received by the Missionary Society amounted to \$607,607; those by the Sunday-School Union to \$19,389; those by the Tract Society to \$22,581. There were in connection with the Church 22 colleges and universities, and four theological institutions, at Evanston, Ill.; Concord, N. H.; Bremen, Germany; New Orleans, La.* The "foreign missions" of the Church in Liberia, South America, China, Germany, India, Bulgaria, Scandinavia, embraced in 1865 161 missionaries and 7,022 members, and the "domestic missions" among the Germans, Indians, Scandinavians, French, and Welsh of the United States, 286 missionaries and 26,138 members. In addition to those employed in the above work, there are nearly a thousand ministers who are engaged on the frontiers or in destitute localities, in city missions, among the freedmen, and as missionaries to the South, in charges that cannot support themselves. Besides the missions enumerated above, there has been established a third class, designated as "Missions in the United States and Territories, not included in the bounds of any Annual Conference." This class includes all the missions in Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, Eastern Idaho, Montana, and the Southern States where the war broke up or put an end to all religious organizations existing before its commencement. The General Missionary Committee, at their session in November, 1865, appropriated for the year 1866, \$1,000,000, namely: Foreign Missions, \$275,657.83; foreign populations of the U. S., \$15,550; Indian Missions, \$4,550; American Domestic Missions, \$321,150; Third Class of Missions, \$301,092.17; French Methodist Conferences, 12,000; Continuing Fund, Incidental and Office Expenses, \$70,000.

The statistics of the "Sunday-School Union" in 1865, as given in the annual report published in January, 1866, are as follows: Schools, 13,365; Officers and Teachers, 153,039; Scholars, 914,587; Volumes in Library, 2,542,087; Bible Classes, 16,987; Infant Scholars, 136,387; Expenses, \$285,829; Contributions for Sunday-School Union, \$17,738; Conversions, 25,122; Copies of "Sunday-School Advocate" taken, 230,386.

The receipts of the "Tract Society," according to the 13th annual report published in January, 1866, were \$13,566. Average monthly issue of the "Good News," 74,600. The Society's list of Tracts now numbers 578.

A board of "General Conference Trustees" was elected by the General Conference in 1864, and incorporated under the laws of the State of Ohio in 1865. This board is authorized to receive and apply, under the General Conference, all donations, bequests, grants, etc., to the M. E. Church.

A new Methodist Church Society was organized by the last General Conference, under the denomination of "The Church Extension Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church." The object of the organization is to enable the several Annual Conferences to establish and extend their Christian influence and power throughout the United States and Territories, by aiding, wherever necessary, to secure suitable houses of public worship, and such other Church property as may promote the general design. The society is controlled by a Board of Managers, consisting of twenty-five laymen and as many clergymen—not exceeding that number—as shall be determined at each annual meeting; and by a General Committee of nine members, chosen by the bishops from nine districts into which the Annual Conferences are divided. The annual meetings of the Society are held in the city of Philadelphia, in November. The first meeting was held in November, 1865, and appropriated, for purposes of Church extension, the sum of \$200,000.

The following table shows the number of members of the M. E. Church in every State and Territory of the Union, in 1864:

States & Territories.	No. in Soc'y.	States & Territories.	No. in Soc'y.
Arkansas	262	Nebraska	1,557
California	4,269	Nevada	281
Colorado Territory...	265	New Hampshire...	10,155
Connecticut	13,179	New Jersey	45,516
Delaware	12,899	New York	160,896
District of Columbia.	4,450	Ohio	115,639
Illinois	59,181	Oregon	2,635
Indiana	87,968	Pennsylvania	105,583
Iowa	37,527	Rhode Island	3,263
Kansas	5,574	Vermont	14,525
Kentucky	8,205	Virginia	658
Maine	28,144	Washington Territory	821
Maryland	56,575	West Virginia	15,943
Massachusetts	80,816	Wisconsin	23,495
Michigan	32,408		
Minnesota	7,773		
Missouri	9,861		
		Total	922,512

The bishops of the Methodist Church had, on June 15th, a meeting at Erie, at which it was resolved to occupy, as far as practicable, those fields in the Southern States which may be opened and which give promise of success. The bishops declared themselves, however, to have no authority to originate any plans of union, and to be bound to adhere strictly to the provisions of the discipline and the directions of the General Conference.

Early in 1865 the bishops received information that a number of ministers and members of the "Methodist Episcopal Church" in East Tennessee, desired to attach themselves to the "Methodist Episcopal Church," and Bishop Clark was solicited to visit that section of the State to receive them formally to the fellowship of the Church. He went, accordingly, and in Athens, Tenn., on the 1st day of June, 1865, organized the Holston Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church. At this organization the preachers reported the following statistics from the several charges, namely: members, whites, 5,284, colored, 128, giving 5,412; probationers, 695; local preachers, 55; total, 6,462; Church property valued at \$31,250; Sunday-Schools,

* In February, 1866, a new "Biblical Institution" was organized at Charleston, S. C.

49; officers and teachers, 386; Sunday-School scholars, 2,425. Subsequent reports from this conference announced a rapid growth by the accession of other pastors and people in East Tennessee and Western North Carolina.

A second Annual Conference in connection with the Methodist Episcopal Church was organized in the South by Bishop Thomson, at New Orleans, December 25, 1865, under the name, "The Mississippi Mission Conference." The Conference reported the following statistics: members, 2,216; probationers, 476; deaths, 64; local preachers, 13; baptisms, adults, 145; infants, 272; number of churches, 5; value of church property, \$47,000; Sunday-Schools, 9; officers and teachers, 95; scholars, 1,386; volumes in library, 1,476. The bounds of the Conference embrace the States of Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas. The great majority of its members are colored. The Conference concluded to establish at once a Biblical Institute ("Thomson Biblical Institute") and a weekly organ ("N. O. Advocate").

The missions in the other Southern States were, for convenience of administration, distributed by the General Missionary Committee at its meeting held in November, 1865, into the three following departments: Middle Department, including so much of the State of Tennessee as is not comprised in the Holston Conference, the State of Alabama and Western Georgia; Southern Department, including the State of Florida, Eastern Georgia, and the State of South Carolina; Northern Department, including Eastern North Carolina, and so much of Virginia as is not included in the Baltimore Conference.

While thus the Church received considerable accessions in Tennessee, Louisiana, and other States, she lost part of an Annual Conference in Virginia and Maryland. Those ministers of the Baltimore Conference who are stationed in Virginia, with many of those stationed in Maryland, showed a tendency toward secession from their Church when the General Conference of 1860 adopted a stricter antislavery rule. They refused, however, to join the Southern Methodist Church, and kept up throughout the war a separate organization. At their meeting held at Staunton, Va., on June 29 and 30, 1865, they resolved not only to continue their separate organization, but, still regarding themselves as the Baltimore Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, to reoccupy gradually the entire territory of the Baltimore Conference in Maryland. In February, 1866, at the meeting held in Alexandria, they passed a resolution to join the Southern Methodist Church, and they were consequently received into that body by Bishop Early. As the churches and parsonages within the bounds of the Baltimore Conference are all deeded to the "Methodist Episcopal Church," an order from the President of the United States restored all the churches and parsonages within the bounds of the Baltimore Annual Conference, embraced in the State of Vir-

ginia, to the Methodist Episcopal Church of the United States, held by said Church prior to 1861. This order further states that such possession shall be valid until the civil courts shall have determined in whom the legal title vests.

At the end of the war the Southern Methodist Church was in a greatly disorganized condition. Many of the churches were without pastors, or closed by the Government, or transferred temporarily, to the missionaries of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The Book-Concern in Nashville had likewise been closed by the Government, and all the papers of the Church had been discontinued. Some, both North and South, expressed a desire or expectation that new efforts might be made for a reunion of the "Methodist Episcopal Church South" with the "Methodist Episcopal Church." But the Southern Church soon declared itself almost unanimously against reunion, and in favor of continuing an independent organization. On August 17th three of the Southern bishops—Andrew, Paine, and Pierre—met at Columbus, Ga., and from there issued a "Pastoral Letter" to "The Preachers and Members of the Methodist Episcopal Church South," in which they at length defined the position which the Southern Church occupied with regard to the Methodist Episcopal Church, the negro race, the slavery question, and the Government of the United States. Of the relation of the Church to the negroes, they speak as follows:

In the change from slaves to freedmen which has providentially befallen the negroes of the Southern States, our obligations to promote their spiritual welfare have not ceased. We are still debtor to them free, as before to them bond. Under the divine blessing, our Church has done a great work for this people. Their moral training, and generally diffused knowledge of the cardinal truths of Christianity, and their ecclesiastical discipline, have justly won the admiration of many who have lately come in contact and acquaintance with them. It has accomplished more; it has materially contributed to their subordination and inoffensive behavior through the late defenceless and exciting times, when prophecies were confident and opportunities frequent for domestic insurrections. And their safe though sudden passage from a state of bondage to liberty, a transition accompanied by no violence or tumult on their part, is largely due to these causes.

Though often reviled while prosecuting the evangelization of the colored people by those who claimed to be their better friends, the Southern Methodists have persevered in it, with blessed results. We might have done more, but we should be thankful to the grace of God that we have not done less. Our labor has not been in vain in the Lord. Multitudes have been saved, who will be our crown of glory in "that day." And that the good effects of our religious teachings bestowed upon them in bondage will follow the race into their new condition, and help to prepare them for it, is matter of pleasing reflection for us. Our numerous membership among them of over two hundred and forty thousand, exclusive of the congregations and catechumens who receive instructions from our pastors and missionaries, has been much reduced by recent changes and casualties. If it be still further reduced, we need not be surprised. Defections, doubtless, will take place from their ranks to churches offering greater social inducements for their adhesion. If they elect to leave us, let them go with the assurance that as heretofore we

have been, so we will continue to be, their friends, and in every suitable way aid their moral development and religious welfare.

After reviewing in full the relations of the Southern Methodist Church to the Methodist Episcopal Church, they gave the following reasons for their opposition to a reunion of the two Churches:

The abolition, for military and political considerations, of the institution of domestic slavery in the United States does not affect the question that was prominent in our separation in 1844. Nor is this the only difference or principal one between us and them. While testifying with pleasure to the nobler conduct and sentiments of many brethren among them, we must express with regret our apprehension that a large portion, if not a majority, of Northern Methodists have become incurably radical. They teach for doctrine the commandments of men. They preach another gospel. They have incorporated social dogmas and political tests into their Church creeds. They have gone on to impose conditions upon discipleship that Christ did not impose. Their pulpits are perverted to agitations and questions not healthful to personal piety, but promotive of political and ecclesiastical discord, rather than of those ends for which the Church of the Lord Jesus Christ was instituted. Without such a change as we see no immediate prospect of, in their tone and temper and practice, we can anticipate no good result from even entertaining the subject of reunion with them. Let us abide in our lot, and be true to our calling, doing what we can to spread scriptural holiness through these lands, and to oppose the tide of fanaticism which threatens their overflow.

We therefore more earnestly would exhort you, brethren, to stand firmly on our platform of doctrine and discipline. Know your high calling. Preach Christ and Him crucified. Do not preach politics. You have no commission to preach politics. The divinity of the Church is never more strikingly displayed than when it holds on its even, straightforward way in the midst of wordly commotions. Be not turned aside from your path by local, specious, temporary influences. And in all your teaching and administration of discipline, keep in view that rule of our faith which declares that "the Holy Scriptures contain all things necessary to salvation; so that whatever is not read therein, nor may be proved thereby, is not to be required of any man."

The conduct of certain Northern Methodist bishops and preachers, in taking advantage of the confusion incident to a state of war to intrude themselves into several of our houses of worship, and in continuing to hold these places against the wishes and protests of the congregations and rightful owners, causes us sorrow and pain, not only as working an injury to us, but as presenting to the world a spectacle ill calculated to make an impression favorable to Christianity. They are not only using, to our deprivation and exclusion, churches and parsonages which we have builded, but have proceeded to set up a claim to them as their property; by what shadow of right, legal or moral, we are at a loss to conceive. We advise our brethren who suffer these evils to bear them patiently, to cleave closely together, and not indulge in any vindictive measures or tempers. A plain statement of the case and an appeal to the justice of those in authority cannot fail to defeat such scandalous designs, and secure us the full restoration of all our rights.

While some talk of reunion of the two Churches, we forewarn you of a systematic attempt, already inaugurated, and of which the foregoing is only an instance, to disturb and if possible disintegrate and then absorb our membership individually. In the meeting of their bishops and missionary secretaries, alluded to, it was resolved to send preachers and

plant societies in our midst wherever there is an opening. Their policy is evidently our division and ecclesiastical devastation. Against all this be on your guard. Internal dissensions will do us much more harm than such outward antagonism. Be true to your principles, and under the divine favor they will triumph. In this connection you will be pleased to hear that our people are steadfast. The border conferences, under special trials, present a noble example of steadfastness.

They announce that the next General Conference of the Church would meet in New Orleans, on the Wednesday after the first Sunday in April, 1866. They close their address with "an urgent and explicit recommendation" to Southern Methodists to adjust themselves "as citizens of the United States promptly, cheerfully, and in good faith" to all their "duties and responsibilities." This course the bishops deem to be called for on the part of Southern Methodists both by a "sound judgment" and an "enlightened conscience." All the Annual Conferences which were held in 1865, as well as all the Church papers, which, after the close of the war, were gradually reestablished,* expressed their concurrence with the bishops.

The only serious attempt to pass resolutions in favor of a speedy reunion of the Southern and Northern Methodist Churches was made in the "Kentucky Conference" (embracing the eastern portion of the State of Kentucky). At the annual meeting of the Conference at Covington, in September, the majority of the committee on the state of the Church (eleven members) brought in a report declaring that there existed no longer any satisfactory reason for the continued separation of the two Methodist Churches, and expressing a wish that the Southern General Conference take appropriate steps for bringing about a reunion. The Conference, after a long and animated debate, rejected the majority report, and instead adopted the following minority report:

Resolved, That we hold ourselves ready to consider, through our chief council, the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, any terms presented it by competent authority of the Methodist Episcopal Church, as to a union of the two great coordinate branches of Episcopal Methodism in the United States.

2. That we do earnestly maintain our present relation until such time as the proper authorities on both sides shall mutually agree on terms of union honorable, equitable to each of the parties, and acceptable to our people.

The vote stood: for the majority report 25, for the minority report 37. Eighteen of the minority of 25 withdrew thereupon from the Conference, and were received by Bishop Morris into the M. E. Church. These were followed by several thousand lay members of the Conference.

* In March, 1866, the following papers of the Methodist Episcopal Church South had been reestablished: "Richmond Christian Advocate," "Episcopal Methodist," Richmond, Va.; "Southern Christian Advocate," Macon, Ga.; "New Orleans Christian Advocate," "Arkansas Christian Advocate," Little Rock, Arkansas; "Nashville Christian Advocate," "Memphis Christian Advocate," "Christian Advocate," St. Louis and Louisville; "Spectator," San Francisco, Cal.

On June 21st a convention of delegates from the four non-episcopal bodies of Methodists in the United States (Methodist Protestant, Wesleyan Methodist, Free Methodist, and Independent Methodist) met at Cleveland, Ohio, for the purpose of deliberating on the subject of a permanent union between these bodies. The convention was attended by about 150 delegates, and passed the following resolutions:

1. That the union of the Methodist bodies here represented is respectfully recommended to the early consideration of the Annual Conferences of the Methodist Protestant Church, of the Wesleyan Methodist Connection, of the Free Methodist Church, of the Independent Methodist Conference, here represented, and any others of like character who may desire to unite with these.

2. That we recommend the calling of a convention,

to be held in Union chapel, Cincinnati, on the second Wednesday of May, 1866, and constituted on the following basis of representation, namely, one minister and one layman for each five hundred members, and fractions of over half of five hundred. Said convention to be fully authorized to fix upon a basis of union and the mode of its consummation, subject to such confirmatory action by the bodies here represented as may be agreed upon by said convention.

3. That we recommend that the plan of union shall fully and entirely secure the liberty of the local churches on New Testament principles; that an efficient itinerant ministry shall be maintained; and that annual and general conferences shall be maintained, with power to make such regulations consistent with the principles and institutions of the New Testament as may be necessary to carry into effect the great principles of Scriptural Christianity.

The following table presents a statistical summary of all the bodies of Methodists in 1865:

DESIGNATION.	Bishops.	Conferences.	Preachers.	Members.	Probationers.	Sunday Schools.	Officers and Teachers.	Scholars.
AMERICAN METHODISM—								
Methodist Episcopal Church.....	0	60	6,998	890,560	104,425	18,891	152,745	917,932
Methodist Episcopal Church South*.....	6	24	2,494	601,641	107,808
Canada Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2	8	216	19,526	196	1,597	8,883
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	3	500	75,000	100,000
Evangelical Association.....	2	12	405	50,836	1,172	644	6,472	23,354
Primitive Methodists, Canada.....	5,854	4,990
New Connection Methodists, Canada.....	8,028
Canada Wesleyan Conference.....	591	58,467	2,923	749	44,573
Eastern British America Conference.....	143	15,029
American Wesleyan Church.....	21,000
Methodist Protestant Church.....	90,000
FOREIGN METHODISM—								
British Wesleyan Conference.....	1,492	830,827	19,091	4,936	95,401	537,511
Irish Wesleyan Conference.....	20,031
French Conference.....	26	1,858	168	37	235	1,329
Australia Conference.....	42,042
Foreign Missions.....	62,545
Primitive Methodists, England.....	863	149,106	2,000	168,000
United Methodist Free Churches, England.....	269	65,689	6,183	1,057	146,392
New Connection Methodists, England.....	149	24,259
Bible Christians, England.....	227	25,352	40,000
Wesleyan Reform Union, England.....	18	9,760	933	18,000

* Statistics last reported (1860). Since then this denomination has lost a large number of members in consequence of the war.

MEXICO. At the commencement of 1865 the imperialists were firmly established in all the important places of central Mexico, and controlled probably more than three-fourths of the population of the entire country. The republican party had its principal strength in the extreme southern States and in the thinly-populated States bordering on the territory of the United States, though scarcely a town of importance, save Oajaca, in the State of that name, and the seaport Acapulco, was in its possession. At Oajaca an army of seven thousand men under Porfirio Diaz, aided by secret subsidies from the Church party, now in fierce opposition to the imperial cause, had been collected during the latter part of 1864, and was prepared to do battle for the republic. Juarez, with the bare nucleus of an army and a government, occupied the town of Chihuahua, in the State of the same name, and between that place and Michoacan, a distance of about eight hundred miles, were scattered small and imperfectly organized bodies of republican troops under Arteaga, Ortega, Negrete, and others, which maintained

scarcely a show of resistance to the imperialists. The system of strategy adopted by these generals was to avoid pitched battles, and to rely upon their superior knowledge of the country to surprise and defeat detached parties of the enemy, to interrupt communications, and generally to harass and weaken the imperial forces. The regular troops in the republican service, if indeed such an organization can be said to have been in existence since 1864, probably did not exceed fifteen thousand in number, and were poorly armed and clad, and without discipline. The well-trained foreign troops of the Emperor found little difficulty in defeating them whenever a battle was risked, and their lack of small-arms, artillery, and munitions made them decidedly inferior even to the native troops in the imperial service. But in the guerrilla bands, which infested every province of the country and prowled around the gates of populous and well-guarded cities (the capital itself proving no exception), the republican cause had a most formidable auxiliary; nor could the utmost severity or vigilance of the imperial generals

exterminate this element of resistance. Influenced partly by hatred of the invaders, but principally by a desire for plunder, the guerrillas pursued their devastations with little regard for friend or foe, and were not unfrequently guilty of atrocities too shocking to relate. Utterly without discipline, they were easily scattered by an inferior force of trained soldiery; but if driven from one locality, it was only to appear suddenly in another with apparently no diminution of force, and, if possible, with increased vindictiveness, until it may be said no road in the country, which was not lined with troops, was safe from their attack. Strange as it may appear, the road between the capital and Vera Cruz, the most important and perhaps the most travelled in the country, and that by which the imperial army received its chief supplies, was frequently the scene of guerrilla outrages, against which no precautionary measures seemed to avail. The guerrillas, when captured, were of course summarily shot, as were also all persons suspected of sympathizing with or harboring them; but such severity was totally ineffectual to lessen their numbers or their atrocities, and the first year of Maximilian's reign found the country in a more unsettled and unhappy condition than ever before, notwithstanding upward of sixty thousand veteran troops, commanded by officers of experience, were employed in the work of reconstruction. Under these circumstances European intervention could scarcely be called a success, and those who had submitted to it, as a means of peace and security, began to doubt whether these ends could now be obtained. Of hearty, undoubted supporters the government of Maximilian possessed but few among the native population. The republicans, if subdued for the time, hated it not less than at the landing of the first detachment of French troops; while the Church or reactionary party, which had helped to build it up, turned against it with fierce but impotent rage when the Emperor announced his intention to confirm the decrees for the secularization of ecclesiastical property, promulgated under the former republican administration. Utter weariness of the anarchy under which the country groaned, and a disposition, for the sake of peace, to side with the stronger party, alone made the imperial rule tolerable to liberals or reactionists.

The final rupture between the Church party and the Emperor was related in the previous volume of this work, but the former now found to its dismay that its power to injure the imperial cause was miserably small. With the promulgation of the decree of March 9, 1865, expired the last lingering hope that Maximilian would restore to the Church its confiscated possessions, and with them its once enormous power. By this instrument the Council of State was authorized to revise all the operations of the amortization and nationalization of ecclesiastical property, executed in consequence of the laws of the 25th of June, 1859; to remedy excesses and injustice commit-

ted by fraud, and confirm all lawful operations, executed without fraud, and in accordance with the laws cited; and these acts of the Council were declared to be irrevocable. Such transactions as might be found irregular or fraudulent and declared null and void, could be revised "on condition that they be brought forward in accordance with the terms of the law of the 13th July, 1859; that there is paid into the Treasury in money a fine of twenty-five per cent. on the total value of the estate or capital adjudged; and that no loss is caused to a third party by rights acquired previous to the revision of the claim." Other articles provided for the protection of the interests of the parties who had acquired Church property under the reform laws, and which might be affected by the revision of the proceedings under which they acquired claims; and further provided for the establishment of an office to be called "The Administration of Nationalized Property," which is to assist in the revision of claims, and put into practice the administrative and economical operations contingent on each act of revision. The following are four of the most important articles of the decree:

ART. 17. All the funds or capital of nationalized property that may not have been transferred or redeemed; those which are recovered by revision, and those which proceed from the transfer of estates which were afterwards made, shall be in the charge of the office of nationalized property, which will see that they are properly administered, and collect their rents while carrying out their functions.

ART. 18. No right which directly or originally proceeds from mortmain transactions or nationalization shall be exercised or be made of any value, judicial or extra-judicial, while it is not shown in due and proper form that the operation whence it proceeded has been properly and correctly revised.

ART. 19. Although their revision may not be complete, if it be shown in due form that the process to obtain it has been presented, the rights to which the previous article refers may be exercised; but those who obtain it for them must give security to the satisfaction of the Chief Judge (*Jefe de primera instancia*) or keep the matter in judicial course until the revision is complete.

ART. 20. Nor shall any right or privilege, judicial or extra-judicial, be exercised in relation to nationalized estates which may not have been included in operation of mortmain or nationalization, or which may have been returned to ecclesiastical corporations. The possessors or detainers of these estates must show cause within two months in the form prescribed by the enactments of this law.

Before the promulgation of this decree the Church party was suspected of having aided with money and supplies the republican troops in the southern States, with whom hatred of a common enemy caused them to be temporarily affiliated; and in the early part of 1865 they even made some abortive attempts at open resistance to the Imperial Government. These were easily quelled, and the men organizing them, despairing of success in independent operations, soon became merged in that party which maintained its contest against the empire from more patriotic motives than disappointed ambition or the lust of power. The despoilment of the Church no longer formed the burden of the

reactionist complaints, but hatred of the empire and the rule of foreigners united in one party all the elements of opposition. Hence the protests of prominent ecclesiastics, which in former years had been voluminous and bitter, if without much influence over the Government, ceased to be presented. The negotiations of the Emperor with the Papal nuncio, Monsignor Meglia, with reference to the adoption of a concordat, were, of course, suspended after the promulgation of the decree for the secularization of Church property, above referred to, and that relating to religious toleration, and in the spring of 1865 the nuncio returned to Europe. But Maximilian, himself a strict Catholic, could not rest easy under the imputation of having quarrelled with the Holy See, and in the latter part of the year sent to Rome an agent of his own, the Abbé Fischer, to assure the Pope of his sincere desire to come to some amicable arrangement, and to explain the difficulties in the way of making as many concessions as could be wished. Without withdrawing his decrees (which he could not do without prejudicing the interests of many resident Frenchmen who had purchased largely of the confiscated estates of the Church), he signified his intention to make such modifications of his views and policy as would result in a fair settlement of all vexed questions. The result of these renewed negotiations has not yet been made public, but the Pope is said to have been so deeply offended with Maximilian, that it is doubtful whether concessions will be made by him.

As a minute account of the military events of the year would require more space than their importance demands, a brief sketch only will be presented. Early in January Marshal Bazaine left the capital to direct the campaign against Diaz, in Oajaca. For several weeks the republican forces, concentrated in the city of that name, sustained the attacks of the imperialists, but finally, on February 9th, surrendered at discretion to the number of seven thousand, and were treated as prisoners of war. As soon as the capitulation was known to the citizens and the inhabitants of the surrounding districts, they went out to meet the French general, and gave in their act of adhesion to the Imperial Government, "manifesting at the same time," says the imperial account, "the greatest gratitude to the brave troops who had just liberated them from the dreadful tyranny by which they were oppressed." This was the most severe disaster which the republican cause had sustained in the southern States, where hitherto the French had made little progress, and the war in that quarter thenceforth degenerated into a mere guerrilla contest, accompanied with all the excesses previously described as characteristic of this kind of warfare in Mexico. About the time of this reverse the republicans gained some trifling advantages in the neighborhood of Mazatlan, on the Pacific coast, and for a while laid siege to the town; but a concentration of French troops there soon turned the

scale in favor of the imperialists. At Tacambaro, in the State of Michoacan, a body of three hundred Belgian troops, of the foreign contingent of the imperial army, was in April surprised and cut to pieces by a republican force under Gen. Regules; but this exploit being unconnected with any general plan of operations, its success was of no appreciable benefit to the republican cause. In the North, however, for a time matters looked more hopefully for Juarez. On April 10th a considerable republican force, under Gen. Negrete, drove the imperialists under Olvera and Lopez out of Saltillo, and following up their advantage, a few days later occupied Monterey, the imperialists retreating upon Matamoras. Negrete marched at once upon the latter place, where Mejia, the imperial generalissimo, had collected all available troops, and was making vigorous preparations to withstand a siege. In the latter part of April Negrete, reinforced by Cortinas and other chiefs, invested Matamoras, but from his want of artillery was unable to commence approaches in regular form. Every day added to the strength of the works defending the town, on which Mejia caused the inhabitants to labor, besides calling into requisition all available horses and mules. The exterior lines were defended by ramparts of cotton-bales. Reinforcements meanwhile arrived from Vera Cruz, and an imperial column marched north from San Luis Potosi to reoccupy Saltillo and Monterey, which was accomplished in the early part of June. Finding the prospect of compelling a surrender of Matamoras hopeless with his inadequate force and means, Negrete risked an assault upon the place, and was disastrously repulsed. He maintained, however, a threatening attitude until June 7th, when, alarmed by the news of the approach of the French column from the south in his rear, he raised the siege and retreated toward Chihuahua, where he arrived in the succeeding month with a mere remnant of his army. Five hundred men, it was said, perished on the march, and many more were lost by desertion or capture.

At this time the imperial forces were more widely distributed over the country, and in a condition of greater efficiency, than ever before. By a decree of April, Mexico was divided into eight military divisions, each of which was intrusted to a general of division, general of brigade or colonel, who, in the discharge of their duties, looked for instructions from the Minister of War, Gen. Juan de D. Peza. In ordinary matters they were directed by the civil members of the ministry. The regulations for the government of the several divisions were minute, and adapted to promote the efficiency of the service. The army, on June 1st, was estimated at the following strength:

	Men.
The French Legion <i>Etrangère</i>	8,000
The Austrian Legion (about).....	6,000
The Belgian Legion (about).....	6,000
Mexican troops (about).....	20,000
Total.....	40,000

In addition to these troops about twenty thousand of the French expeditionary force still remained in the country, which would give an effective army of about sixty thousand men. Marshal Bazaine, having under him Douai, Castagny, Neigre, and other French officers, was still the commander-in-chief of the Franco-Mexican army; and the Mexican army proper was commanded by Mejia, a pure Indian, like Juarez, and a man of considerable ability.

Aided by this systematic organization, and by an army incomparably superior to any thing the republicans could put into the field, the imperialists made steady progress northward during the summer months; and in the latter part of August Juarez was compelled to remove to El Paso, in the extreme northern part of the State of Chihuahua, on the Rio Grande, which, by an order issued early in September, was declared to be the seat of Government. Here, at the very limit of the country over which, but four years previous, he had been the sole acknowledged ruler, he upheld the republican cause with a courage and constancy which won the admiration even of his imperial enemies, expressing his firm belief that the time was not far distant when the French troops would be compelled to evacuate the country and leave its people to govern themselves. It must not be supposed, however, that every element of opposition was overpowered with the advance of the imperialists. In Durango, in Michoacan, and in Guerrero, were bodies of republican troops under Patoni, Arteaga, and Alvarez; while Ugalde, Figueroa, and other fierce partisan chiefs carried terror through the central States of the country. At the very moment when Juarez had established his fugitive government at El Paso, accounts from the city of Mexico showed that the whole country was given up to brigandage and anarchy, save where the presence of the imperial troops afforded a temporary security. In the early part of September the French took possession of Acapulco, driving out Alvarez with a poorly-equipped but enthusiastic force of fifteen hundred men. The veteran chief, accompanied in his retreat by the greater part of the Mexican population of the town, took refuge in the mountain fastnesses of the interior of Guerrero, where he announced his confidence of maintaining the cause of Juarez.

Believing that Juarez, when driven out of Chihuahua, had taken refuge within the limits of the United States, Maximilian, on October 2d, issued a proclamation officially announcing the departure of the Republican President from Mexican territory. "The issue," he said, "which Don Benito Juarez has sustained with so much valor and constancy, has at last succumbed, not only to the national will, but also to the law which he invoked in support of his title" (meaning that the term for which Juarez had been elected president had expired), "and even the brigandage of small parties into which his cause had degenerated, must be abandoned

by the departure of this chief from his native territory." He added:

Lawlessness and disorder are still kept up by misguided leaders of demoralized troops and an unbridled soldiery, and, therefore, the struggle in future will be between honest men and gangs of criminals and bandits. The Government, strong in its power, will be inflexible in its punishment of the latter criminals, in order that the laws of civilization, humanity, and morality may be upheld.

This proclamation was confirmed by an imperial decree, dated October 8d, in the fifteen articles of which the most vigorous measures were pronounced against parties in arms against the Government, and those who should in any manner aid them. All caught in violation of these articles were to be instantly tried by court-martial, and if convicted, to be sentenced within twenty-four hours thereafter. All persons harboring or supplying money, provisions, or information to the guerrillas, were to be summarily dealt with. The severity of the punishment threatened against the opponents of the empire, induced many republicans to lay down their arms and make application for pardon. In those who continued to hold out for Juarez, it kindled a more deadly resentment than ever against the Imperial Government, and under the provocation which it offered brigandage for the time seemed respectable. A few days after the promulgation of the decree the republicans experienced their second great military reverse of the year in the defeat and dispersal of the Army of the Centre, commanded by Arteaga in Michoacan, the best-disciplined and appointed body of troops yet remaining in the service. This force, divided into three parts, was put *hors de combat* within the period of a few days. One division, under Palacio, endeavored to surprise Morelia, the capital of Michoacan, but was defeated by the foreign troops garrisoning the place. Another party, under Lepeda, marched toward Reges, but was cut to pieces by Col. Carriedo; while the remaining division of twelve hundred men, under Arteaga himself, was on October 18th surprised and dispersed at Santa Anna Amatlan. Gens. Arteaga and Salazar, with a number of inferior officers, were taken prisoners. In accordance with the decree above mentioned, Arteaga and Salazar and several republican colonels were a few days later summarily shot, notwithstanding it is reasonable to suppose that the Imperial Government must by that time have been aware that its decree had been issued under false reports of the abandonment of the republican cause by Juarez, and that the prisoners were entitled to the treatment usually accorded to prisoners of war. Arteaga was a brave soldier, a true patriot, and a man of unblemished probity, and his loss was felt to be a severe blow to the republican cause. The circumstances attending the execution of himself and his fellow-officers were made the subject of diplomatic correspondence, as will be seen further on. The remnants of the Army of the Centre were subsequently collected by Gen.

Regules, who, with nearly three thousand men, continued to oppose the imperialists in Michoacan. Other successes of less importance were gained by the imperial arms about this time. The guerrilla leader, Figueroa, was routed near Tehuacan; Ugalde's band was cut to pieces in Queretaro by a detachment of Zouaves; and at Alamos, in Sonora, Gen. Rosales, the most prominent republican leader in the northwest, was killed, with a number of his officers and men. No reverses, however, seemed to intimidate the guerrilla bands; and at the very time when Arteaga experienced his defeat in Michoacan, a party of four hundred of them seized the Vera Cruz Railroad at Tejeira, a few miles distant from Orizaba. The trains were stopped, and the passengers taken some three miles from the station, where the Spanish, Mexican, German, and American travellers were released, while the French, civil and military, were put to death after several hours of dreadful torture. "It appears," says the "Journal" of Orizaba, "that the French seized by the guerrillas were fourteen, five officers, seven sergeants and soldiers, and two civilians. All have suffered a most horrible death, preceded by some hours of agony. The pen will not describe the barbarous outrages committed on these unfortunate men, and decency imposes complete silence. After suffering the fate of 'Abelard,' and remaining in this condition for some time, they were riddled by stabs and then cut to pieces."

Undeterred by the ill success of their attempt upon Matamoras in the spring, the republicans organized another attack in October. On the 19th of that month Gen. Escobedo, recently appointed by Juarez commander-in-chief in the northern States, aided by Cortinas and Canales, invested the town with three thousand men and twelve guns. The garrison, numbering about seventeen hundred, was under command of Mejia, and had a great superiority in artillery. On the 25th Escobedo hazarded an assault upon the defences of the town, which, though successful at first, was finally repulsed with loss. The siege continued, however, for some time longer, although every day lessened the chances of capturing the place. Meanwhile intelligence reached Escobedo from Col. Trevenio, commanding a republican force in the neighborhood of Monterey, that the French had evacuated that place, leaving in the forts only a few hundred troops. Escobedo immediately hurried to Monterey, and on November 24th took possession of the town. The French troops in the mean time had started on their return from Saltillo, to which place they had marched, and the advance of two hundred men reached Fort. Obispado, in the vicinity of Monterey, on the morning of the 25th. The liberal commander, hearing of this, and realizing his inability to contend with the combined forces, ordered the immediate evacuation of the place, which was accomplished with insignificant loss, though the column was pursued for a short distance by a detachment of mounted Frenchmen. Escobedo

continued his retreat to Camargo, on the Rio Grande, where he arrived in the beginning of December. Before this time the siege of Matamoras had been abandoned, although Cortinas and his band still hovered around the outskirts of the town.

The presence of a large United States force at Brownsville, opposite Matamoras, subsequent to May, excited serious apprehensions in the imperial commander at the latter place, as both troops and officers were known to sympathize with the Mexican liberal party. Naturally enough, great sensitiveness was felt by both liberals and imperialists with reference to an observance of the neutrality laws by the United States authorities on the Rio Grande; and during the siege of Matamoras, in October and November, complaints were almost daily sent from both parties to Maj.-Gen. Weitzel, commanding at Brownsville. Investigation, however, invariably showed that these were unfounded, or were based upon trivial occurrences, which the narrowness of the river and the long line of occupation rendered it impossible to prevent. On November 6th, the officer in command of the French squadron off the Rio Grande sent a communication to Gen. Weitzel, directly accusing him of furnishing men, stores, and munitions of war to Escobedo's troops. The letter was immediately returned to the writer, on the ground that it was couched in disrespectful language. A few days later Mejia complained to Weitzel that the steamboat Antonia, on her passage up the river to Matamoras, had been fired upon from the Texan shore, to which the American general replied that there was no satisfactory evidence that the firing had proceeded from the Texan side of the river, and that he had always endeavored, as far as lay in his power, to prevent any violation of neutrality by officers or soldiers of his command. "You complain," he said, "that my officers and men affiliate with the liberals and welcome them. This is not strange. The liberals claim that they fight for their freedom. Their cause, then, is one that has awakened the warmest sympathies in every American breast. It would be as impossible for me to prevent this, even if I felt so disposed, as it would be to stop the motion of the earth. But I do not feel so disposed. During our late war the officers and men of French and English men-of-war lying in ports in our military possession, affiliated continually and exclusively with our enemies (as at New Orleans and Norfolk), and yet it was not thought necessary to communicate with them on the subject. They were permitted to choose their own associates." He subsequently remonstrated with Mejia against the impressment of American citizens into the imperial service, and not receiving a satisfactory reply, announced, in accordance with instructions from Gen. Sheridan, commanding the Military Division of the Gulf, that if such outrages should be repeated, no excuses or personal apologies would be accepted. He also

stated that he had been directed to stop all intercourse with any garrison during a siege, except that which humanity should dictate. This communication was returned to him by Mejia as being improper in language, and thenceforth the correspondence between the two commanders was brief and of a purely formal character. In December, R. Clay Crawford, formerly an officer of volunteers in the United States army, arrived at Brownsville with a commission as general in the Mexican republican army, and authority to recruit an American division for the republican service under his command. He established recruiting offices at Brownsville and other places in Texas, where enlistments were made so rapidly as to greatly alarm the imperialists in Matamoras. The defences of the place were immediately strengthened, and Mejia issued an order forbidding all communication with the American side of the river, and requiring all citizens of Matamoras to take an oath of allegiance to the Emperor Maximilian. Crawford was, however, soon arrested and sent a prisoner to New Orleans, his recruiting offices were closed, and the year ended with comparative tranquillity on both sides of the river.

Early in November news reached Juarez, in El Paso, that the imperialists had evacuated Chihuahua. He immediately departed for that place with his cabinet, the members of the Supreme Court, and other functionaries, and on the 20th reestablished there the capital of the republic. On December 9th he was compelled by the return of the imperial troops to evacuate Chihuahua and retire to El Paso, where he arrived on the 18th, and where he was established at the close of the year. On December 11th the imperialists reoccupied Chihuahua.

At this time a new element of danger to the republican cause was developed. As the constitutional term of President Juarez would expire by limitation on November 13, 1865, and, in consequence of the unsettled condition of country, no successor had been elected, the question arose whether, under the circumstances, the Government should be transferred, according to the provisions of the Constitution, to Gen. Ortega, the President of the Supreme Court, or retained by the man who had so long and so heroically upheld the sinking fortunes of the country, and who, in the opinion of many, was the only Mexican living competent to discharge the duties of President of the republic. A change of leaders at such a moment, it was urged, would prove a great misfortune to the cause. Accordingly, after consultation with many influential republicans, soldiers and civilians, Juarez, on November 9th, issued a decree extending his presidential term until a new election could be held, and urging at length the necessity for such action. A circular was published at the same time by the Minister of the Interior, censuring Gen. Ortega for prolonged absence from his command without leave, and ordering him to report forthwith

for trial. In a letter written immediately after the promulgation of the decree, Juarez stated that the commanding officers and political leaders of the frontier States had all approved of the extension of his term of office, and that he had reason to believe that a similar assent could be obtained in the other States of the republic. Unfortunately for the harmony of the republican cause this arrangement did not meet the approval of one of the parties most interested in the matter, Gen Ortega, who forthwith issued the following protest:

To Señor SEBASTIAN LERDO DE TEJADA, Minister of Internal Affairs and Government:

The unjust and impolitic act executed by Don Benito Juarez in issuing, through your department, the two decrees dated on the 8th of November last past, has placed me in the painful position, in view of the circumstances in which the Mexican Republic now stands, of being obliged to protest, as I now do before the nation, against the contents of the said decrees. I do so—

1. Because they are contrary to the express provisions of the political constitution of the republic, and consequently illegal, arbitrary, and unjust.

2. Because they create a dictatorship, to be exercised by Don Benito Juarez, who will thus be enabled to remove and replace at his caprice the authorities of one of the independent and sovereign Federal powers, who have received their appointment and prerogatives through the votes of the nation, destroying in this manner a republican principle and the basis of legal order, which is the form of government laid down in the Constitution.

3. Because they are contrary to the powers delegated to the Executive by Congress, which, notwithstanding the war existing between Mexico and France, declared, in granting said powers by the decree of December 11, 1861, that the Executive should be "entirely authorized to take such measures as he may deem advisable under existing circumstances, without any further restriction than to sustain the independence and integrity of the national territory, the form of government established by the Constitution and the principles and laws of reform;" and the law of October 27, 1862, contains the express and decisive restriction that "he [Juarez] shall not act contrary to the provisions of article 4 of the Constitution;" otherwise, that he shall not have power to determine whether it be advisable or not to proceed against public officers—a restriction whose sole object was to prevent the President from making an abuse of power and destroying constitutional order.

4. Because the said decrees seriously jeopard the national independence, by depriving its defenders of a legitimate government, which is the only one that can serve as a centre, united under one flag, and substituting therefor an illegal government, devoid of any justification save the anti-constitutional decree that has been recently issued.

5. Because these decrees imply an insult to the Mexican people, and to those who have fought for the rights of Mexico beneath her flag, inasmuch as the text clearly leads to the inference that the blood shed by the Mexican people, the thousands of victims, and the heroic efforts of all classes in support of a principle, have had no other object than to protect the person of Don Benito Juarez, and that if this individual does not save Mexico, Mexico is unable to save herself.

6. Because not only the grounds upon which these decrees are based are fallacious, but, further, because recourse has been had to calumny, directed against me personally.

The solemn oath which I took as constitutional President of the Supreme Court of Justice, based upon the Constitution of the Republic, has been loy

ally and patriotically observed on my part, and the national will and rights of the people, as laid down in that instrument, remain intact. Upon recovering its rights, the nation will call to account those who have infringed its laws. JESUS G. ORTEGA,

Constitutional President of the Supreme Court of Justice of the Mexican Republic.

EAGLE PASS, December 21, 1865.

Thus matters remained with respect to the presidency at the close of the year. Juarez had, on his side, possession of the office and the sympathy of almost all patriotic republicans; while Ortega was fortified by a technical right, which the emergency of the country alone prevented from being recognized and respected, but which he seemed nevertheless determined to assert.

At the close of the year, notwithstanding the imperialists had been victorious in nearly every engagement, their gains of territory were inconsiderable, however formidable they might seem in the description. Their successes in Sonora, Sinaloa, Chihuahua, Durango, and other northern States, had proved but barren conquests—easy enough to acquire, but difficult to retain. A vindictive and unwearied foe continually hung round their line of march, cutting off trains and stragglers, and by the rapidity of their movements and their knowledge of the country defying pursuit; and it frequently happened that, from the impossibility of preserving communications with a military base of operations, tracts of territory had to be relinquished almost as soon as conquered. In a country so extensive and so thinly settled, a larger force than Maximilian could put into the field was indispensable to perform the work allotted to it. It is not surprising, therefore, to learn that in November and December the imperialists were reported falling back from the northern States and concentrating at San Luis Potosi and other central places, either for the purpose of reorganizing new campaigns in the north, or because the attempt at conquest in that direction was unprofitable and hopeless. At the same time efforts were making to put the route between Mexico and Vera Cruz in such a state of defence, that a repetition of such outrages as had been committed there by guerrillas during the year would be impossible. A French official return shows that the Mexican expedition has cost France, up to the close of 1865, no less a sum than \$135,000,000. The losses in the French forces, land and sea, have been 11,414 men, viz.: killed, 3,319; died from wounds or effects of climate, etc., 4,928; disabled for life, 3,167.

By a decree issued in April, Maximilian defined the provisional status of the Imperial Government, pending the organization of a definitive government. The form of government was declared to be a limited hereditary monarchy, with a Catholic prince at the head; and in case of the death of the Emperor, or of any other event incapacitating him for the use of his powers, "his august spouse, the Empress," was to be *ipso facto* Regent of the Empire. The Emperor or Regent, upon assuming power,

must take this oath: "I swear to God by the Holy Evangelists to further, by all means in my power, the welfare and prosperity of the nation, to defend its independence, and preserve the integrity of its territory." The territory of Mexico was defined as bordered on the north by the lines decided upon with the United States at the conventions of Guadalupe Hidalgo and Mesilla; on the east by the Gulf of Mexico, the Sea of the Antilles, and the English establishment at Balize; on the south by the republic of Guatemala; and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. The Government guaranteed to all the inhabitants of the empire equality in the eye of the law, security of person and property, and liberty of free speech; and its acts were to be directed by nine ministers, representing as many departments. A decree of May 10th defined the extent of freedom to be allowed the press, which was to be subject to about the same restrictions as in France and Austria. Several changes took place in the ministry during the year, and at its close the departments were in charge of the following persons:

Department of the Imperial Household.....	Juan N. Almonte
" of State.....	José F. Ramírez
" of Foreign Affairs.....	M. de Castillo
" of the Interior.....	J. M. Esteva
" of Justice.....	Pedro E. y Echanore
" of Public Instruction.....	Señor Artigas
" of Public Works.....	Luis Robles
" of War.....	Juan de D. Peña
" of Finance.....	M. Langlais

A new council of state was also appointed, with José María Sanchra president. Several of the governors and officers appointed by Maximilian having pronounced against him, the "*Estafetta*," a semi-official journal published at the capital, announced in May its profound conviction that "Mexico must be ruled for many years yet without calling Mexican statesmen to power." Whether or not this opinion was shared by Maximilian, it is certain that, in despair of finding a competent financier in Mexico, he was compelled to employ a Frenchman, M. Langlais, sent to him by the Emperor Napoleon for that purpose, to direct the finances of the empire.

A decree, promulgated in August, prescribed rules for the establishment and direction of the diplomatic corps, which was placed under the immediate direction of the Minister of Foreign Affairs. The Emperor reserved to himself the right of appointing and dismissing all his representatives to foreign nations. The salary of ambassadors was fixed at \$12,000, that of envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary at \$10,000, and that of ministers resident at \$8,000. The imperial dignity was further enhanced by the creation, by decree of April 10th, of three orders, that of Our Lady of Guadalupe, that of the Eagle of Mexico, and that of St. Charles. The first was originally founded by the Emperor Iturbide in 1823, and was temporarily revived by Santa Anna in 1853-'55. The last is open only to females, on whom it is to be conferred by the Empress for exemplary acts of piety, humility, or charity. Decorations

of the first two orders have already been widely distributed in Mexico and Europe.

From the moment of assuming the imperial crown, Maximilian was troubled with questions respecting the succession. No issue had resulted from his marriage with the Empress, and the hostility manifested toward his government by a large portion of the Mexican people satisfied him that no solution of the difficulties in which he was involved could be obtained by a future transfer of the imperial dignity to another prince of European extraction. The stigma of foreign usurpation would still attach to him. A native prince, however, might form a rallying point for a national party, to include all persons in favor of a strong government, and under the prestige of such a name, in connection with the succession, his own rule might be tolerated, and perhaps become popular. Fortunately for his purpose, Mexico, soon after its independence had been secured, was erected into an empire under Augustin Iturbide. Although this form of government was annulled in less than a year, and the Emperor himself was banished and subsequently shot, two of his sons and several grandchildren still survive, and in them, if in any native Mexican, the traditions of imperial power would seem to centre. Hence the idea was conceived of nominating one or more of this family as successors to the empire established in 1864, in case Maximilian should die without issue. Such an act, it was urged, would go far toward disarming the prejudices of those who still held out against the empire, and would, perhaps, induce Juarez and the republicans to cease their opposition. In the hope, therefore, that the Mexicans would look with complacency upon the prospect of the throne being filled by a native dynasty after the death of the reigning monarch, two of the grandchildren of the Emperor Iturbide are said to have been designated as princes imperial, next in the line of succession after Maximilian and his consort Carlotta. It having been reported that one of these, the child of an American woman, had been removed from his mother's protection, and that the latter had been compelled to leave Mexico, a resolution was adopted in the United States House of Representatives, requesting information "in regard to the kidnapping of the child of an American lady in the city of Mexico, by the usurper of that republic, the so-called Emperor, under the pretence of making such child a prince." In reply, the State Department announced that no official information had been received in regard to the kidnapping referred to, and no other information upon the subject which it was deemed advisable to make public at the present time.

The termination of the rebellion in the Southern States of the American Union in the spring of 1865, cast adrift many restless spirits, who, accustomed to the excitement of military life, ill relished the idea of settling down to peaceful, industrial pursuits. Many of these naturally looked at once toward Mexico, with the

republican party of which they heartily sympathized, as a new field for adventure, and the Imperial Government entertained grave apprehensions that thousands of discharged American soldiers would hasten to enlist in the service of Juarez. That the Mexican republicans should wish to fill their wasted and demoralized ranks with such material was natural enough; and scarcely had the first disbanded regiments of United States volunteers returned from the battle-fields of the South, than offices were opened in the Northern cities for registering the names of persons wishing to emigrate to Mexico, where, it was alleged, liberal inducements to settle, in the shape of grants of lands, were offered to them. As Gen. Ortega was in the United States at the time, it was generally reported that he was the promoter of this scheme, which was also said to be connected in some manner with his election to the Presidency of Mexico. However that might be, no doubt seems to have been entertained that the so-called emigrants were intended for military service in the republican army; and the question arose, whether the United States Government was not bound, under the provisions of its neutrality act, to prevent their departure. The solution of this question might have involved a rupture with France, with which country our relations were of an exceedingly delicate nature; but such an issue was avoided by the difficulty which those having charge of the emigration scheme encountered in raising the necessary funds to equip and despatch men to Mexico. The long distance to be traversed before reaching their destination, the obstacles which the French fleet could oppose to a landing on the coast, and the utter impossibility of putting the emigrants in an effective condition when landed, presented grave obstacles to the scheme, in view of which it was ultimately abandoned, without the necessity of interference on the part of the United States Government.

Relieved from the apprehensions excited by the prospect of American emigrants enlisting in the service of Juarez, the Imperial Government proceeded to perfect a plan of its own for encouraging emigration into the country. The arrival of foreign colonists, bringing with them habits of industry, a love of order, and a spirit of activity and progress, it was supposed, would exert a beneficial influence upon the native population, and tend to develop the national resources. At the close of 1864 rumors were very prevalent that Dr. Gwin, an ex-Senator from the United States, had been appointed by Maximilian prefect of several of the northern States of Mexico, with a view of encouraging thither an extensive emigration from the Southern States of the American Union, or of developing the mineral resources of that part of the country; and it was further hinted that this portion of the empire was to be ceded to France as some sort of indemnity for the expenses undergone by her in establishing Maximilian on his throne. The appointment of Dr. Gwin as prefect

was denied by one Luis de Arroyo, said to be the agent of Maximilian in New York, who stated in a letter, published in the papers of that city in May, that "although for some time present in Mexico, Dr. Gwin never had any relations with the persons composing his Majesty's Government." He also denied that any Mexican territory had been ceded to France. Notwithstanding this denial, it was subsequently charged by the representative of Juarez at Washington, Señor Romero, and it is believed by many, that an armed emigration from the Southern States of the American Union into Northern Mexico was in contemplation previous to the close of the rebellion; also that the Emperor Napoleon was cognizant of and friendly to the scheme; and that Dr. Gwin was to have been his agent, first in promoting the emigration, and then in procuring the cession of the territory to France. If any such project was entertained, its consummation was effectually prevented by the overthrow of the rebellion in the United States, which left that country free to oppose any further encroachments on Mexican territory by foreign powers.

Meanwhile, with the close of the war in the United States, several of the Southern leaders determined to leave the country and settle in Mexico. Among these were Gens. Sterling Price and Magruder, of the Southern army, and ex-Governors Polk and Harris, who went there, as pioneers or agents, in behalf of such persons as had resolved to expatriate themselves rather than live under the authority of the United States. They were subsequently joined by Matthew F. Maury, formerly director of the Observatory at Washington, and who had been known throughout the war as a determined and irreconcilable enemy of the Union. Instigated by their favorable reports, a number of discontented citizens of the Southern States emigrated to Mexico during the summer of 1865, where they formed the nucleus of a colony of Americans. So promising appeared the prospects of a large influx of this class of emigrants that the Imperial Government in September issued a decree guaranteeing to them certain privileges and advantages, the most important of which were the following: the introduction, free of duty, of their seeds and instruments of labor, machinery, etc.; naturalization immediately after their arrival, if it should be desired; grants of lands at low rates, and even donations of lands, should the emigrants be without the means of purchasing, and their capital be needed to establish them successfully; exemption from conscription in the military service during the first years of their residence in the country; assistance by the Government to colonies destitute of private capital; and authority to bring negroes in the capacity of free apprentices, engaged by contract for a certain number of years, upon conditions which the Imperial Government will regard as suited to the age and sex of the apprentice, and which will establish the respective rights of proprietor

and workman. This last privilege, which, in its practical operation, amounts to the establishment of slavery, was brought to the notice of the United States Government by Señor Romero, in the following words:

It is really an extraordinary thing, and almost incomprehensible, that when slavery has received a death-blow in the only country that could revive it, and when it has been shown by facts that its existence is an evil, social, moral, and political, there can be in the world a usurper who, without having established his authority in the country he tries to dominate over, should attempt to reestablish that odious system for the purpose of strengthening himself, merely changing the name for the purpose of deluding the world.

As this system of labor might be taken for what in Mexico is called peonage, and as that may be considered here as an institution equivalent to slavery, I think it expedient to show to you that on some estates in the *tierras calientes*, to the south of Mexico, there has in fact been, through the abuses of the proprietors, and the influence they enjoyed, something that might be compared in its practical effects with what the ex-Archduke of Austria has now established in his aforesaid decree; but such abuses, besides being restricted to a very narrow district, were never sanctioned by the Mexican laws, and the national government of that republic has taken especial care to correct them and root them out. It was reserved for the ex-Archduke of Austria to sanction such an abusive practice by a law which, if it goes into force, will be executed throughout the whole extent of the Mexican territory.

To encourage still further emigration from the Southern States of the American Union, Maximilian soon after appointed Maury, who had previously been made an honorary councillor, imperial commissioner of colonization, and Gen. Magruder chief of the land office of colonization. The former immediately issued several circulars, couched in persuasive language, in one of which, besides praising the climate and soil of Mexico, he eulogized the "wise and mild rule of Maximilian," whom he declared to be "beloved by the imperialists and respected by all." The empire, he said, was continually gaining ground, many important works of internal improvement were in progress, and property and life were daily becoming more secure; but as a curious corollary from this, he advises emigrants "at first to establish themselves in villages, as well for mutual convenience as for protection against the bands of lawless marauders, who are ever ready to pounce upon the helpless farmers." After advising settlers to select lands lying along the slopes bordering on the *tierras calientes* or low lands of the coast, he gives the following information respecting the progress of Southern emigration in Mexico:

Bryant from Arkansas has established a colony in Chihuahua. Mitchell, of Missouri, another on the Rio Verde, in the Department of San Luis Potosi. Terry, of Texas, another in Jalisco. They rent at first, with the privilege of purchase in the mean time at a stated price.

Then there is the fine colony of Carlotta, near Cordova, where the lands were abandoned. There were a number of haciendas in that neighborhood that were indebted for more than they were worth to the Church, and which, by the Juarez Government, were

confiscated. These have been expropriated by the empire, and applied to colonization. These lands are sold to immigrants at one dollar per acre in five equal annual instalments. Generals Price and Shelby, of Missouri, Governor Harris, of Tennessee, Judge Perkins, of Louisiana, the Rev. Mr. Holman, of Missouri, and a number of others, have already established themselves there. They are all highly pleased with their prospects. By the time the railway through to Vera Cruz is completed, and the last instalment falls due, they will have improved their farms, when the most staid among them expect that these farms will be worth ten, twenty, and even fifty dollars the acre. A gentleman from Louisiana has been there for seven or eight years. He established a coffee plantation of eighty acres, which is now in good bearing, and the crop from which last year was valued at \$16,000. The Cordova coffee sells in the New York market as Java, and the tobacco equals that of Cuba.

Each married man there is allowed six hundred and forty acres, but it is now generally admitted that one-fourth of that quantity will probably be quite as much as one family will be able to cultivate; it is so fertile and wonderfully productive.

Agents have been established at various convenient points to assist emigrants on their arrival in the country, by giving them information and furnishing them with the necessary certificates and passports to enable them to pass the custom-houses, to enjoy all the rights, privileges, and exemptions of the Emperor's decree.

At present the following agencies have been established, namely: L. Orotesa, at Vera Cruz; John Perkins, formerly of Louisiana, at Cordova; John T. Lux, formerly of Louisiana, at Monterey; Alonzo Ridley, of California, at Mazatlan; Captain of port of Tampico, at Tampico; Captain of port of San Blas, at San Blas; Captain of port of Matamoros, at Matamoros; Mr. Ramon de la Vega, President de la Junta de los Mejores de Colima, at Manzanillo.

Favorable inducements were also held out to European emigrants, several companies of whom, from Germany, Italy, and Belgium, were at the close of the year reported on their way to Mexico. In June a proposition was made by the Minister of Agriculture and Manufactures, to introduce one hundred thousand laborers from the coast of Africa to cultivate the *tierras calientes*, which would otherwise have to be abandoned, as the white race cannot support the heat of the climate. He estimated the consequent increase of national wealth at fifty millions of dollars annually. On the authority of Mr. Arroyo, the imperial agent in New York, Maximilian later in the year expressly declined to permit the introduction of this class of emigrants. According to the same person, an importation of Chinese coolies was forbidden, "on account of the conditions imposed upon said workmen, which reduce them to a state of virtual slavery." Mr. Arroyo was further authorized to announce, that "not even a shadow of slavery would be tolerated in the empire, and that colonization would be made with freemen, under no other conditions than those to which the civilized world consents, and the law of the empire demands."

The financial condition of the empire proved to Maximilian and his ministers a source of great and constantly increasing perplexity. The inexperience and unpractical character of the committee of Mexicans appointed in 1864 to devise a system of finance, prevented,

as might have been supposed, the adoption of any sensible measure. Meanwhile the expenses of the empire so largely exceeded the receipts, that unless some means were speedily taken either to enhance the revenue or to retrench, the permanence of the Government would become exceedingly questionable. From a pamphlet published in Washington in the interest of the friends of the Mexican Republican Government, we derive the following statement of the public debt of the country at the close of 1865:

	Public Debt	Annual Int.
Foreign debt, as recognized by the constitutional Government in 1862, indebtedness acknowledged to the French Government by Maximilian for the expenses of the intervention to July 1, 1864, of which \$10,000,000 were paid out of the first loan, and the balance funded at 3 per cent., viz:.....	\$78,772,648	\$2,583,428
First loan put out for account of Maximilian, at 6 per cent. interest, To pay France the above \$10,000,000 and more on account of reclamations to French subjects further bonds (as an additional loan) were put in circulation, to the amount of.....	40,000,000	1,200,000
Second loan put out for account of Maximilian in Paris, being the lottery loan, at 6 per cent. interest, amounting to.....	40,000,000	2,400,000
	20,870,870	1,222,222
	92,592,592	5,555,555
	\$71,785,605	\$12,966,204

From this it would appear that the public debt has been increased by the experiment of intervention, and the establishment of an empire, \$190,103,045 over the sum total under the republic. The contrast between the annual expenditures of the two governments is equally striking, as the following tables show:

<i>Annual expenditures of the Government of the Republic as established by law of Congress August 16, 1861.</i>	
Interest on the foreign debt.....	\$2,760,022
For foreign relations.....	\$210,840
For home departments.....	1,798,069
For finance.....	1,578,624
For war.....	4,745,895
	8,927,418
<i>Total annual expenditures of the national Government.....</i>	
	\$11,037,440
<i>Annual expenditures of the Government of Maximilian.</i>	
Interest on his foreign debt (of which interest \$10,877,777 is to France).....	\$12,966,204
Annual cost of his lottery scheme in Paris.....	1,891,287
Personal expenses and civil list of Maximilian \$10,500 per day (paid daily).....	8,582,500
25,000,000 francs per annum on account of expenses of French contingent, according to treaty of Miramar.....	4,029,629
400,000 francs per voyage subvention to the French line of transport steamers from St. Nazaire.....	868,888
Ministers, legations, consulates, agents, employes, pensions, gifts, travelling expenses, military and civil expenses, and charges of his foreign armed force.....	26,220,563
	49,929,226
<i>Total annual expenses under Maximilian... \$49,929,226</i>	
<i>Annual expenses as fixed by the national Congress under the republic.....</i>	
	11,087,440
<i>Annual increase under Maximilian.....</i>	
	\$38,841,886

* This should more properly, perhaps, be stated at \$51,632,560. The sum of \$2,559,917, which represents the debts recognized under the republic as due to French subjects, is included in the additional loan of \$20,870,870, given lower down in the table.

No budget for 1865 has been published by the Imperial Government, and the above figures cannot therefore be substantially verified. Other estimates place the annual expenses at about \$42,000,000. But all accounts agree that the expenditures for the current fiscal year will more than double the amount of receipts, and that under the present Government it will be impossible to meet the annual deficit otherwise than by loans. As has been previously stated, the Emperor Napoleon sent to the assistance of Maximilian an able financier, M. Langlais, to extricate him from his embarrassments. He at once proposed, as one of the first reforms to be instituted, to reduce the large appropriation annually made for the support of the imperial establishment; and unless these economies were acceded to, refused to accept the office of Minister of Finance, which he was expected to fill. The Emperor was equally opposed to this species of reduction, and for a time all schemes of retrenchment failed. Meanwhile the imperial treasury was so nearly drained of funds, that in December a loan of \$300,000 was thankfully received from Marshal Bazaine, on account of the French Government, to meet current demands; and measures were in progress to secure another European loan of \$100,000,000. Finally, the Emperor acceded to the demands of M. Langlais, who thereupon accepted office, and proceeded to institute several important financial reforms. At the close of the year his plan had not been fully developed, but it was understood that he intended to cut down the personal expenses and civil list of the Emperor to \$3,000 per day, and to do away with several superfluous ministries which entailed a useless expense. At this moment it would seem that the existence of the Imperial Government depends upon the negotiation of the new loan. Should that fail, it is supposed that a general forced loan will be resorted to, which, it is feared, would lead to an uprising of the people.

In October the Republican Government of Mexico through its agents, John W. Corlies and Co., put into the New York market a loan of \$30,000,000. Faithful payment of the bonds and interest was guaranteed by the General Government of the republic of Mexico and of the States of Tamaulipas and San Luis Potosi, and was declared to be further secured by the special pledge, having the effect of a national mortgage, of 5,000,000 of acres of agricultural and 500,000 of mineral lands in the States of Tamaulipas and San Luis Potosi. The agricultural lands thus pledged are estimated at the value of from one to fifty dollars per acre, and the mineral lands at the minimum value of one hundred dollars per acre, which would make the aggregate specific security, at the lowest price, amount to \$55,000,000. Mr. Romero, the Mexican minister at Washington, certified that the loan had been authorized in November, 1864, and was duly offered by the

proper agents. At the close of the year the bonds were reported to have had a fair sale. A resolution was about that time offered in Congress that the United States Government should pledge itself for the payment of the loan, but no action has yet been taken upon it.

Whatever may be the fate of the imperial sway in Mexico, the country undoubtedly owes to it the present vigorous prosecution of the line of railway which is to unite the capital with Vera Cruz. Throughout the year this work, surpassing in the magnitude of the difficulties to be overcome almost any road ever projected, was pushed forward with great activity, and it is now estimated that the portion between Puebla and the city of Mexico will be completed in the summer of 1866. A section from the capital to Chalco, thirty-six miles in length, was successfully opened in October. This road, which, after leaving Puebla, passes through Orizaba on its way to the coast, is under charge of an English company, who have sub-let a portion of the work to a French company. Another line, from Puebla to Vera Cruz, passing through Jalapa and Perote, has also been projected; also a road from Guaymas to Libertad on the Gulf of California. The Emperor has granted to Messrs. Clute and Co. the right to establish three lines of telegraph, viz.: from Guanajuato to Matamoras, passing through San Luis, Saltillo, and Monterey; from Matamoras to Vera Cruz, passing through Victoria, Tampico, and Tuxpan; and from San Luis to Durango, passing through Aguas Calientes, Zacatecas, Fresnillo, and Sombretete. These are in addition to one already projected between the capital and Vera Cruz. In December an imperial decree granted to J. Stanley Keeling the right for ten years to run a line of steamers between Vera Cruz and New York.

During 1865 the United States Government continued to be represented in the city of Mexico by W. H. Corwin, acting chargé in the absence of the Hon. Thomas Corwin, the regularly accredited minister to the constitutional Government. No minister was accredited by the Imperial Government to the United States; and from official expressions of the State Department, it may be presumed that none would have been recognized. In compliance with a resolution of the House of Representatives, adopted December 18th, requesting "information in regard to steps taken by the so-called Emperor of Mexico, or by any European power, to obtain from the United States a recognition of the so-called empire of Mexico, and what action has been taken in the premises by the Government of the United States," the President sent to Congress an elaborate diplomatic correspondence, from which it appears that on July 17th the French minister, M. Montholon, called at the Department of State and informed Mr. Seward that a special agent had arrived from Mexico, bearing a letter from Maximilian to the President of the United States, with papers making certain explanations relative to

transactions on the Rio Grande, upon which the United States Government had made representations to the Imperial Government of France. On the 18th of July Mr. Seward, after conference with the President, returned the letter to M. Montholon, saying that the United States was in friendly communication with the Republican Government of Mexico, and therefore that the President declined to receive the letter, or to hold intercourse with the agent who brought it.

On the 1st of August M. Romero, the Mexican minister, informed the Department that Don Luis Arroyo assumed to act as commercial agent in New York without an exequatur or other recognition by the United States Government, and asked whether the Government recognized the right of Maximilian to make such appointment. Mr. Seward replied, August 9th, that no law of the United States prevents a person from advertising himself as consul, but that the United States Government in all its official correspondence has recognized no other government in Mexico except that of Juarez; and that such a commercial agent can perform no consular act relating to the affairs of his countrymen in the United States. "To prohibit him from attesting invoices and manifests," said the Secretary, "would be tantamount to an interdiction of trade between the United States and those Mexican ports which are not in possession of the Republican Government of that country. The consuls of the United States in Mexico, who have their exequatur from that Government only, themselves discharge duties as commercial agents in the ports which are not under the control of the Government in all respects like those which the person, Arroyo, in the same way and to the same extent, claims to do in New York in respect to said ports."

Although the evacuation of Mexico by the French troops had been expressly provided for in the convention concluded between France and Mexico in 1864, and M. Drouyn de Lhuys had stated the intention of Napoleon to withdraw his troops as soon as the government of Maximilian was established, and they could with propriety depart, few indications were afforded in 1865 of any desire or preparation to lessen the foreign contingent in the imperial service. Bodies of troops, it is true, were from time to time sent home, but their places were generally filled by others arriving from France, and at the close of the year precisely the same condition of affairs existed as had in former years caused remonstrances from the United States Government. These remonstrances were repeated during the year with undiminished earnestness by Mr. Seward. On July 13th he wrote to Mr. Bigelow, acting chargé in Paris, enclosing a number of intercepted letters received from the Mexican minister in Washington, which went to show complicity on the part of the French authorities in Mexico in Gwin's colonization scheme heretofore mentioned.

These he requested him to present to M. Drouyn de Lhuys, and frankly inform him that the sympathies of the American people are already considerably excited in favor of the republic of Mexico; and because they are disposed to regard with impatience the continued intervention of France in the country, any favor shown to the proceedings of Dr. Gwin by the titular Emperor of Mexico or by the Imperial Government of France, with reference to those agents, will tend greatly to increase the popular impatience, because it will be regarded, perhaps justly, as imparting dangers to, or at least as a menace against the United States. Under date of November 6th Mr. Seward represented to Mr. Bigelow that the presence and operations of a French army in Mexico, and its maintenance of authority there, was a cause of serious concern to the United States. Nevertheless the objections of the United States were still broader, and included the authority itself which the French army was thus maintaining. That authority, he said, was in direct antagonism to the policy of this Government and the principle on which it is founded. "Every day's experience of its operation only adds some new confirmation of the justice of the views which this Government expressed at the time the attempt to institute that authority first became known. The United States have hitherto practised the utmost frankness on that subject. They still regard the attempt to establish permanently a foreign and Imperial Government in Mexico as disallowable and impracticable, for the reasons they could not now agree to compromise the position they have heretofore assumed. They are not prepared to recognize or to pledge themselves hereafter to recognize any political institutions in Mexico which are in opposition to the Republican Government with which we have so long and so constantly maintained relations of amity and friendship." He said, in closing, that "it is hardly necessary to say that we should not be dwelling so earnestly upon this branch of political relations if it had not been our conviction that those relations of the present moment supersede those of commerce in the consideration of the American people." Mr. Bigelow, under date of November 30th, reports reading the despatch of Mr. Seward to M. Drouyn de Lhuys, who thanked him, though he felt obliged to say that he derived neither pleasure nor satisfaction from its contents.

On the 3d of November Mr. Seward wrote to Mr. Bigelow with reference to the summary execution of Gen. Arteaga and his brother officers, saying: "I am directed by the President to request you to ask the serious attention of the French Government to the military proceedings in Mexico, by which native Mexicans taken captives while adhering in war to their own Republican Government are denied rights which the law of nations invariably accords to prisoners of war." Mr. Bigelow communicated to the French Government this protest of the United States against the atrocious acts of Na-

poleon's agent; and on the 30th of November he received an official reply, in which M. Drouyn de Lhuys, on the part of the Emperor, formally repudiated not merely the acts of Maximilian, but that person himself. The following is Mr. Bigelow's report of the interview:

M. Drouyn de Lhuys referred to the representation I had made in regard to the shooting of the Mexican prisoners taken in war, and also to the case of Madame de Iturbide. "Why," he said, "do you not go to President Juarez? We are not the Government of Mexico, and you do us too much honor to treat us as such. We had to go to Mexico with an army to secure certain important interests, but we are not responsible for Maximilian or his Government. He is accountable to you, as to any other Government, if he violates its rights, and you have the same remedies there that we had."

Full details respecting these and other diplomatic questions arising between France and the United States, will be found under the head of DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE.

MICHIGAN. The Legislature of Michigan convened at Lansing on January 4, 1865, and was organized by the choice of Republican officers in both houses. Gilbert E. Reed was elected speaker of the House of Representatives. Austin Blair, the retiring Governor, delivered his valedictory message, and Henry H. Crapo, the Governor elect, was inaugurated. Among the acts passed by this Legislature was one submitting to the people at the fall election of 1866 an amendment to the State Constitution allowing colored men to vote, and one authorizing a loan of \$1,000,000 for the purpose of paying a State bounty of \$150 each to volunteers enlisting in the service of the United States subsequent to February 15, 1865.

The receipts and expenditures of Michigan for the fiscal year ending November 30, 1865, are exhibited in the following table:

Balance in treasury November 30, 1864.....	\$440,047 27
Receipts for fiscal year 1865.....	1,954,313 68
Total available funds for 1865.....	\$2,394,360 43
Total payments for fiscal year 1865.....	1,925,964 14
Balance in treasury December 1, 1865.....	468,399 29

The number of men entitled to the bounty of \$150 was estimated at 5,000; and with a view of raising the required sum, about \$750,000, the Treasurer of the State visited New York in May, and offered at private sale the bonds authorized to be issued in payment of the bounties. Public attention being then absorbed in investments in national securities, he met with no success; and upon advertising proposals for the bonds in Michigan soon after, he received bids for only \$41,000, the greater part of which were considerably below par. Under these circumstances he adopted the expedient of exchanging the bonds for the bounty certificates given to the recruits upon enlisting, and in this way disposed of \$345,000, which is somewhat less than half the amount required. By the provisions of an "act authorizing a war bounty loan," approved February 5, 1864, a loan of \$500,000 was authorized for bounty purposes. The money arising from this loan was

applicable to bounties to fill the quotas of 1864. Under the provisions of this act the Treasurer issued the balance of these bonds to the amount of \$270,000, all of which was purchased by the treasury office for the sinking fund. The war fund account stands as follows:

Amount received for bonds under act No. 24, 1864.....	\$270,000 00
Amount received for bonds under act No. 85, 1865.....	845,000 00
Accrued interest received of buyers of above bonds.....	3,296 73
Of the amount levied in 1864, taxes for interest on War Loan, the amount actually paid is credited to this fund.....	86,535 00
Received for a coupon paid by mistake.....	8 50
	<u>\$704,839 23</u>

The War Fund was overdrawn at the close of the fiscal year 1864.....	73,218 43
The payments on account of this fund for the fiscal year 1865, were.....	617,911 17
Leaving a balance to the credit of the fund of....	13,757 69
	<u>\$704,839 23</u>

During the fiscal year 1865, the sum of \$279,591 was set apart for the several sinking funds authorized by law. The funded interest-bearing debt of the State is as follows:

Renewed Loan Bonds, 6s, due January 1, 1873.....	\$216,000 00
Two Million Loan Bonds, 7s, " " 1, 1865.....	250,000 00
" " " 6s, " " 1, 1873.....	500,000 00
" " " 6s, " " 1, 1873.....	500,000 00
" " " 6s, " " 1, 1868.....	750,000 00
War Loan Bonds, 7s, due January 1, 1864.....	1,122,000 00
St. Marie Canal Bonds, 6s, due January 1, 1873.....	100,000 00
War Bounty Loan, 7s, due May 1, 1890.....	845,000 00
Total.....	<u>\$3,733,000 00</u>
The amount of non-interest bearing debt is—	
Adjusted bonds, past due.....	4,000 00
Full paid \$5,000,000 Loan Bonds, past due.....	12,000 00
War Loan Bonds, \$100 and \$50, called in.....	400 00
\$140,000 unrecognized 5,000,000 Loan Bonds, adjustable for.....	50,999 50

Making a total of funded and fundable debt, of.....	\$3,830,399 50
Increase since 1864.....	<u>\$630,350 50</u>

The Trust Fund debt is made up of the following amounts and funds respectively, to wit:

Primary School Fund.....	\$1,144,389 70
University Fund.....	264,571 47
Normal School Fund.....	20,294 23
Railroad Deposits.....	2,157 83
Total.....	<u>\$1,430,413 23</u>

The charges of the State against the General Government, from the commencement of the war to May 1, 1865, amount to \$723,318.42. This includes clothing, equipage, pay, transportation, food, etc., and every thing under instructions of the Treasury Department chargeable; and the proper accounts and vouchers have been forwarded to the Secretary of the Treasury. The war tax apportioned to this State, by act of Congress, was \$501,763.33. Fifteen per cent. of this tax, under instructions of Secretary Chase, was deducted, and \$92,000 has been paid to the State by the General Government, leaving the claim of the State \$204,819.58 subject to adjustment.

The number of troops raised by the State under all calls was, according to the report of the United States Provost Marshal General, 90,119, or, reduced to a three years' standard, 80,865.

The population of Michigan, according to the State census of 1864, was given in our volume for last year. From the statistics of the census published early in 1865 by the Secretary of State, it appears that Michigan contains 35,995,520 acres of land, of which but 3,647,645 acres are improved, and but 12,086,660 returned as taxable. There are, if equally apportioned, about $4\frac{1}{4}$ acres of improved land for every man, woman, and child in the State. The following table gives the amount of the crops raised in the State in the two years immediately preceding the censuses of 1854 and 1864:

	Census of 1854.	Census of 1864.
Wheat, acres.....	473,571	841,881
Wheat, bushels.....	7,027,982	9,687,627
Corn, acres.....	827,556	427,529
Corn, bushels.....	7,690,658	11,007,284
Other grain, bushels.....	2,394,420	4,198,244
Potatoes, bushels.....	2,917,494	4,069,271
Hay, tons.....	496,041	843,846
Pork, pounds.....	11,258,841	89,137,002
Butter, pounds.....	7,924,896	18,536,452
Cheese, pounds.....	779,580	1,690,945
Sugar, pounds.....	1,611,462	4,044,899
Horses.....	91,564	176,068
Work oxen.....	67,083	60,648
Milk cows.....	139,260	292,138
Other neat cattle.....	141,238	210,830
Sheep.....	964,883	2,058,363
Swine.....	289,582	825,259
Mules.....	106	1,116

The wheat crop of Michigan for 1863 averaged but $11\frac{1}{4}$ bushels to the acre, being much below the ordinary yield. The hay crop is the next in value, being worth more than \$15,000,000 for 1863. The average amount of butter made per cow in 1863 was 59 lbs. 9 oz., and of cheese 6 lbs. 13 oz. Sorghum and imphee are not mentioned in the table, but the total manufacture of sugar in 1864 was 4,044,899 lbs., or more than five pounds for each inhabitant.

The number of sheep in Michigan has nearly doubled since the taking of the last State census, and in 1863 the average yield per head was 3 lbs. $8\frac{1}{4}$ oz., or nearly one pound greater than in the whole country in 1859. There were, in 1863, 2,058,363 sheep in the State, the clip from which amounted to 7,294,934 pounds, or nearly one-tenth of the whole quantity produced in the United States. This shows an annual increase of 796,769 pounds since 1859. The clip of 1864 was estimated at 1,000,000 pounds more than that of 1863. From these data it would seem that Michigan is destined to become one of the leading, if not the first, wool-growing State in the Union.

The following table exhibits the lumber product, which is one of the chief sources of wealth possessed by the State:

	1854.	1864.	Aggregate increase.	Per ct.
Number of saw mills.....	922	1,078	151	16.4
Persons employed.....	4,579	7,747	3,168	69.2
Feet of lumber sawed.....	392,920,714	621,477,904	228,557,190	58.2
Capital invested.....	\$2,442,573	\$6,109,070	\$3,666,492	150.5
Value of product.....	\$3,272,086	\$3,868,560	\$5,090,514	155.5

A number of mills made no returns. Adding the number of feet sawn by these to the above

figures, the annual amount of lumber produced in Michigan is estimated by the Secretary of State at nearly 8,000,000 feet. Of this amount upward of 3,000,000 feet came from the Saginaw River district.

The statistics of mining products are incomplete. It appears, however, that 273,000 tons of iron ore were produced in 1863, an amount only exceeded by Pennsylvania in 1860. Between 1854 and 1864 the number of copper mines increased nearly 120 per cent., and the amount of copper mined over 180 per cent. The following is a statement of the shipments of copper during 1865:

	Tons.	Lbs.
Portage Lake district.....	4,596	556
Keweenaw district.....	3,234	1,678
Ontonagon district.....	2,140	945
Total shipments.....	9,971	3,874

Or within twenty-eight tons of a grand total of 10,000 tons. In each district there has been a considerable increase over the product of 1864, the greatest being in Keweenaw district. The following are the amounts of increase, as near as can be ascertained:

	Tons.	Lbs.
Keweenaw district.....	775	1,568
Ontonagon district.....	420
Portage Lake district.....	350	1,481
Total increase.....	1,546	1,027

TABLE OF SHIPMENTS.

	Tons.	Tons.
1845 to 1854.....	7,642	1862..... 9,062
1855 to 1857.....	11,312	1863..... 8,548
1858.....	8,500	1864..... 8,479
1859.....	4,200	1865..... 9,971
1860.....	6,000	
1861.....	7,400	Total..... 76,107

An impulse is likely to be given to the production of copper in Michigan by the building of a harbor and ship canal at Portage Lake, Keweenaw Point, Lake Superior, in aid of which Congress in 1865 granted a large tract of land. Whenever the State shall be fully reimbursed for advances in this work, such tolls only are to be charged as shall pay the expenses of the canal.

Michigan promises to become one of the chief apple-raising States of the Union. The shipments in 1865 were estimated at 410,000 barrels, which, at an average price of \$3.50 per barrel, were worth nearly \$1,500,000. They were sent to all parts of the country, the winter fruit going principally to the Eastern and Middle States. Connected with this subject is the new method of preserving fruit in storehouses, from which the natural dampness of the atmosphere has been eliminated, and in which the proportion of oxygen has been diminished. A model building of this description has recently been erected in Detroit, having a capacity of storing 30,000 bushels of fruit. In the gradual ripening of fruit hydrogen and carbon are constantly given off; the former unites with the oxygen of the air and forms water—the latter carbonic acid. This process in any confined vessel filled with fruit, consumes all the oxygen, especially if the fruit be ripe and the air warm,

in about forty-eight hours. The rooms of this house will be gas-tight, and when filled with fruit, if closed up for two days, a candle will go out in them almost instantly. The fruit will be then surrounded by an atmosphere composed of the nitrogen of the air and carbonic acid. The former is destitute of all active properties, good or bad. The latter is not sufficiently acid, unless under heavy pressure, to produce any action on fruits immersed in it. Hydrogen and carbon then cease to be evolved from the fruit, as there is now no agent to unite with them, in the same way that they cease to be evolved from a burning candle, when the air is removed. Decomposition ceases in both cases, and for the same reason. The principle is thus stated by Liebig: "Decay is much retarded in the absence of moisture, and by the substance being surrounded with an atmosphere of carbonic acid, which prevents the air from coming in contact with decaying matter."

From the census returns of 1864 we extract the following table of towns containing over five thousand inhabitants:

	Population, 1860.	Population, 1864.
Adrian.....	6,194	7,044
Ann Arbor.....	4,447	5,781
Detroit.....	43,878	58,170
East Saginaw.....	3,005	5,725
Grand Rapids.....	8,090	9,770
Jackson.....	4,739	6,544
Kalamazoo.....	6,075	6,807

The only election held in the State in 1865 took place on April 3d, and was for an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court and two Regents of the University. The Democrats having made no nomination for the former office, Isaac P. Christiancy, Republican, was almost unanimously elected, receiving 59,720 votes out of a total vote of 59,892. The vote for Regents of the University was as follows: Republicans—E. C. Walker, 52,334; G. Willard, 50,843. Democrats—O. C. Comstock, 19,883; E. Wells, 19,426. Average Republican majority, 32,184.

MILITARY COMMISSIONS. Trials for offences by military commissions greatly increased during the year. These tribunals took jurisdiction of such offences as were submitted to their decision, including murder, the passing of counterfeit money, and election frauds.

The most important trials were those of the conspirators for the murder of President Lincoln, and that of Capt. Wirz for cruelty to the Union prisoners at Andersonville. Before ordering the trials of any persons charged with the murder of Mr. Lincoln, President Johnson applied to the Attorney-General of the United States, Mr. Speed, for his opinion as to whether such persons were subject to the jurisdiction and legally liable before a military commission. Mr. Speed gave his opinion that they were so liable, and in July the reasons of that opinion are given in a letter to the President. This opinion contains all that has been advanced in favor of the jurisdiction and legality of such tribunals. It is as follows:

ATTY-GENERAL'S OFFICE, WASHINGTON, July —, 1865.

SIR: You ask me whether the persons charged with the offence of having assassinated the President can be tried before a military tribunal, or must they be tried before a civil court.

The President was assassinated at a theatre in the city of Washington. At the time of the assassination a civil war was flagrant, the city of Washington was defended by fortifications regularly and constantly manned, the principal police of the city was by Federal soldiers, the public offices and property in the city were all guarded by soldiers, and the President's house and person were, or should have been, under the guard of soldiers. Martial law had been declared in the District of Columbia; but the civil courts were open and transacted business as in times of peace.

Such being the facts, the question is one of great importance—important, because it involves the constitutional guaranties thrown about the rights of the citizen, and because the security of the army and the Government in time of war is involved—important, as it involves a seeming conflict betwixt the laws of peace and of war.

Having given the question propounded the patient and earnest consideration its magnitude and importance require, I will proceed to give the reasons why I am of the opinion that the conspirators not only may be, but ought to be, tried by a military tribunal.

A civil court of the United States is created by a law of Congress under and according to the Constitution. To the Constitution and the law we must look to ascertain how the court is constituted, the limits of its jurisdiction, and what its mode of procedure.

A military tribunal exists under and according to the Constitution in time of war. Congress may prescribe how all such tribunals are to be constituted, what shall be their jurisdiction and mode of procedure. Should Congress fail to create such tribunals, then, under the Constitution, they must be constituted according to the laws and usages of civilized warfare. They may take cognizance of such offences as the laws of war permit; they must proceed according to the customary usages of such tribunals in time of war, and inflict such punishments as are sanctioned by the practice of civilized nations in time of war. In time of peace neither Congress nor the military can create any military tribunals, except such as are made in pursuance of that clause of the Constitution which gives to Congress the power "to make rules for the Government of the land and naval forces." I do not think that Congress can, in time of war or peace, under this clause of the Constitution, create military tribunals for the adjudication of offences committed by persons not engaged in or belonging to such forces. This is a proposition too plain for argument. But it does not follow because such military tribunals cannot be created by Congress under this clause, that they cannot be created at all. Is there no other power conferred by the Constitution upon Congress or the military under which such tribunals may be created in time of war?

That the law of nations constitutes a part of the laws of the land must be admitted. The laws of nations are expressly made laws of the land by the Constitution, when it says that "Congress shall have power to define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas and offences against the laws of nations." To define, is to give the limits or precise meaning of a word or a thing in being; to make, is to call into being. Congress has power to define, not to make, the laws of nations; but Congress has power to make rules for the government of the army and navy. From the very face of the Constitution, then, it is evident that the laws of nations do constitute a part of the laws of the land. But very soon after the organization of the Federal

Government, Mr. Randolph, then Attorney-General, said: "The law of nations, although not specifically adopted by the Constitution, is especially a part of the law of the land. Its obligation commences and runs with the existence of a nation, subject to modification on some points of indifference." (See opinion, Attorney-General, vol. i., page 27.) The framers of the Constitution knew that a nation could not maintain an honorable place among the nations of the world, that does not regard the great and essential principles of the law of nations as a part of the law of the land. Hence Congress may define those laws, but cannot abrogate them, or, as Mr. Randolph says, may "modify on some points of indifference."

That the laws of nations constitute a part of the laws of the land is established from the face of the Constitution upon principle and by authority.

But the laws of war constitute much the greater part of the law of nations. Like the other laws of nations, they exist and are of binding force upon the departments and citizens of the Government, though not defined by any law of Congress. No one that has ever glanced at the many treatises that have been published in different ages of the world by great, good, and learned men, can fail to know that the laws of war constitute a part of the law of nations, and that those laws have been prescribed with tolerable accuracy.

Congress can declare war. When war is declared, it must be, under the Constitution, carried on according to the known laws and usages of war among civilized nations. Under the power to define those laws, Congress cannot abrogate them or authorize their infraction. The Constitution does not permit this Government to prosecute a war as an uncivilized and barbarous people.

As war is required by the framework of our Government to be prosecuted according to the known usages of war among the civilized nations of the earth, it is important to understand what are the obligations, duties, and responsibilities imposed by war upon the military. Congress not having defined, as under the Constitution it might have done, the laws of war, we must look to the usage of nations to ascertain the powers conferred in war, on whom the exercise of such powers devolve, over whom, and to what extent do those powers reach, and in how far the citizen and the soldier are bound by the legitimate use thereof.

The power conferred by war is, of course, adequate to the end to be accomplished, and not greater than what is necessary to be accomplished. The law of war, like every other code of laws, declares what shall not be done, and does not say what may be done. The legitimate use of the great power of war, or rather the prohibitions upon the use of that power, increase or diminish, as the necessity of the case demands. Where a city is besieged and hard pressed, the commander may exert an authority over the non-combatants which he may not when no enemy is near.

All wars against a domestic enemy or to repel invasions are prosecuted to preserve the Government. If the invading force can be overcome by the ordinary civil policy of a country, it should be done without bringing upon the country the terrible scourge of war; if a commotion or an insurrection can be put down by the ordinary process of law, the military should not be called out. A defensive foreign war is declared and carried on because the civil police is inadequate to repel it; a civil war is waged because the laws cannot be peacefully enforced by the ordinary tribunals of the country through civil process and by civil officers. Because of the utter inability to keep the peace and maintain order by the customary officers and agencies in time of peace, armies are organized and put into the field. They are called out and invested with the powers of war to prevent total anarchy, and to preserve the Government. Peace is the normal condition of a country, and war abnormal, neither being without law, but each having

laws appropriate to the condition of society. The maxim *inter arma silent leges* is never wholly true. The object of war is to bring society out of its abnormal condition; and the laws of war aim to have that done with the least possible injury to persons or property.

Anciently, when two nations were at war, the conqueror had or asserted the right to take from his enemy his life, liberty, and property; if either was spared, it was as a favor or act of mercy. By the laws of nations, and of war as a part thereof, the conqueror was deprived of this right.

When two governments, foreign to each other, are at war, or when a civil war becomes territorial, all of the people of the respective belligerents become by the law of nations enemies of each other. As enemies they cannot hold intercourse, but neither can kill or injure the other except under a commission from their respective governments. So humanizing have been and are the laws of war, that it is a high offence against them to kill an enemy without such commission. The laws of war demand that a man shall not take human life except under a license from his government; and under the Constitution of the United States no license can be given by any department of the Government to take human life in war, except according to the law and usages of war. Soldiers regularly in the service have the license of the Government to deprive men, the active enemies of their Government, of their liberty and lives. Their commission so to act is as perfect and legal as that of a judge to adjudicate, but the soldier must act in obedience to the laws of war, as the judge must in obedience to the civil law. A civil judge must try criminals in the mode prescribed in the Constitution and the law; so soldiers must kill or capture according to the laws of war. Non-combatants are not to be disturbed or interfered with by the armies of either party except in extreme cases. Armies are called out and organized to meet and overcome the active, acting public enemies. But enemies with whom an army have to deal are of two classes:

1st. Open, active participants in hostilities, and soldiers who wear the uniform, move under the flag, and hold the appropriate commission from their Government. Openly assuming to discharge the duties and meet the responsibilities and dangers of soldiers, they are entitled to all belligerent rights, and should receive all the courtesies due to soldiers. The true soldier is proud to acknowledge and respect those rights, and ever cheerfully extends those courtesies.

2d. Secret but active participants, as spies, brigands, bushwhackers, jayhawkers, war rebels, and assassins. In all wars, and especially in civil wars, such secret, active enemies rise up to annoy and attack an army, and they must be met and put down by the army. When lawless wretches become so impudent and powerful as not to be controlled and governed by the ordinary tribunals of a country, armies are called out and the laws of war invoked. Wars never have been and never can be conducted upon the principle that an army is but a *posse comitatus* of a civil magistrate.

An army, like all other organized bodies, has a right, and it is its first duty to protect its own existence, and the existence of all its parts, by the means and in the mode usual among civilized nations when at war. Then the question arises, do the laws of war authorize a different mode of proceeding and the use of different means against secret active enemies from those used against open active enemies?

As has been said, the open enemy or soldier in time of war may be met in battle and killed, wounded or taken prisoner, or so placed by the lawful strategy of war as that he is powerless. Unless the law of self-preservation absolutely demands it, the life of a wounded enemy or a prisoner must be spared. Unless pressed thereto by the extremest necessity, the laws of war condemn and punish with great severity

harsh or cruel treatment to a wounded enemy or a prisoner.

Certain stipulations and agreements, tacit or express, betwixt the open belligerent parties are permitted by the laws of war, and are held to be of very high and sacred character. Such is the tacit understanding, or it may be usage of war, in regard to flags of truce. Flags of truce are resorted to as a means of saving human life, or alleviating human suffering. When not used with perfidy, the laws of war require that they should be respected. The Romans regarded ambassadors betwixt belligerents as persons to be treated with consideration and respect. Plutarch, in his *Life of Cæsar*, tells us that the barbarians in Gaul having sent some ambassadors to Cæsar, he detained them, charging fraudulent practices, and led his army to battle, obtaining a great victory.

When the Senate decreed festivals and sacrifices for the victory, Cato declared it to be his opinion that Cæsar ought to be given into the hands of the barbarians, that so the guilt which this breach of faith might otherwise bring upon the State might be expiated by transferring the curse on him who was the occasion of it.

Under the Constitution and laws of the United States, should a commander be guilty of such a flagrant breach of law as Cato charged upon Cæsar, he would not be delivered to the enemy, but would be punished after a military trial. The many honorable gentlemen who hold commissions in the army of the United States, and have been deputed to conduct war according to the laws of war, would keenly feel it as an insult to their profession of arms for any one to say that they could not or would not punish a fellow-soldier who was guilty of wanton cruelty to a prisoner, or perfidy toward the bearers of a flag of truce.

The laws of war permit capitulations of surrender and paroles. They are arguments betwixt belligerents, and should be scrupulously observed and performed. They are contracts wholly unknown to civil tribunals. Parties to such contracts must answer any breaches thereof to the customary military tribunals in time of war. If an officer of rank, possessing the pride that becomes a soldier and a gentleman, who should capitulate to surrender the forces and property under his command and control, be charged with a fraudulent breach of the terms of surrender, the laws of war do not permit that he should be punished without a trial, or, if innocent, that he shall have no means of wiping out the foul imputation. If a paroled prisoner is charged with a breach of his parole, he may be punished if guilty, but not without a trial. He should be tried by a military tribunal constituted and proceeding as the laws and usages of war prescribe.

The laws and usage of war contemplate that soldiers have a high sense of personal honor. The true soldier is proud to feel and know that his enemy possesses personal honor, and will conform and be obedient to the laws of war. In a spirit of justice, and with a wise appreciation of such feelings, the laws of war protect the character and honor of an open enemy. When, by the fortunes of war, one open enemy is thrown into the hands and power of another, and is charged with dishonorable conduct and a breach of the laws of war, he must be tried according to the usages of war. Justice and fairness say that an open enemy, to whom dishonorable conduct is imputed, has a right to demand a trial. If such a demand can be rightfully made, surely it cannot be rightfully refused. It is to be hoped that the military authorities of this country will never refuse such a demand, because there is no act of Congress that authorizes it. In time of war the law and usage of war authorize it, and they are part of the law of the land.

One belligerent may request the other to punish for breaches of the laws of war, and, regularly, such a request should be made before retaliatory measures

are taken. Whether the laws of war have been infringed or not, is of necessity a question to be decided by the laws and usages of war, and is cognizable before a military tribunal. When prisoners of war conspire to escape, or are guilty of a breach of appropriate and necessary rules of prison discipline, they may be punished, but not without trial. The commander who should order every prisoner charged with improper conduct to be shot or hung, would be guilty of a high offence against the laws of war, and should be punished therefor, after a regular military trial. If the culprit should be condemned and executed, the commander would be as free from guilt as if the man had been killed in battle.

It is manifest, from what has been said, that military tribunals exist under and according to the laws and usages of war in the interests of justice and mercy. They are established to save human life, and to prevent cruelty as far as possible. The commander of an army in time of war has the same power to organize military tribunals and execute their judgments that he has to set his squadrons in the field and fight battles. His authority in each case is from the law and usages of war.

Having seen that there must be military tribunals to decide questions arising in time of war betwixt belligerents who are active and open enemies, let us next see whether the laws of war do not authorize such tribunal to determine the fate of those who are active, but secret, participants in the hostilities.

In Mr. Wheaton's "*Elements of International Law*" he says: "The effect of a state of war, lawfully declared to exist, is to place all the subjects of each belligerent power in a state of mutual hostility. The usage of nations has modified this maxim by legalizing such acts of hostility only as are committed by those who are authorized by the express or implied command of the State; such are the regularly commissioned naval and military forces of the nation and all others called out in its defence, or spontaneously defending themselves, in case of necessity, without any express authority for that purpose. Cicero tells us in his '*Offices*,' that by the Roman feudal law no person could lawfully engage in battle with the public enemy without being regularly enrolled and taking the military oath. This was a regulation sanctioned both by policy and religion. The horrors of war would indeed be greatly aggravated if every individual of the belligerent States were allowed to plunder and slay indiscriminately the enemy's subjects without being in any manner accountable for his conduct. Hence it is that, in land wars, irregular bands of marauders are liable to be treated as lawless banditti, not entitled to the protection of the mitigated usages of war, as practised by civilized nations."—(Wheaton's "*Elements of International Law*," page 406, 3d edition.)

In speaking upon the subject of banditti, Patrick Henry said, in the Virginia Convention: "The honorable gentleman has given you an elaborate account of what he judges tyrannical legislation, and an *ex post facto* law (in the case of Josiah Phillips); he has misrepresented the facts. That man was not executed by a tyrannical stroke of power, nor was he a Socrates; he was a fugitive murderer and an outlaw; a man who commanded an infamous banditti, and at a time when the war was at the most perilous stage he committed the most cruel and shocking barbarities; he was an enemy to the human name. Those who declare war against the human race may be struck out of existence as soon as apprehended. He was not executed according to those beautiful legal ceremonies which are pointed out by the laws in criminal cases. The enormity of his crimes did not entitle him to it. I am truly a friend to legal forms and methods, but, sir, the occasion warranted the measure. A pirate, an outlaw, or a common enemy to all mankind, may be put to death at any time. It is justified by the law of nature and

nations."—(3d volume Elliott's "Debates on the Federal Constitution," page 140.)

No reader, not to say student, of the law of nations can doubt but that Mr. Wheaton and Mr. Henry have fairly stated the laws of war. Let it be constantly borne in mind that they are talking of the law in a state of war. These banditti that spring up in time of war are respecters of no law, human or divine, of peace or of war; are *hostes humani generis*, and may be hunted down like wolves. Thoroughly desperate and perfectly lawless, no man can be required to peril his life in venturing to take them prisoners—as prisoners, no trust can be reposed in them. But they are occasionally made prisoners. Being prisoners, what is to be done with them? If they are public enemies, assuming and exercising the right to kill, and are not regularly authorized to do so, they must be apprehended and dealt with by the military. No man can doubt the right and duty of the military to make prisoners of them, and, being public enemies, it is the duty of the military to punish them for any infraction of the laws of war. But the military cannot ascertain whether they are guilty or not without the aid of a military tribunal.

In all wars, and especially in civil wars, secret but active enemies are almost as numerous as open ones. That fact has contributed to make civil wars such scourges to the countries in which they rage. In nearly all foreign wars the contending parties speak different languages, and have different habits and manners; but in most civil wars that is not the case, hence there is a security in participating secretly in hostilities that induces many to thus engage. War, prosecuted according to the most civilized usage, is horrible; but its horrors are greatly aggravated by the immemorial habits of plunder, rape, and murder practised by secret but active participants. Certain laws and usages have been adopted by the civilized world in wars between nations that are not of kin to one another, for the purpose and to the effect of arresting or softening many of the necessary cruel consequences of war. How strongly bound are we, then, in the midst of a great war, where brother and personal friend are fighting against brother and friend, to adopt and be governed by those laws and usages!

A public enemy must or should be dealt with in all wars by the same laws. The fact that they are public enemies, being the same, they should deal with each other according to those laws of war that are contemplated by the Constitution. Whatever rules have been adopted and practised by the civilized nations of the world in war to soften its harshness and severity should be adopted and practised by us in this war. That the laws of war authorized commanders to create and establish military commissions, courts, or tribunals, for the trial of offenders against the laws of war, whether they be active or secret participants in the hostilities, cannot be denied. That the judgments of such tribunals may have been sometimes harsh, and sometimes even tyrannical, does not prove that they ought not to exist, nor does it prove that they are not constituted in the interest of justice and mercy. Considering the power that the laws of war give over secret participants in hostilities, such as banditti, guerrillas, spies, etc., the position of a commander would be miserable indeed, if he could not call to his aid the judgments of such tribunals; he would become a mere butcher of men, without the power to ascertain justice, and there can be no mercy where there is no justice. War, in its mildest form, is horrible; but take away from the contending armies the ability and right to organize what is now known as a Bureau of Military Justice, they would soon become monster savages, unrestrained by any and all ideas of law and justice. Surely no lover of mankind, no one that respects law and order, no one that has the instinct of justice, or that can be softened by mercy, would in time of war take away from the commanders the right to

organize military tribunals of justice, and especially such tribunals for the protection of persons charged or suspected with being secret foes and participants in the hostilities. It would be a miracle if the records and history of this war do not show occasional cases in which those tribunals have erred; but they will show many, very many cases in which human life would have been taken, but for the interposition and judgments of those tribunals. Every student of the laws of war must acknowledge that such tribunals exert a kindly and benign influence in time of war. Impartial history will record the fact that the Bureau of Military Justice, regularly organized during this war, has saved human life and prevented human suffering. The greatest suffering patiently endured by our soldiers, and the hardest battles gallantly fought during this protracted struggle, are not more creditable to the American character than the establishment of this bureau. This people have such an educated and profound respect for law and justice—such a love of mercy—that they have, in the midst of this greatest of civil wars, systematized and brought into regular order tribunals that before this war existed under the law of war, but without general rule. To condemn the tribunals that have been established under this bureau is to condemn and denounce the war itself, or, justifying the war, to insist that it shall be prosecuted according to the harshest rules, and without the aid of the laws, usages, and customary agencies for mitigating those rules. If such tribunals had not existed before, under the laws and usages of war, the American citizen might as proudly point to their establishment as to our inimitable and inestimable constitutions. It must be constantly borne in mind that such tribunals and such a bureau cannot exist except in time of war, and cannot then take cognizance of offenders or offences where the civil courts are open, except offenders or offences against the laws of war.

But it is insisted by some, and doubtless with honesty, and with a zeal commensurate with their honesty, that such military tribunals can have no constitutional existence. The argument against their constitutionality may be shortly, and I think fairly, stated thus:

Congress alone can establish military or judicial tribunals. As Congress has not established military tribunals, except such as have been created under the articles of war, and which articles are made in pursuance of that clause in the Constitution which gives to Congress the power to make rules for the government of the army and navy, any other tribunal is and must be plainly unconstitutional, and all its acts void. This objection thus stated, or stated in any other way, begs the question. It assumes that Congress alone can establish military or judicial tribunals. Is that assumption true?

We have seen that when war comes, the laws and usages of war come also, and that during the war they are part of the laws of the land. Under the Constitution, Congress may define and punish offences against those laws, but in default of Congress's defining those laws and prescribing a punishment for their infraction, and the mode of proceeding to ascertain whether an offence has been committed, and what punishment is to be inflicted, the army must be governed by the laws and usages of war as understood and practised by the civilized nations of the world. It has been abundantly shown that these tribunals are constituted by the army in the interest of justice and mercy, and for the purpose and to the effect of mitigating the horrors of war.

But it may be insisted that though the laws of war being a part of the law of nations, constitute a part of the laws of the land, those laws must be regarded as modified so far and whenever they come in direct conflict with plain constitutional provisions. The following clauses of the Constitution are principally relied upon to show the conflict between the laws of war and the Constitution:

"The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by the jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crime shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed."—(Art. III. of the original Constitution, sec. 2.)

"No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service, in time of war or of public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb, nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation."—(Amendments to the Constitution, Art. V.)

"In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him, to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence."—(Art. VI. of Amendments to the Constitution.)

These provisions of the Constitution are intended to fling around the life, liberty, and property of a citizen all the guaranties of a jury trial. These constitutional guaranties cannot be estimated too highly or protected too sacredly. The reader of history knows that for many weary ages the people suffered for the want of them; it would not only be stupidity, but madness, in us not to preserve them. No man has a deeper conviction of their value, or a more sincere desire to preserve and perpetuate them, than I have.

Nevertheless, these exalted and sacred provisions of the Constitution must not be read alone and by themselves, but must be read and taken in connection with other provisions. The Constitution was framed by great men, men of learning and large experience, and it is a wonderful monument of their wisdom. Well versed in the history of the world, they knew that the nation for which they were forming a government would, unless all history was false, have wars, foreign and domestic. Hence the Government framed by them is clothed with the power to make and carry on war. As has been shown, when war comes, the laws of war come with it. Infractions of the laws of nations are not denominated crimes, but offences. Hence the expression in the Constitution that "Congress shall have power to define and punish * * * offences against the laws of nations." Many of the offences against the law of nations for which a man may, by the laws of war, lose his life, his liberty, or his property, are not crimes. It is an offence against the law of nations to break a lawful blockade, and for which a forfeiture of the property is the penalty, and yet the running a blockade has never been regarded as a crime. To hold communication or intercourse with the enemy is a high offence against the laws of war, and for which those laws prescribe punishment, and yet it is not a crime; to act as a spy is an offence against the laws of war, and the punishment for which, in all ages, has been death, and yet it is not a crime; to violate a flag of truce is an offence against the laws of war, and yet it is not a crime of which a civil court can take cognizance; to unite with banditti, jayhawkers, guerrillas, or any other unauthorized marauders, is a high offence against the laws of war; the offence is complete when the band is organized or joined. The atrocities committed by such a band do not constitute the offence, but make the reasons,

and sufficient reasons they are, why such banditti are denounced by the laws of war. Some of the offences against the laws of war are crimes, and some are not. Because they are not crimes they do not cease to be offences against those laws; nor because they are not crimes or misdemeanors do they fail to be offences against the laws of war. Murder is a crime, and the murderer, as such, must be proceeded against in the form and manner prescribed in the Constitution. In committing the murder an offence may also have been committed against the laws of war; for that offence he must answer to the laws of war, and the tribunals legalized by that law.

There is, then, an apparent but no real conflict in the constitutional provisions. Offences against the laws of war must be dealt with and punished under the Constitution as the laws of war, they being a part of the law of nations, direct; crimes must be dealt with and punished as the Constitution, and laws made in pursuance thereof, may direct.

Congress has not undertaken to define the code of war, nor to punish offences against it. In the case of a spy, Congress has undertaken to say who shall be deemed a spy, and how he shall be punished. But every lawyer knows that a spy was a well-known offender under the laws of war, and that under and according to those laws he could have been tried and punished without an act of Congress. This is admitted by the act of Congress when it says that he shall suffer death "according to the law and usages of war." The act is simply declaratory of the law.

That portion of the Constitution which declares that "no person shall be deprived of his life, liberty, or property, without due process of law," has such direct reference to, and connection with, trials for crime or criminal prosecutions, that comment upon it would seem to be unnecessary. Trials for offences against the laws of war are not embraced or intended to be embraced in those provisions. If this is not so, then every man that kills another in battle is a murderer, for he deprived "a person of life without that due process of law" contemplated by this provision; every man who holds another as a prisoner of war is liable for false imprisonment, as he does so without that due process of law contemplated by this provision; every soldier that marches across a field in battle array is liable to an action of trespass, because he does it without that same due process. The argument that flings around offenders against the laws of war these guaranties of the Constitution would convict all the soldiers of our army of murder; no prisoners could be taken or held; the army could not move. The absurd consequences that would of necessity flow from such an argument show that it cannot be the true construction—it cannot be what was intended by the framers of the instrument. One of the prime motives for the Union and a Federal Government was to confer the powers of war. If any of the provisions of the Constitution are so in conflict with the power to carry on a war as to destroy and make it valueless, then the instrument, instead of being a great and wise one, is a miserable failure. *a felo de se.*

If a man should sue out his writ of *habeas corpus*, and the return shows that he belonged to the army or navy, and was held to be tried for some offence against the rules and articles of war, the writ should be dismissed, and the party remanded to answer the charges. So, in time of war, if a man should sue out a writ of *habeas corpus*, and it is made to appear that he is in the hands of the military as a prisoner of war, the writ should be dismissed, and the prisoner remanded to be disposed of as the laws and usages of war require. If the prisoner be a regular unoffending soldier of the opposing party to the war he should be treated with all the courtesy and kindness consistent with his safe custody; if he has offended against the laws of war, he should have such trial and be punished as the laws of war require.

A spy, though a prisoner of war, may be tried,

condemned, and executed by a military tribunal without a breach of the Constitution. A bushwhacker, a jayhawker, a bandit, a war rebel, an assassin, being public enemies, may be tried, condemned, and executed as offenders against the laws of war. The soldier that would fail to try a spy or bandit after his capture would be as derelict in his duty as if he were to fail to capture; he is as much bound to try and execute, if guilty, as he is to arrest; the same law that makes it his duty to pursue and kill or capture, makes it his duty to try according to the usages of war. The judge of a civil court is not more strongly bound under the Constitution and the law to try a criminal than is the military to try an offender against the laws of war.

The fact that the civil courts are open does not affect the right of the military tribunal to hold as a prisoner and to try. The civil courts have no more right to prevent the military, in time of war, from trying an offender against the laws of war, than they have a right to interfere with and prevent a battle. A battle may be lawfully fought in the very view and presence of a court; so a spy, a bandit, or other offender against the laws of war, may be tried, and tried lawfully, when and where the civil courts are open and transacting the usual business.

The laws of war authorize human life to be taken without legal process, or that legal process contemplated by those provisions in the Constitution that are relied upon to show that military judicial tribunals are unconstitutional. Wars should be prosecuted justly as well as bravely. One enemy in the power of another, whether he be an open or a secret one, should not be punished or executed without a trial. If the question be one concerning the laws of war, he shall be tried by those engaged in the war; they and they only are his peers. The military must decide whether he is or not an active participant in the hostilities. If he is an active participant in the hostilities, it is the duty of the military to take him a prisoner without warrant or other judicial process, and dispose of him as the laws of war direct.

It is curious to see one and the same mind justify the killing of thousands in battle because it is done according to the laws of war, and yet condemning the same law when, out of regard for justice and with the hope of saving life, it orders a military trial before the enemy are killed. The love of law, of justice, and the wish to save life and suffering, should impel all good men in time of war to uphold and sustain the existence and action of such tribunals. The object of such tribunals is obviously intended to save life, and when their jurisdiction is confined to offences against the laws of war, that is their effect. They prevent indiscriminate slaughter; they prevent men from being punished or killed upon mere suspicion.

The law of nations, which is the result of experience and wisdom of ages, has decided that jayhawkers, banditti, etc., are offenders against the laws of nature and of war, and as such amenable to the military. Our Constitution has made those laws a part of the law of the land. Obedience to the Constitution and the law, then, requires that the military should do their whole duty; they must not only meet and fight the enemies of the country in open battle, but they must kill or take the secret enemies of the country, and try and execute them according to the laws of war. The civil tribunals of the country cannot rightfully interfere with the military in the performance of their high, arduous, and perilous but lawful duties. That Booth and his associates were secret, active public enemies, no mind that contemplates the facts can doubt. The exclamation used by him when he escaped from the box on the stage, after he had fired the fatal shot, "*Sic semper tyrannis*," and his dying message, "Say to my mother that I die for my country," show that he was not an assassin from private malice, but that he acted as a public foe. Such a deed is expressly laid down

by Vattel in his work on the law of nations, as an offence against the laws of war, and a great crime. "I give, then, the name of assassination to a treacherous murder, whether the perpetrators of the deed be the subjects of the party whom we cause to be assassinated or of our own sovereign, or that it be executed by any other emissary introducing himself as a suppliant, a refugee, or a deserter, or, in fine, as a stranger."—(Vattel, 339.)

Neither the civil nor the military department of the Government should regard itself as wiser and better than the Constitution and the laws that exist under or are made in pursuance thereof. Each department should, in peace and in war confining itself to its own proper sphere of action, diligently and fearlessly perform its legitimate functions, and in the mode prescribed by the Constitution and the law. Such obedience to and observance of law will maintain peace when it exists, and will soonest relieve the country from the abnormal state of war.

My conclusion, therefore, is, that if the persons who are charged with the assassination of the President committed the deed as public enemies, as I believe they did—and whether they did or not is a question to be decided by the tribunal before which they are tried—they not only can, but ought to be, tried before a military tribunal. If the persons charged have offended against the laws of war, it would be as palpably wrong for the military to hand them over to the civil courts, as it would be wrong in a civil court to convict a man of murder who had, in time of war, killed another in battle.

I am, sir, most respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

JAMES SPEED, Attorney-General.

To the President.

Having received this opinion, the following order was issued for the trial of the assassins:

EXECUTIVE CHAMBER, WASHINGTON CITY, May 1, 1865.

Whereas, the Attorney-General of the United States has given his opinion that the persons implicated in the murder of the late President Lincoln, and the attempted assassination of the Hon. Wm. H. Seward, Secretary of State, and an alleged conspiracy to assassinate other officers of the Federal Government at Washington City, and their aiders and abettors, are subject to the jurisdiction of, and legally triable before, a military commission, it is ordered:

First. That the Assistant Adjutant-General detail nine competent military officers to serve as a commission for the trial of said parties, and that the Judge Advocate General proceed to prefer charges against said parties for their alleged offences, and bring them to trial before said military commission; that said trial or trials be conducted by the said Judge Advocate-General as recorded thereof in person, aided by such assistant or special judge advocates as he may designate, and that said trials be conducted with all diligence consistent with the ends of justice, and said commission to sit without regard to hours.

Second. That Brevet Maj.-Gen. Hartranft be assigned to duty as special Provost Marshal General for the purpose of said trial and attendance upon said commission and the execution of its mandates.

Third. That the said commission establish such order or rules of proceeding as may avoid unnecessary delay, and conduct to the ends of public justice.

(Signed) ANDREW JOHNSON.

Adj't.-General's Office, Washington, D. C., May 16, 1865. (Official copy).

(Signed) W. A. NICHOLS, A. A. Gen

In compliance with this order, the following officers were detailed as members of the military commission:

President, Maj.-Gen. David Hunter.

Members.—Maj.-Gen. Lew Wallace, Brevet Maj.-Gen. August V. Kautz, Brig.-Gen. Albion

P. Howe, Brig.-Gen. Robert S. Foster, Brig.-Gen. James A. Ekin, Brig.-Gen. Thos. M. Harris, Col. Chas. H. Tompkins, Brevet Col. D. R. Clendenin.

The prosecution was conducted by Brig.-Gen. Joseph Holt, Judge Advocate General; assisted by Brevet Colonel H. L. Burnett, of Indiana, and Hon. John A. Bingham, of Ohio, Assistant Judge Advocates.

The prisoners selected for their counsel, Reverdy Johnson, of Maryland; Thomas Ewing, of Kansas; W. E. Doster, of Penn.; Fred. A. Aikin, District of Columbia; Walter S. Cox, John W. Clappit, and F. Stone, of Maryland.

The Commission having organized, the following charges and specifications were presented:

Charge 1.—For maliciously, unlawfully, and traitorously, and in aid of the existing armed rebellion against the United States of America, on or before the 6th of March, A. D. 1865, and on divers other days between that day and the 15th day of April, A. D. 1865, combining, confederating, and conspiring together with one John H. Surratt, John Wilkes Booth, Jefferson Davis, George N. Sanders, Beverly Tucker, Jacob Thompson, William C. Cleary, Clement C. Clay, George Harper, George Young, and others unknown, within the military department of Washington, and within the fortified and intrenched lines thereof, to kill and murder Abraham Lincoln, late, and at the time of the combining, confederating, and conspiring, President of the United States of America, and Commander-in-chief of the army and navy thereof; Andrew Johnson, now President of the United States aforesaid; Wm. H. Seward, Secretary of State of the United States aforesaid; and Ulysses S. Grant, Lieutenant-General of the army of the United States aforesaid, then in command of the armies of the United States, under the direction of the said Abraham Lincoln, and in pursuance of and in prosecuting said malicious, unlawful, and traitorous conspiracy, aforesaid, and in aid of said rebellion, afterwards—to wit: on the 14th day of April, A. D. 1865—within the military department of Washington aforesaid, and within the fortified and intrenched lines of said military department, together with the said John Wilkes Booth and John H. Surratt, maliciously, unlawfully, and traitorously murdering the said Abraham Lincoln, then President of the United States and Commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, as aforesaid, and maliciously, unlawfully, and traitorously assaulting, with intent to kill and murder, the said Wm. H. Seward, then Secretary of State of the United States, as aforesaid; and lying in wait, with intent maliciously, unlawfully, and traitorously to kill and murder the said Andrew Johnson, then being Vice-President of the United States; and the said Ulysses S. Grant, then being Lieutenant-General, and in command of the armies of the United States, as aforesaid.

Specification 1.—In this that they, the said David E. Harold, Edward Spangler, Lewis Payne, John H. Surratt, Michael O'Laughlin, Samuel Arnold, Mary E. Surratt, George A. Atzerott, and Samuel A. Mudd, incited and encouraged thereunto by Jefferson Davis, George N. Sanders, Beverly Tucker, Jacob Thompson, William C. Cleary, Clement C. Clay, George Young, and others, unknown citizens of the United States aforesaid, and who were engaged in armed rebellion against the United States of America within the limits thereof, did, in aid of said armed rebellion, on or before the 6th day of March, A. D. 1865, and on divers other days or times between that day and the 15th day of April, A. D. 1865, combine, confederate, and conspire together, at Washington City, within the military department, and within the intrenched fortifications and military lines of the said United States, there combine unlawfully, malicious-

ly, and traitorously, to kill and murder Abraham Lincoln, then President of the United States aforesaid, and Commander-in-chief of the army and navy thereof, and unlawfully, maliciously, and traitorously to kill and murder Andrew Johnson, then Vice-President of the United States, upon whom, on the death of the said Abraham Lincoln, after the 4th day of March, A. D. 1865, the office of President of the said United States, and Commander-in-chief of the army and navy thereof, would devolve; and to unlawfully, maliciously, and traitorously kill and murder U. S. Grant, then Lieutenant-General, under the direction of said Abraham Lincoln, in command of the armies of the United States aforesaid; and unlawfully, maliciously, and traitorously to kill and murder William H. Seward, then Secretary of State of the United States aforesaid, whose duty it was by law, upon the death of said President and Vice-President of the United States aforesaid, to cause an election for electors of President of the United States. The conspirators aforesaid designing or intending by the killing and murder of the said Abraham Lincoln and Andrew Johnson, Ulysses S. Grant and William H. Seward as aforesaid, to deprive the army and navy of the United States of a constitutional commander-in-chief, and to deprive the armies of the United States of their lawful commander, and to prevent a lawful election of President and Vice-President of the United States aforesaid; and by the means aforesaid to aid and comfort the insurgents engaged in armed rebellion against the said United States aforesaid, and thereby to aid in the subversion and overthrow of the said United States; and being so combined, confederated, and conspiring together in the prosecution of said unlawful and traitorous conspiracy on the night of the 14th day of April, A. D. 1865, at the hour of about ten o'clock and fifteen minutes P. M., at Ford's Theatre, on Tenth Street, in the city of Washington, and within the military department and military lines aforesaid, John Wilkes Booth, one of the conspirators aforesaid, in pursuance of said unlawful and traitorous conspiracy, did then and there, unlawfully, maliciously, and traitorously, and with intent to kill and murder the said Abraham Lincoln, discharge a pistol then held in the hands of him, the said Booth, the same being then loaded with powder and a leaden ball, against and upon the left and posterior side of the head of the said Abraham Lincoln, and did thereby there and then inflict upon him, the said Abraham Lincoln, then President of the said United States, and Commander-in-chief of the army and navy thereof, a mortal wound, whereof afterwards, to wit, on the 15th day of April, A. D. 1865, at Washington City aforesaid, the said Abraham Lincoln died; and thereby, then and there, in pursuance of said conspiracy, the said defendant, and the said John Wilkes Booth, did, unlawfully, traitorously, and maliciously, and with the intent to aid the rebellion as aforesaid, kill the President of the United States as aforesaid; and further, in prosecution of the unlawful traitorous conspiracy aforesaid, and of the murderous and traitorous intent of the said conspiracy, the said Edward Spangler, on the said 14th day of April, A. D. 1865, at about the same hour of the day aforesaid, within the military department and the military lines aforesaid, did aid and assist the said John Wilkes Booth to obtain entrance to the box in the theatre in which the said Abraham Lincoln was sitting at the time he was assaulted and shot as aforesaid by John Wilkes Booth, and also did then and there aid said Booth in barring and obstructing the door of the box of said theatre so as to hinder and prevent any assistance to a rescue of the said Abraham Lincoln against the murderous assault of the said John Wilkes Booth, and did aid and abet him in making his escape after the said Abraham Lincoln had been murdered in manner aforesaid.

And in further prosecution of said unlawful, murderous, and traitorous conspiracy, and in pursuance

thereof, and with the intent as aforesaid, the said David E. Harold did, on the night of the 14th of April, A. D. 1865, within the military department and military lines aforesaid, aid, abet, and assist the said John Wilkes Booth in the killing and murder of the said Abraham Lincoln, and did then and there aid and abet and assist him, the said John Wilkes Booth, in attempting to escape through the military lines aforesaid, and did accompany and assist the said J. Wilkes Booth in attempting to conceal himself and escape from justice after killing and murdering said Abraham Lincoln, as aforesaid; and, in further prosecution of said unlawful and traitorous conspiracy, and of the intent thereof as aforesaid, the said Lewis Payne did, on the same night of the 14th day of April, A. D. 1865, about the same hour of 10 o'clock and 15 minutes P. M., at the city of Washington, and within the military department and military lines aforesaid, unlawfully and maliciously make an assault upon the said William H. Seward, Secretary of State aforesaid, in the dwelling-house and bed-chamber of him, the said William H. Seward; and there, with a large knife held in his hand, unlawfully, traitorously, and in pursuance of the said conspiracy, strike, stab, cut, and attempt to kill and murder the said William H. Seward, and did, thereby, then and there, with the intent aforesaid, with said knife, inflict upon the face and throat of the said William H. Seward divers grievous wounds; and the said Lewis Payne, in further prosecution of the said conspiracy, at the same time and place last aforesaid, did attempt, with the knife aforesaid, and a pistol held in his hand, to kill and murder Frederick W. Seward, Augustus W. Seward, Emerick W. Hansell, and George F. Robinson, who were then striving to protect and rescue the said William H. Seward from murder by the said Lewis Payne; and did then and there, with the said knife and pistol held in his hands, inflict wounds upon the head of the said Frederick W. Seward and upon the persons of the said Augustus W. Seward, Emerick W. Hansell, and George F. Robinson.

And in the further prosecution of the said conspiracy, and its traitorous and murderous designs, the said George A. Atzerott did, on the night of the 14th of April, A. D. 1865, and about the same hour of the night aforesaid, within the military department and the military lines aforesaid, lie in wait for Andrew Johnson, then Vice-President of the United States aforesaid, with the intent unlawfully and maliciously to kill and murder him, the said Andrew Johnson.

And in the further prosecution of the conspiracy aforesaid, and of its murderous and treasonable purposes aforesaid, on the night of the 13th and 14th of April, 1865, at Washington City, and within the military department and military lines aforesaid, the said Michael O'Laughlin did then and there lie in wait for Ulysses S. Grant.

And in the further prosecution of the said conspiracy, the said Samuel Arnold did, within the military department and military lines aforesaid, on or before the 6th day of March, A. D. 1865, and on divers other days and times between that day and the 15th of April, A. D. 1865, combine, conspire with, and aid, counsel, and abet, comfort, and support the said John Wilkes Booth, Lewis Payne, George A. Atzerott, Michael O'Laughlin, and their confederates in the said unlawful, murderous, and traitorous conspiracy, and in the execution thereof, as aforesaid; and, in the further prosecution of the said conspiracy, Mary E. Surratt did, at Washington City, and within the military department and military lines aforesaid, on or before the 6th day of March, A. D. 1865, and on divers other days and times between that day and the 20th day of April, A. D. 1865, receive, entertain, harbor, and conceal, aid and assist the said John Wilkes Booth, David E. Harold, Lewis Payne, John H. Surratt, Michael O'Laughlin, George A. Atzerott, Samuel Arnold, and their confederates, with a knowledge of the murderous and traitorous conspiracy aforesaid, and with intent to aid, abet, and assist

them in the execution thereof, and in escaping from justice after the murder of the said Abraham Lincoln, as aforesaid, with intent to aid, abet, and assist them in the execution thereof, and in escaping from justice, after the murder of the said Abraham Lincoln, in pursuance of the said conspiracy in the manner aforesaid.

By order of the President of the United States.

J. HOLT, Judge Advocate General.

The Commission commenced the trial May 13th, and were engaged on it until the 29th of June. A great number of witnesses were examined, and the testimony taken is very voluminous. On the last day named their finding was made, and transmitted to the President for approval. On the 6th of July the following order was issued, approving of the findings and sentences:

WAR DEPARTMENT, ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE, }
WASHINGTON, July 5, 1865.

To Major-General W. S. Hancock, United States Volunteers, commanding the Middle Military Division, Washington, D. C.

Whereas, by the Military Commission appointed in paragraph 4, Special Orders, No. 211, dated War Department, Adjutant-General's Office, Washington, May 6, 1865, and of which Major-General David Hunter, United States Volunteers, was president, the following named persons were tried, and after mature consideration of evidence adduced in their cases, were found and sentenced as hereinafter stated, as follows:

First. David E. Harold.—Finding of the specification, guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler, as to which part thereof, not guilty; of the charge guilty, except the words of the charge, that he combined, confederated, and conspired with Edward Spangler; as to which part of the charge, not guilty.

Sentence.—And the Commission does, therefore, sentence him, the said David E. Harold, to be hanged by the neck until he be dead, at such time and place as the President of the United States shall direct, two-thirds of the Commission concurring therein.

Second. George A. Atzerott.—Finding of the specification, guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty. Of the charge, guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty.

Sentence.—And the Commission does, therefore, sentence him, the said George A. Atzerott, to be hung by the neck until he be dead, at such time and place as the President of the United States shall direct, two-thirds of the Commission concurring therein.

Third. Lewis Payne.—Finding of the specification, guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty. Of the charge, guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty.

Sentence.—And the Commission does therefore sentence him, the said Lewis Payne, to be hung by the neck until he be dead, at such time and place as the President of the United States shall direct, two-thirds of the Commission concurring therein.

Fourth. Mary E. Surratt.—Finding of the specification guilty, except as to receiving, sustaining, harboring, and concealing Samuel Arnold and Michael O'Laughlin, and except as to combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty. Of the charge guilty, except as to combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty.

Sentence.—And the Commission does, therefore, sentence her, the said Mary E. Surratt, to be hung by the neck until she be dead, at such time and place as the President of the United States shall direct, two-thirds of the members of the Commission concurring therein.

And whereas, the President of the United States has approved the foregoing sentences in the following order, to wit:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, July 5, 1865.

The foregoing sentences in the cases of David E. Harold, G. A. Atzerott, Lewis Payne, Mary E. Surratt, are hereby approved; and it is ordered that the sentences in the cases of David E. Harold, G. A. Atzerott, Lewis Payne, and Mary E. Surratt, be carried into execution by the proper military authority, under the direction of the Secretary of War, on the 7th day of July, 1865, between the hours of 10 o'clock A. M. and 2 o'clock P. M. of that day.

ANDREW JOHNSON, President.

Therefore you are hereby commanded to cause the foregoing sentences, in the cases of David E. Harold, G. A. Atzerott, Lewis Payne, and Mary E. Surratt, to be duly executed in accordance with the President's order.

By command of the President of the United States.

E. D. TOWNSEND, Assistant Adjutant-General.

In the remaining cases of O'Laughlin, Spangler, Arnold, and Mudd, the findings and sentences are as follows:

Fifth.—Michael O'Laughlin.—Finding of the specification guilty, except the words thereof as follows: And in the further prosecution of the conspiracy aforesaid, and of its murderous and treasonable purposes aforesaid, on the nights of the 13th and 14th of April, 1865, at Washington City, and within the military department and military lines aforesaid, the said Michael O'Laughlin did there and then lie in wait for Ulysses S. Grant, then Lieut.-General and commander of the armies of the United States, with intent then and there to kill and murder the said Ulysses S. Grant—of said words not guilty; and except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty. Of the charge—guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty.

Sentence.—The Commission sentence O'Laughlin to be imprisoned at hard labor for life.

Sixth. Finding—Edward Spangler, of the specification, not guilty, except as to the words "the said Edward Spangler, on said 14th day of April, A. D. 1865, at about the same hour of that day, as aforesaid, within said military department and the military lines aforesaid, did aid and abet him (meaning John Wilkes Booth) in making his escape after the said Abraham Lincoln had been murdered in manner aforesaid," and of these words, guilty. Of the charge not guilty, but guilty of having feloniously and traitorously aided and abetted John Wilkes Booth in making his escape after having killed and murdered Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, he, the said Edward Spangler, at the time of aiding and abetting as aforesaid, well knowing that the said Abraham Lincoln, President as aforesaid, had been murdered by the said John Wilkes Booth as aforesaid. The Commission sentenced Spangler to hard labor for six years.

Seventh. Samuel Arnold.—Of the specifications, guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty. Of the charge, guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty. The Commission sentenced him to imprisonment at hard labor for life.

Eighth. Samuel A. Mudd.—Of the specification, guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this, not guilty; and excepting receiving, and entertaining, and harboring, and concealing said Lewis Payne, John H. Surratt, Michael O'Laughlin, George A. Atzerott, Mary E. Surratt, and Samuel Arnold; of this, not guilty.

Of the charge guilty, except combining, confederating, and conspiring with Edward Spangler; of this part guilty. The Commission sentenced Mudd to be imprisoned at hard labor for life.

The President's order in these cases is as follows:

It is further ordered, that the prisoners, Samuel Arnold, Samuel A. Mudd, and Michael O'Laughlin, be confined at hard labor in the penitentiary at Al-

bany, New York, during the period designated in their respective sentences.

ANDREW JOHNSON, President.

Efforts were subsequently made to review the proceedings, by bringing up the case of Mrs. Surratt, on *habeas corpus*; but the writ, although allowed, was suspended by order of the President, and those who had been condemned to death were executed in accordance with the order issued—those who were sentenced to imprisonment were transported to Fort Jefferson, Dry Tortugas, to serve out the period of their incarceration.

The trial of Capt. Henry Wirz was second in importance and interest to that of the assassins. Capt. Wirz had been in charge of the Confederate prison at Andersonville, and it was alleged that through his cruelty thousands of Union prisoners of war had lost their lives. The Commission before which he was tried was convened by order of August 19, 1865, directing the officers detailed for that purpose to meet as a special military Commission on the 21st of August, for the trial of such prisoners as might be brought before it. The Commission assembled on the day named, and Wirz was arraigned on the charges and specifications. The first charge was for traitorously conspiring with others to injure the health and destroy the lives of soldiers in the service of the United States, held and being at the time prisoners of war. The second charge was for murder, in violation of the laws and customs of war, with thirteen specifications.

After argument on a motion to quash the charges and specifications as too general and uncertain, and that the offences charged were cognizable by civil and not by military courts, which motion was overruled by the court, the prisoner pleaded not guilty, and on suggestion of the Judge Advocate, Wirz was remanded to prison, and the court adjourned *sine die*.

On the 23d of August, at a meeting of the Commission, the Judge Advocate read an order from the War Department, dated August 23d, directing that the Commission convened on the 20th, by the order of the President, be dissolved, and another order convening a special Commission to assemble on the 23d, for the trial of Henry Wirz, and such other prisoners as might be brought before it, the detail of officers being the same as that of the previous commission.

The charges and specifications against the prisoner were substantially the same as those on which he was at first arraigned.

The trial was very lengthy and tedious—large numbers of witnesses being examined, and the Commission found Wirz guilty, and he was, in accordance with the sentence of the Commission, executed on the 10th day of November.

An additional interest is given to trials by military Commissions in consequence of the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, holding that they had no jurisdiction in the case known as the Indiana conspirators.

MINNESOTA. The Republicans of Minnesota met in convention at St. Paul, on September 6th, and nominated for Governor Gen. W. R. Marshall, and a full ticket of State officers. Their resolutions declared that the "measure of a man's political rights should be neither his religion, his birthplace, his race, his color, nor any merely physical characteristics;" that it would be "subversive both of the form and spirit of our institutions, to permit any portion of our population to remain in a degraded and abject caste, taxed to support and compelled to obey a Government in which they have no voice;" that the administration of the General Government by President Johnson meets their "hearty approval and concurrence;" that, as soon as the reestablished credit of the nation will permit, the indebtedness of the United States ought to be made to bear a less rate of interest than at present; that the United States will not permit an Imperial Government to rule in Mexico, and ought to compel the withdrawal of the invaders of that country. It was also resolved that the Senators and Representatives of Minnesota in Congress should be requested to use their influence to secure an amendment to the Constitution of the United States "whereby the basis of representation be established upon the aggregate number of legal voters, instead of upon the number of population."

The Democratic Convention met at the same place in August, and adopted a long series of resolutions, the most important of which were those recognizing "with the highest satisfaction" President Johnson's policy of reorganization, and pledging to his administration the hearty support of the Democracy of Minnesota, "so long and so far as he adheres to the fundamental and historic dogmas of the Government, which in the past have been cardinal doctrines of the Democratic faith;" accepting "with unfeigned satisfaction the extinction of slavery as an accomplished result of the war, and as an acknowledged condition of peace;" protesting against the continued suppression of the writ of *habeas corpus* in certain parts of the country; recommending the absorption of outstanding national bonds by new issues, bearing a less rate of interest, and subject to taxation; opposing a protective tariff; recommending the application and enforcement of the Monroe doctrine to the present condition of the Mexican Republic; opposing the project to confer the elective franchise upon the negroes of the State; and favoring, in the absence of Congressional action upon the subject, some measure of State aid to Minnesota soldiers disabled in the war. The convention reassembled at St. Paul on September 7th, and nominated for Governor Hon. Henry M. Rice, and a full ticket for State officers. The election took place on November 7th, with the following result for Governor:

W. R. Marshall, Republican	17,885
Henry M. Rice, Democrat	18,844
Majority for Marshall	8,471

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The other candidates on the Republican ticket were elected by majorities differing little from the above. The result of the election of members of the Legislature was as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans	14	29	43
Democrats	7	18	25
Republican majority	7	16	28

In accordance with a resolution adopted by the Legislature of 1865, the people were called upon at this election to vote upon an amendment to the Constitution, striking out the word "white" from the qualifications of voters. In a total vote of 27,010, there was a majority of 2,670 against the amendment.

The receipts into the State Treasury for the year ending December 1, 1865, were \$489,120.46, and the disbursements during the same period amounted to \$416,818.60, leaving a balance of \$72,801.86 on hand. The estimated disbursements for 1866 are \$268,474.81, and the receipts \$269,442.91. At the close of the year, the floating debt, for the first time in the history of the State, was announced to be substantially cancelled; and a claim of \$108,000 against the United States for expenditures in suppressing Indian hostilities was put forward. The land offices in the State disposed, during 1865, of 804,982 acres, and the railroad companies of about 200,000. Of school lands, 156,048 acres were sold, at an average price of about \$6.30 per acre, realizing \$983,528. If the remainder of these lands should sell for the same price, the school fund will amount to \$16,000,000. The land registry shows entries during the year of 139,232 acres.

Minnesota contributed to the national forces during the late civil war, 24,263 men of all arms, a number equivalent to three-fourths of those who voted in 1860, or to about one-seventh of her entire population in that year. Notwithstanding this large number of men taken from the State, the population, according to the census of 1865, was 250,099, comprising 131,823 males and 118,776 females, showing a gain of 78,077, equivalent to about 45 per cent., over the census of 1860. The return of volunteers at the close of military operations, and the annual emigration, brought the population, it was estimated, up to 275,000 by the close of 1865.

The railroad interest of Minnesota is witnessing a great development, and when the lines now in progress shall be completed, the State is destined to become rich and populous. During 1865 upwards of two hundred and ten miles of track was completed, and one hundred and thirty-two graded, and it is estimated that four hundred and seventy-four additional miles will be completed by the close of 1866. Of the railroad communications with the Eastern and Western States, Gov. Miller, in his message to the Legislature of 1866, upon the occasion of retiring from office, says: "The Chicago and Northwestern Company have given assurances that their road shall be completed to Winona

at an early day; thus, by means of the St. Paul and Pacific and Winona and St. Peter's lines, a continuous railroad communication will be formed from almost every populous district of the State to Chicago and other Eastern markets. The city of St. Louis will be reached by the Minnesota Central Railroad and its connections, while our wealthy tier of counties bordering on the Iowa line, will be equally well cared for by the completion of the Southern Minnesota road."

In the latter part of 1865 Professor Eames, the State geologist for Minnesota, returned from an exploring expedition from the region around Vermilion Lake, which lies in the northeast corner of the State, about eighty miles north of Lake Superior, and two hundred and thirty from St. Paul. He reported in the vicinity of this lake, and, in fact, throughout nearly the entire country between the lake and Lake Superior, extensive formations of gold and silver-bearing quartz, and immense bodies of iron ore of a superior quality. The field accurately examined in the vicinity of the lake exhibited a formation of talcose and silicious slate, which the ore-bearing quartz veins traverse, upward of six miles in width and ten in length. All the indications went to show that this mineral range is very extensive. Both the talcose and silicious slates are very rich in veins of gold and silver. Within a distance of half a mile eight veins were examined, varying from one inch to ten feet in width, and all of them are auriferous or silver-bearing. Some of these veins were traced to the distance of seven miles. Numerous specimens of this quartz have been assayed at the United States mint and elsewhere, and, though they were taken from the surface, have yielded \$30 of gold and silver to the ton.

An immense iron range was also discovered in the same vicinity, its first exposure being about two miles long and three-quarters of a mile wide, extending northeast. It was examined to the thickness of fifty feet, and it is supposed that it extends much below this depth.

The effect of these announcements was to greatly excite the speculative spirit of the people, and the spring of 1866 will doubtless witness a considerable emigration to Vermilion Lake, where a plentiful supply of timber and unlimited water-power offer facilities for the prosecution of quartz crushing and solid mining. The locality is in the neighborhood of the Chippewa reserves, and trouble is anticipated from the Indians, who have been led to believe by traders and others that the auriferous regions were not included in the territory ceded by them by the treaty of 1854. No steps have yet been taken to remove this tribe beyond the limits of the State, but the popular feeling in favor of such removal grows every year stronger, and it will doubtless soon take place.

The fur trade continues to form an important item of industry, and employs several

thousand persons, white men and Indians. The value of the furs obtained in 1865 was between \$400,000 and \$500,000, which is somewhat under the yield of former years. Three-fourths of the whole number are taken to New York to be disposed of. The chief kinds taken are mink, muskrat, otter, and beaver skins. Deer skins have become comparatively scarce in consequence of the great destruction of deer caused by the Sioux Indians previous to their expulsion from the State.

Ten million bushels of wheat were raised in Minnesota in 1865, the average yield being twenty-five bushels per acre. Seven hundred thousand bushels are reported to have been exported, at remunerative prices.

MISSISSIPPI. In this State the military operations during the last four months of the war were of comparatively little importance; but the people were much impoverished; Confederate money was, of course, valueless; and the only currency was the notes of the Mississippi and Tennessee Railroad Company, and Mississippi cotton bonds. Industry was in a great measure paralyzed. Immediately after the surrender of the Confederate forces east of the Mississippi River, movements were set on foot looking to the restoration of the State to the Federal Union. Judge Barwell issued an appeal to the people, calling for the appointment of delegates to a convention at Vicksburg. Gov. Clarke called an extra session of the State Legislature to be held at Jackson on the 18th of May, and, with a view to the preservation of order and the protection of property, issued the following proclamation:

MEMORANDUM, MISS., May 4, 1863.

To the People of Mississippi:

Gen. Taylor informs me that all Confederate armies east of the Mississippi River are surrendered, with all Government cotton, quartermaster, commissary, and other stores. Federal commanders will only send such troops as may be necessary to guard public property. All officers and persons in possession of public stores will be held to a rigid accountability, and embezzlers will certainly be arrested.

Arrangements will be made to issue supplies to the destitute. I have called the Legislature to convene on Thursday, the 18th instant. They will, doubtless, order a convention. The officers of the State Government will immediately return with the archives to Jackson.

County officers will be vigilant in the preservation of order and the protection of property. Sheriffs have power to call out the *posse comitatus*, and the militia will keep arms and other orders for this purpose, as in times of peace.

The State laws must be enforced as they now are until repealed. If the public property is protected and peace preserved, the necessity of Federal troops in your counties will be avoided. You are, therefore, urged to continue to arrest all marauders and plunderers. The collection of taxes should be suspended, as the laws will doubtless be changed.

Masters are responsible, as heretofore, for the protection and conduct of their slaves, and they should be kept at home as heretofore. Let all citizens fearlessly adhere to the fortunes of the State. Assist the returning soldiers to obtain civil employment, condemn twelfth-hour vapors, and meet facts with fortitude and common sense.

CHARLES CLARKE, Governor of Miss.

The Legislature met at the time and place appointed. Gov. Clarke, in his message, after adverting to the responsibility he had assumed in calling the Assembly together, and the trying circumstances under, which they met, admitted that the war had ended, and with it the power of the Confederacy. He expressed satisfaction that his own part had been performed with fidelity to his State and in obedience to her laws. He admitted that the Southern States would return to the Union, but feared that the presence of a military power would render reorganization a delicate and difficult task, and to aid in its accomplishment advised the adoption of the speediest measures possible consistent with the rights of the States and the liberties of the people. He alluded to the unanimity with which the people, through their delegates in convention, had severed their connection with the Union, but said their action on that occasion was not hasty, and that the subject had occupied their minds for many years. There were causes, he said, which justified revolution and impelled to secession, and that with no purpose of aggression, but for defence alone, had the people taken up arms. The people of the Northern States, who had demonstrated the earnestness of their determination to preserve the Union as essential to free government and liberty, and had by the exhibition of their power astonished the world, could not now, he said, desire the abasement of a people whom they had found equal to themselves in all except numbers and resources. He recommended the calling of a convention to repeal the ordinance of secession, to remodel the State Constitution, and to enlarge the power of the Legislature.

The Legislature continued in session three days. The most important business transacted was the passage of a bill for the election of members of a State Convention on the 19th of June, to assemble at Jackson, on the 3d of July, to repeal the ordinance of secession and perform such other acts as the situation seemed to demand for the return of the State to the Union. At a public meeting held at Holly Springs on the 29th of May, a series of resolutions was adopted, approving the course of Gov. Clarke in calling the extra session of the Legislature, and of the action of that body in providing for a State Convention; favoring a speedy return of the State to the Union; expressing horror and detestation of those bad men, who, "overleaping all the restraints of law and civilized society, have intensified the trials and sufferings inseparable from a state of war, by the commission of the crimes of assassination, rapine, and theft;" asserting it to be the duty of all good citizens "unitedly and persistently to use every effort to suppress lawlessness, wrong, and violence;" and "to revitalize, as far as in them lies, the energy and authority of the civil power;" and counselling the "cultivation of sentiments of loyalty toward the Constitution and laws of the United States no less than of their own State government."

The action of Gov. Clarke and of the Legislature was, however, not recognized by the Federal Government. On the 13th of June the President issued a proclamation, appointing William L. Sharkey Provisional Governor of the State of Mississippi, and recognizing a portion of the previous institutions of the State. This was the same, except as to date, the name of the State and Governor, as that appointing Lewis C. Parsons Provisional Governor of Alabama. (*See ALABAMA.*) Gov. Sharkey immediately entered upon the duties of his office, and on the 1st of July issued the following proclamation:

Fellow-Citizens of the State of Mississippi:

The President of the United States, by virtue of the power vested in him by the Constitution of the United States, has been pleased to appoint the undersigned Provisional Governor of the State of Mississippi, "for the purpose of enabling the loyal people of said State to organize a State government, whereby justice may be established, domestic tranquillity insured, and loyal citizens protected in all their rights of life, liberty, and property;" and, to accomplish this object, has directed me, "at the earliest practicable period, to prescribe such rules and regulations as may be necessary and proper for convening a convention of delegates, to be chosen by that portion of the people of said State who are loyal to the United States, and no others, for the purpose of altering or amending the Constitution thereof," so that the State may be able to resume its place in the Union. And being anxious to carry out the wishes of the President, and to restore the dominion of civil government as speedily as possible, I do hereby ordain and declare as follows, to wit:

First.—To avoid the delay which would necessarily occur from the separate organization of each county by special appointments of the several county officers, the persons who exercised the functions pertaining to the following named officers, on the day when the archives and other public property were taken possession of by the forces of the United States, to wit, the 22d day of May, 1865, are hereby appointed to fill those offices in each county, to wit: the office of judge of probate and clerk of the probate court, the office of sheriff and coroner, the office of justice of the peace and constable, the office of board of county police, the office of county treasurer and collector, and assessor and county surveyor, and the several municipal offices of every incorporated city or town whose organizations have been regularly kept up. This general appointment of officers is not intended to revoke any special appointment made by me prior to the date of this proclamation. And inasmuch as it is necessary that these several offices should be filled by incumbents who are loyal to the United States Government, I reserve the power to remove any one who may be exceptionable in this respect; and I earnestly invoke the loyal citizens of each county to give me timely and the most authentic information that can be procured in regard to any officer who is obnoxious to this serious objection.

Second.—These several officers, before they enter upon the discharge of the duties of their respective offices, shall take and subscribe the amnesty oath prescribed in the President's proclamation of the 29th May, 1865, and must immediately transmit the oath so taken to this office. At the end of the amnesty oath, after the word "slaves," must be added the words "and will faithfully discharge the duties of my office to the best of my ability." And any one who may undertake to act in his official capacity without compliance with this requisition, will subject himself to punishment. This oath may be taken before any commissioned officer, civil, military, or naval, in the service of the United States, or before

the judges of probate hereby appointed, or heretofore appointed by me, after they shall have taken the oath themselves, or before the Judge of the Criminal Court of Warren County. But no one can hold any of these offices who is exempted in the President's proclamation from the benefits of the amnesty unless first specially pardoned by the President.

Third.—In counties which have been disorganized, or where there are no persons who can fill the several county offices, either in consequence of death or otherwise, special appointments will be immediately made when the necessity for such appointments shall be made known to me.

Fourth.—The sheriffs hereby appointed, or in case there be no sheriffs the judge of probate or the coroner, or any justice of the peace, in the order in which they are here placed, shall hold an election at the several election precincts in each county, on Monday, the 7th day of August next, for delegates to a convention for the purposes mentioned in the President's proclamation. Voters for delegates to this convention must possess the qualifications required by the Constitution and laws as they existed prior to the 9th day of January, 1861, and must also produce a certificate that they have taken, before a competent officer, the amnesty oath prescribed by the proclamation of the 29th of May, 1865, which certificate shall be attached to or accompanied by a copy of the oath, and no one will be eligible as a member of this convention who has not also taken this oath. The sheriff shall give public notice of the election by posting up this proclamation or otherwise.

Fifth.—Each county and town entitled to separate representation shall be entitled to be represented in the convention by the same number of representatives they were entitled to in the lower branch of the Legislature prior to the 9th day of January, 1861.

Sixth.—The returning officers of the election shall give to the persons having the highest number of votes a certificate of election, and the delegates so elected shall assemble at the city of Jackson, on Monday, the 14th day of August next, and shall organize a convention by electing proper officers, and adopting necessary rules, and after taking an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, may proceed in the discharge of their duties.

Seventh.—The Trustees of the University of Mississippi are required to meet at Oxford, on Monday, the 31st day of July, for the purpose of putting the institution in operation.

Eighth.—Crime must be suppressed and guilty persons punished. The commanding general at this post has kindly offered to use the forces under his command for the protection of the people and for the apprehension of offenders against the law; and it is hoped the people will give him timely information, and render such assistance as will enable him to carry out this laudable object. I would advise the people, when it may be necessary in consequence of their remoteness from a military force, to organize themselves into a county patrol, for the apprehension of offenders, who, when arrested, if they cannot be safely confined in the county, may be brought to Jackson for confinement in the military prison until they can be disposed of by civil law. In taking recognizances the justices of the peace will make them returnable to the next term of the circuit court as now established by law, or that may hereafter be established by law.

Probably there are some persons who have some conscientious scruples about taking the amnesty oath, because they believe the emancipation proclamation unconstitutional. I allude to the subject only because I have understood there are a few such. This objection certainly cannot be raised with propriety by such as denied that they were subject to the Constitution of the United States as the supreme law when the proclamation was issued. Whether it be constitutional or not is a question

which the people have no right to determine; the determination of that question rests with the supreme judicial department of the Government. Legislative bodies often pass unconstitutional acts, but they must be regarded as valid, and they must be observed as the law, until the proper department of the Government declares them void. Every presumption is in favor of their validity. And it is precisely the same case with executive acts. This proclamation, therefore, must be regarded as valid until the Supreme Court shall decide otherwise. When it does so decide, parties will be absolved from the obligation of the oath. Perhaps, however, parties who believe the proclamation void are over sanguine in the correctness of their opinions. There is a general principle in the law of nations which authorizes one belligerent party to do toward his enemy whatever will strengthen himself and weaken his enemy, limited, of course, by the laws of humanity. Some writers of high authority hold that legitimate power in war, toward an enemy, is coextensive with necessity. Even the desolating of a country and the burning of towns and villages are held to be justifiable acts in certain cases. Whether these principles be broad enough to cover the taking of slaves, as they certainly are with regard to other property, is not for me to determine, and I mention them only to show to those who entertain this opinion that perhaps it does not rest on as solid a foundation as they imagine it does. The people of the Southern States were in rebellion; the President of the United States had a right to prescribe terms of amnesty; he has done so, and it is hoped the people will all cheerfully take this oath, with a fixed purpose to observe it in good faith. Why should they now hesitate or doubt since slavery has ceased to be a practical question? It was the ostensible cause of the war; it was staked on the issue of the war, and that issue has been decided against us. It is the part of wisdom and of honor to submit without a murmur. The negroes are now free—free by the fortunes of war—free by the proclamation—free by common consent—free practically, as well as theoretically, and it is too late to raise technical questions as to the means by which they became so. Besides, it would be bad policy now to undertake to change their condition if we could do so. It would be nothing less than an effort to establish slavery where it does not exist. Therefore let us cordially unite in our efforts to organize our State Government, so that we may, by wise legislation, prepare ourselves to live in prosperity and happiness in the changed condition of our domestic relations. Fellow-citizens, I accept the office of Provisional Governor in full view of the troubles and responsibilities incident to it. I was actuated by no other motive than a desire to aid the people in organizing a civil government preparatory to the restoration of their harmonious relations with the Government of the United States. That I shall commit errors I know full well; but I know also that I shall very soon leave the office, and that I shall carry with me the consoling reflection that I endeavored to subserve the best interest of the people in this critical and trying conjunction of public affairs. The people of the South have just passed through a most terrible and disastrous revolution, in which they have signally failed to accomplish their purpose. Perhaps their success would have proved to be the greatest calamity that could have befallen their country, and the greatest calamity to the cause of civil liberty throughout the world. The true patriot finds his greatest enjoyment in the noble and pleasing reflection that his government is to live after him with an honored name, to shed its blessings on millions through future centuries. And as good governments are things of growth, improved by the lights of experience and often by revolutions, let us hope—sad and disastrous as this revolution has been—that the lessons it has taught us will not be destitute of value. The business of improving our government, if it

should be found to need it, and of promoting reconciliation between the Northern and Southern people, are now prominent duties before us, so that we may hereafter live in the more secure and perfect enjoyment of the great patrimony left us by our fathers, and so that those who are to come after us may long enjoy in their fullest functions the inestimable blessing of civil liberty, the best birthright and noblest inheritance of mankind.

Done at the city of Jackson, on the 1st day of July, A. D. 1865.

W. L. SHARKEY.

By the Governor:

JAMES R. YERGER, Secretary of State.

On the 17th of July the Governor ordered a tax of one dollar on each bale of cotton sent to market, toward paying the expenses of the State Convention provided for as above, and on the 21st issued an order doubling the tax in cases where payment was refused, and authorizing the sheriff to seize and sell at public auction a sufficient quantity of cotton to pay the tax. The election of delegates was characterized by an unusual degree of quiet, and, pursuant to the Governor's proclamation, the Convention, the first to meet under the call of a provisional Governor, assembled at Jackson on the 14th of August. James R. Yerger was chosen president, and made a short address, in which he expressed the hope that they were entering on an era of restoration, peace, and prosperity, and of security to the generations to come after them.

After the election of a secretary, the oath to support the Constitution of the United States was administered to all the delegates. On the 17th a memorial was adopted, to be presented to the President of the United States, praying him not to garrison the State with negro troops. This was presented to Gen. Osterhaus, to be forwarded. On the 21st the following amendment to the State Constitution was adopted, after an earnest debate, by a vote of 86 to 11:

The institution of slavery having been abolished by the State of Mississippi, neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, otherwise than in punishment of crime, of which the party shall have been duly convicted, shall hereafter exist in this State; and the Legislature at the next session, and thereafter, as the public welfare may require, shall provide for the protection and security of the persons and property of the freedmen of this State, and guard them and the State against the evils that may arise from their sudden emancipation.

On the same day an ordinance was passed, providing for a general election according to the constitution and the election laws of the State as they existed on the 1st of January, 1861, for Representatives in Congress, State officers, and members of the Legislature, and for a special election of county, district, judicial, and ministerial officers, both to be held on the 2d of October. On the 22d an ordinance was passed, declaring the ordinance of secession null and void, and repealing all the ordinances of the Convention of 1861, except the revenue ordinance, which was left for the Legislature to act upon. On the 23d an ordinance was passed, ratifying all laws and official acts passed

since the act of secession, not repugnant to the Constitutions of the United States and Mississippi, prior to January, 1861, except the laws concerning crimes and the acts enabling railroads to pay moneys borrowed by them; also repealing all laws authorizing the payment of dues to the State in Confederate scrip, and all laws authorizing the distillation of spirits on State account; ratifying all official accounts, proceedings, judgments, decrees, etc., of the several courts; legalizing all sales made by administrators and others acting in a judicial capacity; authorizing executors and others to compromise with persons against whom they held notes, as to the real value of the property for which such notes were given; authorizing *ex parte* testimony to be taken to prove whether or not contracts which had been made contemplated specie or currency payments; ratifying all marriages consummated since January, 1861, whether celebrated with the usual forms or not. On the 24th Governor Sharkey sent in to the Convention the following despatch from President Johnson:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., Aug. 15, 1865. }

Gov. Wm. L. Sharkey, Jackson, Miss.:

I am gratified to see that you have organized your convention without difficulty. I hope that without delay your convention will amend your State constitution, abolishing slavery and denying to all future Legislatures the power to legislate that there is property in man; also that they will adopt the amendment to the Constitution of the United States abolishing slavery. If you could extend the elective franchise to all persons of color who can read the Constitution of the United States in English and write their names, and to all persons of color who own real estate valued at not less than two hundred and fifty dollars and pay taxes thereon, you would completely disarm the adversary and set an example the other States will follow. This you can do with perfect safety, and you would thus place Southern States in reference to free persons of color upon the same basis with the free States. I hope and trust your convention will do this, and as a consequence the radicals, who are wild upon negro franchise, will be completely foiled in their attempts to keep the Southern States from renewing their relations to the Union by not accepting their Senators and Representatives.

ANDREW JOHNSON, President United States.

On the same day, after laying on the table a proposition to submit the constitutional amendment to the people for ratification or rejection, and nominating Judge E. S. Fisher for Governor, the Convention adjourned *sine die*. At an informal meeting of the delegates in their individual capacity, a petition to President Johnson, praying him to pardon Jefferson Davis and Gov. Clarke, was read, and a resolution was adopted requesting the President of the Convention to forward the memorial to the President of the United States.

A good deal of excitement was occasioned by the taking of a man, named Potter, out of the custody of a civil magistrate, by Gen. Osterhaus, while he was undergoing trial for shooting a negro in the act of robbery. Gen. Osterhaus published, in the Jackson "News" of the 2d of September, a reply to some strictures made in

that paper with regard to his course, alleging that what he had done was strictly within the scope of his instructions, which were as follows :

General Orders No. 18.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF MISSISSIPPI,
VICKSBURG, Miss., Aug. 15, 1863. }

The following endorsement on a communication regarding jurisdiction of military courts in certain cases, which was addressed to the Assistant Judge Advocate General, and by him referred to the Judge Advocate General of the army, and which is approved by the Secretary of War, is published for the information of all concerned :

WAR DEPARTMENT, BUREAU OF MILITARY JUSTICE, }
July 23, 1863. }

Respectfully returned to Col. W. M. Dunn, Assistant Judge Advocate General.

The trials by military commission of the within named citizens of Mississippi (Cooper, Downing, and Saunders), charged with capital and other gross assaults upon colored soldiers of our army (and in one instance of a similar treatment of a colored female), should be at once proceeded with; and all like cases of crime in that locality should be promptly and vigorously prosecuted. That the President has accorded a Provisional Government to the State of Mississippi is a fact which should not be allowed to abridge or injuriously affect the jurisdiction heretofore properly assumed by military courts in that region during the war. And especially is the continued exercise of that jurisdiction called for, in cases—1st, of wrong or injury done by citizens to soldiers (whether white or black); and 2d, of assault or abuse of colored citizens generally; where, indeed, the local tribunals are either unwilling (by reason of inherent prejudice) or incapable (by reason of the defective machinery, or because of some State law declaring colored persons incompetent as witnesses) to do full justice or properly punish the offenders.

The State of Mississippi, in common with other insurgent States, is still in the occupation of our forces, and—embraced, as it is, in a military department—is still, to a very considerable extent, under the control of the military authorities. Moreover, the rebellion, though physically crushed, has not been officially announced or treated, either directly or indirectly, as a thing of the past; the suspension of the *habeas corpus* has not been terminated, nor has military law ceased to be enforced, in proper cases, through the agency of military courts and military commanders, in all parts of the country.

It is to be added that the charges against the within named parties have been examined and found to be generally substantially correct in form. A few changes only in the allegations have been noted as proper to be made before these charges are served upon the accused.

(Signed) A. A. HOSMER,
Major and Judge Advocate.

(In the absence of the Judge Advocate General.)

Approved :

(Signed)

E. M. STANTON,
Secretary of War.

July 27, 1865.

By order of Maj.-Gen. SLOCUM.

J. WARREN MILLER, Assistant Adjutant-General.

The rule laid down as above by Judge Advocate Hosmer, and endorsed by Secretary Stanton, constituted also, it would seem, a sufficient justification of Gen. Slocum in the following transactions. On the 19th of August Gov. Sharkey issued the following proclamation, calling on the people to organize under the militia laws of the State a force for the apprehension of offenders and the prevention of crime :

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, JACKSON, August 19, 1865.

Information having reached me that parties of bad men have banded together in different parts of the State for the purpose of robbing and plundering, and for violating the law in various ways, and that outrages of various kinds are being perpetrated, and the military authorities of the United States being insufficient to protect the people throughout the entire State, I do therefore call upon the people, and especially on such as are liable to perform military duty and are familiar with military discipline, to organize volunteer companies in each county in the State, if practicable, at least one company of cavalry and one of infantry, as speedily as possible, for the detection of criminals, the prevention of crime, and the preservation of good order. And I urge upon these companies, when formed, that they will be vigilant in the discharge of their duties. These companies will be organized under the law in relation to volunteer companies, as contained in the Revised Code and the amendment thereto passed on the 10th day of February, 1860, except that as soon as the proper number shall volunteer the election of officers may take place immediately and without further order, and commissions will be issued as soon as returns are received, and the election may be held by any justice of the peace. I most earnestly call upon the young men of the State, who have so distinguished themselves for gallantry, to respond promptly to this call, which is made in behalf of a suffering people.

It will be the duty, as I hope it will be the pleasure, of these companies to pursue and apprehend all offenders against law, and by vigilance to prevent crime; to aid the civil authorities, and to contribute all in their power to the restoration of good order in the community. Arms will be procured, if possible, for such as may not have them; but I would advise an immediate organization with such arms as can be procured.

Given under my hand, and the great seal of the State affixed.

W. L. SHARKEY,

Provisional Governor of Mississippi.

On the 24th Gen. Slocum issued an order interfering with the proposed organization of the State militia, as follows :

General Orders No. 22.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF MISSISSIPPI, }
VICKSBURG, Miss., August 24, 1865. }

The attention of District Commanders is called to a proclamation of the Provisional Governor of the State of Mississippi, of the 19th inst., which provides for the organization of a military force in each county of the State.

While the General Government deems it necessary to maintain its authority here by armed forces, it is important that the powers and duties of the officers commanding should be clearly defined.

The State of Mississippi was one of the first that engaged in the recent rebellion. For more than four years all her energies have been devoted to a war upon our Government. At length, from exhaustion, she has been compelled to lay down her arms; but no orders have as yet been received by the military authorities on duty here indicating that the State has been relieved from the hostile position which she voluntarily assumed toward the United States.

The General Government, earnestly desiring to restore the State to its former position, has appointed a Provisional Governor, with power to call a convention for the accomplishment of that purpose. Upon the military forces devolve the duties of preserving order and of executing the laws of Congress and the orders of the War Department. The orders defining the rights and privileges to be secured to freedmen meet with opposition in many parts of the State, and the duties devolving upon military officers, in the execution of these orders, are often of a delicate nature. It has certainly been the desire of the Depart-

ment Commander, and, so far as he has observed, of all officers on duty in the State, to execute these orders in a spirit of conciliation and forbearance; and while obeying implicitly all instructions of the President and the War Department, to make military rule as little odious as possible to the people. While the military authorities have acted in this spirit, and have been as successful as could have been anticipated, the Provisional Governor has thought proper, without consultation with the Department Commander, or with any other officer of the United States on duty here, to organize and arm a force in every county, urging the "young men of the State, who have so distinguished themselves for gallantry," to respond promptly to his call; meaning thereby that class of men who have as yet scarcely laid down the arms with which they have been opposing our Government. Such force, if organized as proposed, is to be independent of the military authority now present, and superior in strength to the United States forces on duty in the State. To permit the young men who have so distinguished themselves to be armed and organized independently of United States military officers on duty here, and to allow them to operate in counties now garrisoned by colored troops, filled, as many of these men are, not only with prejudice against those troops, and against the execution of orders relative to freedmen, but even against our Government itself, would bring about a collision at once, and increase in a tenfold degree the difficulties that now beset the people. It is to be hoped that the day will soon come when the young men called upon by Governor Sharkey and the colored men now serving the United States will zealously cooperate for the preservation of order and the promotion of the interests of the State and nation. It will be gratifying to the friends of the colored race to have the assurance in an official proclamation from the Provisional Governor that the day has already arrived when the experiment can safely be attempted. But as the questions on which these two classes will be called to cooperate are those with regard to which there would undoubtedly be some difference of opinion, particularly as to the construction of certain laws relative to freedmen, the Commanding General prefers to postpone the trial for the present. It is the earnest desire of all military officers, as it must be of every good citizen, to hasten the day when the troops can, with safety, be withdrawn from this State, and the people be left to execute their own laws; but this will not be hastened by arming at this time the young men of the State.

The proclamation of the Provisional Governor is based on the supposed necessity of increasing the military forces in the State to prevent the commission of crime by bad men. It is a remarkable fact that most of the outrages have been committed against Northern men, Government couriers, and colored people. Southern citizens have been halted by these outlaws, but at once released and informed that they had been stopped by mistake; and these citizens have refused to give information as to the parties by whom they were halted, although frankly acknowledging that they knew them.

Governor Sharkey, in a communication written after his call for the organization of militia forces was made, setting forth the necessity for such organization, states that the people are unwilling to give information to the United States military authorities which will lead to the detection of these outlaws, and suggests, as a remedy for these evils, the arming of the very people who refuse to give such information.

A better plan will be to disarm all such citizens, and make it for their interest to aid those who have been sent here to restore order and preserve peace. It is therefore

Ordered, That District Commanders give notice at once to all persons within their respective districts

that no military organizations, except those under the control of the United States authorities, will be permitted within their respective commands; and that, if any attempt is made to organize after such notice, those engaged in it will be arrested. Whenever any outrages are committed upon either citizens or soldiers, the commander of the post nearest the point where the offence is committed will report the fact to the District Commander, who will forthwith send as strong a force to the locality as can be spared.

The officer in command of such force will at once disarm every citizen within ten miles of the place where the offence was committed. If any citizen possessing information which would lead to the capture of the outlaws refuses to impart the same, he will be arrested and held for trial. The troops will be quartered on his premises, and he will be compelled to provide for the support of men and animals. These villains can be arrested, unless they receive encouragement from some portion of the community in which they operate, and such communities must be held responsible for their acts, and must be made to realize the inevitable consequences of countenancing such outrages.

By order of Major-General SLOCUM.

J. WARREN MILLER, Assistant Adjutant-General.

On the 29th the President received a despatch from Gen. Carl Schurz, expressing doubts of the propriety of Gov. Sharkey's course, and deprecating any action by the President adverse to the order issued by Gen. Slocum. Next day the President telegraphed to Gen. Schurz as follows:

EXECUTIVE MANSION,
WASHINGTON, D. C. August 30, 1865. }

Major-General Carl Schurz, Vicksburg, Miss. :

I presume Gen. Slocum will issue no order interfering with Gov. Sharkey in restoring the functions of the State government without first consulting the Government, giving the reasons for such proposed interference. It is believed there can be organized in each county a force of citizens or militia to suppress treason, preserve order, and enforce the civil authority of the State and of the United States, which would enable the Federal Government to reduce the army and withdraw to a great extent the forces of the United States, thereby reducing the enormous expenses of the Government. If there was any danger from an organization of the citizens for the purpose indicated, the military are there to detect and suppress on the first appearance any move insurrectionary in its character. One great object is to induce the people to come forward in the defence of the State and Federal Government. General Washington declared that the people of the militia was the army of the Constitution, or the army of the United States, and as soon as it is practicable, the original design of the Government must be resumed, and the government administered upon the principles of the great chart of freedom handed down to the people by the founders of the republic.

The people must be trusted with their government, and, if trusted, my opinion is they will act in good faith and restore their former constitutional relations with all the States composing the Union. The main object of Maj.-General Carl Schurz's mission to the South was to aid, as far as practicable, in carrying out the policy adopted by the Government for restoring the States to their former relations with the Federal Government.

It is hoped such aid has been given. The proclamation authorizing restoration of State governments requires the military to aid the Provisional Governor in the performance of his duties as prescribed in the proclamation, and in no manner to interfere or throw impediments in the way of consummating the object

of his appointment, at least without advising the Government of the intended interference.

ANDREW JOHNSON,
President United States.

On the 2d of September the President received a despatch from Gov. Sharkey, stating that Gen. Slocum had issued an order preventing the execution of his proclamation of August 19th, and acknowledging the receipt of a copy of the despatch sent to Gen. Carl Schurz. A similar despatch was subsequently sent to Gov. Sharkey. On the same day the following despatch was sent to Gen. Slocum:

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, Sept. 2d.

To Maj.-Gen. Slocum:

Upon the 19th of August Gov. Sharkey issued a proclamation calling for the formation of military companies in each county to detect criminals and prevent crime and preserve good order in places where the military forces of the United States were insufficient to do so. If you have issued any order countermanding this proclamation or interfering with its execution, you will at once revoke it. Acknowledge the receipt of this order and telegraph your action.

By order of the President of the United States,
T. T. ECKERT, Acting Ass. Sec. War.

Gen. Slocum promptly issued the following order, revoking his order of August 24th:

General Orders No. 28.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF MISSISSIPPI, }
VICKSBURG, Miss., Sept. 4, 1865. }

By direction of the President of the United States, General Orders No. 22, current series from these headquarters, is hereby revoked.

No officer will, in any manner, interfere with the organization of troops pursuant to the proclamation of the Provisional Governor.

The order which is hereby revoked was issued, as stated therein, from apprehension of danger of conflict between the State troops and colored troops serving the United States, and in the firm belief that it was in accordance with the policy of the Government.

It is the imperative duty of every United States officer serving in this department to be guarded in the execution of all orders; to avoid giving offence; and in case of conflict with either officers or soldiers serving under the State authorities, to postpone action in the matter, if possible, until it has been referred to the district or department commander for decision.

By order of Major-General SLOCUM.
J. W. MILLER, A. A. G.

The condition and relations of the freedmen became the subject of much discussion in Mississippi. Many of the negroes remained with their old masters; others roamed about the country in idle vagrancy. Almost all of them had very extravagant notions of their newly acquired rights and privileges. Their late owners and the white population generally, on the other hand, though accepting the new order of things in good faith as an inevitable necessity, were for the most part unprepared to grant equal rights to the negroes. Some even expected the restoration of slavery sooner or later. Little trouble, however, actually occurred between the freedmen and their employers. All labor was contracted for, and owners of plantations were anxious to make contracts for

1866, being apprehensive that laborers would be procured with difficulty at the beginning of the season. The admission of negro testimony in courts of justice and the right to sue and be sued, incident to the right to protection of person and property guaranteed by the amended State constitution, met with much opposition; and Col. Thomas, Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, having proposed to turn over the business of his court to the civil authorities, Gov. Sharkey issued the following proclamation:

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, JACKSON, September 25, 1865.

By an order bearing date the 20th inst., Col. Samuel Thomas, Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau in this State, proposes to transfer to the civil authorities of the State the right to try all cases in which the rights of freedmen are involved, either for injuries done to their persons or property. This proposition is made, however, on condition that "the judicial officers and magistrates of the provisional government of the State will take for their mode of procedure the laws now in force in this State, except so far as those laws make a distinction on account of color, and allow negroes the same rights and privileges as are accorded to white men before their courts;" by which I understand that negroes shall be allowed to testify in cases where their interest is involved. And believing that the late constitutional amendment which abolished slavery abolishes all laws which constituted a part of the policy of the system of slavery, and in declaring that the negro shall be protected in his person and property, establishes principles which, of themselves, entitle the negro to sue and be sued, and as a necessary incident to such right, that he is made competent as a witness, according to the laws of evidence of the State: Now, therefore, I, William L. Sharkey, Provisional Governor of Mississippi, with a view of securing to our citizens the rights of trial before their own officers, and under their own laws, rather than by a military tribunal and by military law, do hereby proclaim and make known that in all cases, civil or criminal, in which the rights of negroes are involved, either for injuries done to their persons or property, or in matters of contract, the testimony of negroes may be received, subject to the common rules of evidence, as regards competency and credibility, which prevail in regard to white persons. And I do therefore accept the proposition of Col. Samuel Thomas, Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau of this State, and request that no freedmen's court shall hereafter be organized, and that those already in existence be closed, and instructed to transfer the cases before them to civil authorities; and I hereby instruct all judicial officers and magistrates to act accordingly, until the Legislature shall act upon this subject.

Given under my hand and the great seal of the State affixed this day and date above written.

W. L. SHARKEY,

Provisional Governor of Mississippi.

The State election took place on the 2d of December, and resulted in the choice of Gen. Benj. G. Humphreys for Governor, H. J. Harris for Secretary of State, T. T. Swann for Auditor, Gen. John H. Echols for Treasurer, and C. E. Hooker for Attorney-General. Five Congressmen were also elected. The total vote of the State for Governor was 44,916. In 1860 the total vote for President was 69,120. Both houses of the Legislature convened and organized on the 16th. Gov. Sharkey was chosen United States Senator, to fill the unexpired

term of Jefferson Davis, and J. L. Alcorn for the long term.

Gov. Humphreys, in his inaugural message, after asserting the supremacy of the Constitution of the United States, said that he had "always believed that no one or more States could constitutionally sever the ties that unite the people of the several States into one people," though not unmindful that a different doctrine had been taught and maintained by some of the brightest intellects and most illustrious patriots. He regretted that the solution of the question had been referred to the arbitrament of war; but having been so referred and decided beyond appeal, the people of the State acknowledged the decision, and were anxious to renew their fealty to the United States, and in good faith to maintain it. "It is now our duty," said he, "to address ourselves to the promotion of peace and order—to the restoration of law, the faith of the Constitution, and the stability and prosperity of the Union; to cultivate amicable relations with our sister States, and establish our agricultural and commercial prosperity upon more durable foundations—trusting that the lessons taught by the rebellion will not be lost either to the North or the South—that freemen, once enlightened, will not submit to wrong or injustice, that sectional aggression will meet with sectional resistance, and that the price of political perfidy is blood and carnage." To attempt to persuade the world that the State had abolished slavery willingly, would, he said, be "hypocritical and unprofitable." It would be due, however, to her honor to show by her future course that she had done so in good faith, and that slavery should never again exist within her borders. With regard to the emancipated slaves he said, "The highest degree of elevation in the scale of civilization to which they are capable morally and intellectually must be secured to them by their education and religious training; but they cannot be admitted to political or social equality with the white race. It is due to ourselves—to the white emigrant invited to our shores—and, it should never be forgotten, to maintain the fact that ours is and it shall ever be a government of white men." He urged that the State, in the guardianship she might assume over the freedman, should deal justly with him, and protect him in all his rights of person and property, but that he should be required to choose some employment that would insure the maintenance of himself and his family, and that he should be compelled to fulfil his contracts for labor.

On the 26th the State Auditor, in compliance with a resolution adopted by the House of Representatives the day before, made the following statements:

1st. The amount of Cotton Notes issued under an act entitled "an act authorizing the issuance of Treasury Notes, as advances upon cotton," approved December 19, 1861..... \$5,000,000 00

2d. The amount of Auditor's Warrants drawn upon the Treasury as advance upon cotton... \$5,000,002 00
 3d. The amount of cotton bonds redeemed to 1st May, 1863, and notes destroyed..... \$1,171,168 50
 Redeemed to 20th May, 1863, notes not destroyed..... 26,173 85
 Redeemed from October 24th and 25th, 1863... 6,095 50
 \$1,202,487 35

Cotton bonds unpaid..... \$3,798,564 65

On the same day the treasurer reported as follows:

Bonds to secure advance on cotton have been filed in this office amounting to..... \$4,191,717 50
 Overissue on bonds and repaid into Treasury by A. J. Gillespie, Auditor..... 150 00
 Outstanding Auditor's warrants issued for advance on cotton..... 8,134 50
 \$5,000,002 00
 Amount cotton money repaid and burned..... \$1,171,168 50
 " " " " to me since..... 26,623 60
 16th October, 1863..... 6,095 50

Total amount paid to redeem bonds..... \$1,208,883 00

While the Legislature was in session the following correspondence took place between Gov. Humphreys and President Johnson:

To His Excellency the President of the United States:

A telegram just received from the President of Mobile and Ohio Railroad, says: Passenger trains of cars were attacked on the evening of the 14th, possession taken by a garrison of colored troops at Lauderdale Springs, ladies insulted, and the officers unable to control the troops.

The Legislature has memorialized for removal of United States troops, and seem willing to extend to the freedmen the right to testify in court, if assured the troops would be withdrawn. Members fear that one concession only leads to another. What assurances can I give on this subject?

B. G. HUMPHREYS, Governor of Mississippi.

WASHINGTON, November 17, 1863.

B. G. Humphreys:

The troops will be withdrawn from Mississippi when, in the opinion of the Government, the peace and order of the civil authorities have been restored and can be maintained without them. Every step will be taken while they are there to enforce strict discipline and subordination to the civil authorities. There can be no other or greater assurance than has heretofore been on the part of the Federal Government.

There is no concession required on the part of the people of Mississippi, or the Legislature, other than a legal compliance with the laws and Constitution of the United States, and the adoption of such measures giving protection to all freedmen and possession of property without regard to color, as will entitle them to assume their constitutional rights in the Federal Union. The people of Mississippi may feel well assured that there is no arbitrary disposition on the part of the Government to dictate what their action shall be, but on the contrary to simply and kindly advise a policy that is beneficial and will result in restoring all the relations which should exist between the States comprising the Federal Union. It is hoped that they will feel and appreciate the suggestions herein made, for they are done in that spirit which should pervade the bosom of all who desire peace and harmony, and a thorough restoration of the Union. There must be a confidence between Government and States, while the Government confides in the people. The people must have faith in the Government. This must be mutual and reciprocal, or all that has been done will be thrown away.

ANDREW JOHNSON, President

This letter of President Johnson was not without effect. It became apparent that there was only one way in which the State might be rid of the presence of a military force, and the rule of the civil authorities be fully restored. On the 20th Gov. Humphreys sent a message to the Legislature, in which, though he used some very strong language in condemnation of the Freedmen's Bureau, he argued that as the amended State constitution guaranteed protection to the person and property of the freedman, and that as this could not be effected except through an independent and enlightened judiciary, the courts must be thrown open to the negro; but that this would be idle if he were not permitted to testify himself and introduce such testimony as he or his attorney might deem essential to establish the truth and justice of his case. He added: "It is an insult to the intelligence and virtue of our courts and juries of white men, to say or suspect that they cannot or will not protect the innocent, whether white or black, against the falsehoods and perjury of black witnesses." He recommended, therefore, that negro testimony should be admitted in the courts, not only for the protection of the freedman, but for the security of society against the crimes of both races.

The Legislature before adjourning passed a bill conferring civil rights upon freedmen, free negroes, and mulattoes, according to the provisions of which they may sue and be sued in all the courts of the State, and may devise and inherit property; negro marriages are legalized; the marriage of a white person with a negro is made felony, and punishable with confinement in the State penitentiary for life; negroes are competent witnesses in all suits in which negroes are parties; every negro must have a legalized certificate of his mode of employment; all contracts made by negroes for hire for longer periods than one month must be in writing, and if a negro without just cause leave his employer he forfeits all wages; every civil officer is required to take back to his employer a negro deserting him, both parties having the right of appeal to the circuit court; justices may issue warrants for the arrest of freedmen who desert their employers; negroes employed cannot be hired by others; negroes may make affidavits and begin suits in courts of law and equity; the penal code of the State is made the same for whites and blacks, except in cases otherwise specially provided by statute.

An act was passed to ascertain the number of maimed State and Confederate soldiers in the State, with a view to providing them with artificial limbs. An exemption law, and a stay law suspending the laws for the collection of debts till the 1st of January, 1868, were both passed over the Governor's veto. The amendment to the Constitution of the United States was ratified, with the qualification that this ratification is expressly made and adopted upon the conditions and with the reservations following:

1. It shall not be construed into an approval or endorsement of the political principles or doctrine that the reserved rights of a State can, without the consent of such State, be usurped or abridged by the Federal Government, through the instrumentality of a Constitutional amendment.

2. It shall not be construed into expressed or implied consent on the part of the Legislature that Congress shall abolish slavery where it lawfully exists in any State that may refuse to ratify said amendment.

3. The emancipation of slavery in this State being a fixed fact—distinctly recognised by her constitution, and by recent legislative enactments, designed in good faith to maintain and protect the civil rights of the freedmen appertaining to their new condition of freedom—the second section of said amendment shall not be construed as a grant of power to Congress to legislate in regard to the freedmen of this State; but so far as relates to this State it shall be construed simply as a grant of power to Congress by appropriate legislation to prohibit and prevent the reestablishment of slavery therein.

MISSOURI. On January 6th the State Constitutional Convention assembled at St. Louis, and the State Legislature at Jefferson City. The first important action of the convention, after its organization, was the passage of an ordinance abolishing slavery in the State. The ordinance, and the proceedings relative thereto, are reported in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864. Governor Fletcher, on the 11th, issued a proclamation, stating the action of the convention, and declaring "that henceforth and forever no person within the jurisdiction of the State shall be subject to any abridgment of liberty, except such as the law shall prescribe for the common good, or know any master but God." The occasion was celebrated in St. Louis by the suspension of business during the day, and the decoration of the houses with flags, and at night by an illumination.

The next measure considered by the convention was the Bill of Rights.

The first and second sections of the bill were such as are usually inserted. The third section reported was as follows:

That no person can, on account of color, be disqualified as a witness, or be disabled to contract, or be prevented from acquiring, holding, and transmitting property, or be liable to any other punishment for any offence than that imposed upon others for a like offence, or be restricted in the exercise of religious worship, or be hindered in acquiring education, or be subjected in law to any other restraints or disqualifications, in regard to any personal rights, than such as are laid upon others under like circumstances.

It was moved to amend by inserting after the word "contract" the words "except contracts of marriage between persons of African descent and white persons." For this amendment the following substitute was adopted: "otherwise than as others are disabled," and the section was passed. The fourth section recognized the people as the source of all political power. An amendment was offered that "civil government is ordained of God, and is essential to the peace and welfare of human society;" but the people have the right to determine the form of government they will adopt, etc. After much discussion, the amend-

ment was rejected. Section fifth recognized the exclusive right of the people to regulate, alter, or abolish their form of government, etc., "but every such right should be exercised in pursuance of law and consistently with the Constitution of the United States." It was moved to strike out the words "in pursuance of law and," which, after debate, was withdrawn. The sixth and seventh sections were adopted as follows, without debate:

That this State shall ever remain a member of the American Union, that the people thereof are a part of the American nation, and that all attempts, from whatever source or upon whatever pretext, to dissolve said Union or to sever said nation, ought to be resisted with the whole power of the State.

That every citizen of this State owes paramount allegiance to the Constitution and Government of the United States, and that no law or ordinance of this State in contravention thereof can have any binding force.

The eighth section recognized the right of the people peaceably to assemble and petition for a redress of grievances, and was adopted without debate. The first part of the ninth section was as follows:

That all men have a natural and indefeasible right to worship Almighty God according to the dictates of their own consciences; that no person can, on account of his religious opinions, be rendered ineligible to any office of trust or profit in this State.

After the word "State" the following words were added as an amendment, "nor be disqualified from testifying," and the section was adopted. The other sections of the Bill of Rights are generally similar to the Constitutions of other States. The third section of the second article relating to the Elective Franchise, provides that at any subsequent State or local election no person shall be deemed a qualified voter who has ever been in armed hostility to the United States or to the lawful authorities thereof; or to the Government of the State; or has ever given aid, comfort, countenance, or support to any persons engaged in such hostility; or has ever, in any manner, adhered to the enemies, foreign or domestic, of the United States, either by contributing to them or by unlawfully sending within their lines money, goods, letters, or information; or has ever disloyally held communication with such enemies; or has ever advised or aided any person to enter the service of such enemies; or has ever, by act or word, manifested his adherence to the cause of such enemies, or his desire for their triumph over the arms of the United States; or his sympathy with those engaged in exciting or carrying on rebellion against the United States; or has ever, except under overpowering compulsion, submitted to the authority, or been in the service of the so-called "Confederate States of America;" or has ever left this State and gone within the lines of the armies of the so-called "Confederate States of America," with the purpose of adhering to said States or armies; or has ever been a member of, or connected with, any order, society, or organization inimical to

the Government of the United States, or to the Government of this State; or has ever been engaged in guerrilla warfare against loyal inhabitants of the United States, or in that description of marauding commonly known as "bushwhacking;" or has ever knowingly and willingly harbored, aided, or countenanced any person so engaged; or has ever come into or left this State for the purpose of avoiding enrolment for or drafted into the military service of the United States; or has ever with a view to avoid enrolment in the militia of this State, or to escape the performance of duty therein, or for any other purpose, enrolled himself, or authorized himself to be enrolled, by or before any officer, as disloyal or as a Southern sympathizer; or in any other terms indicating his disaffection to the Government of the United States in its contest with rebellion, or his sympathy with those engaged in such rebellion; or having ever voted at any election by the people in this State, or in any other of the United States, or in any of their Territories, or held office in this State, or in any other of the United States, or in any of their Territories, or under the United States, shall thereafter have sought or received under claim of alienage the protection of any foreign Government, through any consul or other officer thereof, in order to secure exemption from military duty in the militia of this State, or in the army of the United States; nor shall any such person be capable of holding in this State any office of honor, trust, or profit under its authority; or of being an officer, councilman, director, trustee, or other manager of any corporation, public or private, now existing or hereafter established by its authority; or of acting as a professor or teacher in any educational institution, or in any common or other school; or of holding any real estate or other property in trust for the use of any church, religious society, or congregation. But the foregoing provisions in relation to acts done against the United States shall not apply to any person not a citizen thereof, who shall have committed such acts while in the service of some foreign country at war with the United States, and who has, since such acts, been naturalized, or may hereafter be naturalized under the laws of the United States; and the oath of loyalty hereinafter prescribed, when taken by any such person, shall be considered as taken in such sense.

A system of registration was required in every county of the State to be prescribed by the Legislature. Previous to the adoption of such a system, every voter was required to take an oath. After its adoption he was required to take the same oath upon the registry of his name; and no one unregistered could vote at an election; nor one registered, unless his name had been entered ten days previous. Mere registry does not confer the right to vote. The oath prescribed is designated in the Constitution as the Oath of Loyalty, and is in the following form:

I, A B, do solemnly swear, that I am well acquainted with the terms of the third section of the second article of the Constitution of the State of Missouri, adopted in the year eighteen hundred and sixty-five, and have carefully considered the same; that I have never, directly or indirectly, done any of the acts in said section specified; that I have always been truly and loyally on the side of the United States, against all enemies thereof, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the United States, and will support the Constitution and laws thereof, as the supreme law of the land, any law or ordinance of any State to the contrary notwithstanding; that I will, to the best of my ability, protect and defend the Union of the United States, and not allow the same to be broken up and dissolved, or the Government thereof to be destroyed or overthrown, under any circumstances, if in my power to prevent it; that I will support the Constitution of the State of Missouri; and that I make this oath without any mental reservation or evasion, and hold it to be binding on me.

The sections seventh, etc., to the fourteenth, prescribing the application of the oath, were adopted by the Convention, in the following words:

7. Within sixty days after this Constitution takes effect, every person in this State holding any office of honor, trust, or profit under the Constitution or laws thereof, under any municipal corporation, or any of the other offices, positions, or trusts mentioned in the third section of this article, shall take and subscribe the said oath. If any officer or person referred to in this section shall fail to comply with the requirements thereof, his office, position, or trust shall *ipso facto* become vacant, and the vacancy shall be filled according to the law governing the case.

8. No vote in any election by the people shall be cast up for, nor shall any certificate of election be granted to any person who shall not, within fifteen days next preceding such election, have taken, subscribed, and filed said oath.

9. No person shall assume the duties of any State, county, city, town, or other office, to which he may be appointed, otherwise than by a vote of the people; nor shall any person after the expiration of sixty days after this Constitution takes effect, be permitted to practise as an attorney or counsellor at law; nor, after that time, shall any person be competent as a bishop, priest, deacon, minister, elder, or other clergyman of any religious persuasion, sect, or denomination, to teach or preach or solemnize marriages, unless such persons shall have first taken, subscribed, and filed said oath.

10. Oaths taken in pursuance of the seventh, eighth, and ninth sections of this article, shall be filed as follows: by a State civil officer, or a candidate for a State civil office, and by members and officers of the present General Assembly, in the office of the Secretary of State; by a military officer in the office of the Adjutant-General; by a candidate for either house of the General Assembly in the clerk's office of the county court of the county of his residence, or in that of the county where the vote of the district is required by law to be cast up, and the certificate of election granted; by a city or town officer in the office where the archives of such city or town are kept; and in all other cases, in the office of the clerk of the county court of the county of the person's residence.

11. Every court in which any person shall be summoned to serve as a grand or petit juror, shall require him, before he is sworn as a juror, to take said oath, in open court; and no person refusing to take the same shall serve as a juror.

12. If any person shall declare that he has conscientious scruples against taking an oath, or swearing in any form, the said oath may be changed into a

solemn affirmation, and be made by him in that form.

13. In addition to the oath of loyalty aforesaid, every person who may be elected or appointed to any office, shall, before entering upon its duties, take and subscribe an oath or by affirmation that he will, to the best of his skill and ability, diligently and faithfully, without partiality or prejudice, discharge the duties of such office according to the Constitution and laws of this State.

14. Whoever shall, after the times limited in the seventh and ninth sections of this article, hold or exercise any of the offices, positions, trusts, professions, or functions therein specified, without having taken, subscribed, and filed said oath of loyalty, shall, on conviction thereof, be punished by fine not less than five hundred dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail not less than six months, or by both such fine and imprisonment; and whoever shall take said oath falsely, by swearing or by affirmation, shall, on conviction thereof, be adjudged guilty of perjury, and be punished by imprisonment in the penitentiary not less than two years.

Non-residents, whether Americans or foreigners, not otherwise disqualified, can vote after a residence of one year, or one year after having declared an intention to become naturalized. After January 1, 1878, no person unqualified can become a qualified voter, unless, in addition to the previous requisites, he shall be able to read and write; cases of physical disability are excepted. The disqualifications of the third section can be removed from persons who subsequently entered the military service of the United States and were honorably discharged. A majority of both houses of the Legislature, after the year 1871, can suspend or repeal any part of the third section relating to the qualifications of voters merely, and after 1875 all parts of the 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th sections may be repealed. But no such suspension or repeal shall dispense with the taking, by every person elected or appointed to office, so much of the oath of loyalty as follows the word "domestic;" subsequently, at the pleasure of the Legislature, the sections so suspended or repealed may be reinstated in the Constitution with full force and effect.

On February 15th the State Convention adopted a resolution, declaring that in their election the people intended "not only that slavery should be abolished and disloyalty disfranchised, but that the Constitution should be carefully revised and amended, to adapt it to the growth of the State." Under this view the Convention proceeded to make an entirely new Constitution. The previous Constitution had been in operation nearly forty-five years, during which great improvements had been made in the local institutions of various States. The efforts of the Convention were, therefore, directed to introduce or extend these beneficial changes to the institutions of Missouri. It is unnecessary to repeat the plan for the organization of the judiciary; the system of free schools under which gratuitous instruction is afforded to all between the ages of five and twenty years; the creation of corporations, which were to be authorized on general principles, and

other changes similar to those generally adopted in the Northern States. It was made a section of the Constitution that the Legislature should have "no power to make compensation for emancipated slaves." It was further provided that the Constitution should be submitted to the approval or rejection of the people on June 6th ensuing, and if approved by them it should take effect on the 4th of July. The voters in the military service of the United States were authorized to vote, whether within or without the State, after choosing two of their officers to act as officers of the election. No person was to be allowed to vote unless he was a qualified voter under the terms of the second article of the Constitution, as above mentioned, the same as if this article had been previously adopted, and was in full force and effect, including the oath above mentioned. The Convention also passed an ordinance, declaring vacant on the May 1st ensuing, the offices of the judges of the Supreme Court, of all circuit courts, and of all courts of records, established by any act of the General Assembly, and those of the justices of all county courts, of all circuit attorneys and their assistants, and of all sheriffs and county recorders. The vacancies so created, and all others which might occur, were to be filled for the remainder of the term of each by appointment by the Governor. Every person so appointed was required to make affidavit, as prescribed in the ordinance adopted June 10, 1862, which disfranchised all persons engaged in rebellion subsequent to December 17, 1861. The ordinance further provided as follows:

No person shall be prosecuted in any civil action, or criminal proceeding, for or on account of any act by him done, performed, or executed, after the 1st day of January, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-one, by virtue of military authority vested in him by the United States, or that of this State, to do such act, or in pursuance of orders received by him or them from any person vested with such authority; and if any action or proceeding be brought or instituted against any person for the doing of any such act, the defendant may plead in bar thereof, and give this ordinance in evidence. The provisions of this section shall apply in all cases where suits are now pending, in the same manner and with like effect as in suits or actions hereafter brought.

On the motion to strike out the word "white" as a qualification for voters, senators, and representatives, the Convention was so evenly divided, that the question was lost by one vote. One of the Senators in Congress from the State (Mr. Brown), in a letter on the Constitution, thus refers to the qualification of color:

Other and subsequent efforts to abolish the phraseology in the Constitution recognizing distinctions, founded on color and race alone, in the matter of electors, were made and with the same result, showing about an equally divided sentiment in the Convention.

Still, failure as the attempt was to open up the franchise to the attainment of all, it left in the minds of nearly all the Radical members of the Convention a keen appreciation of the need of so doing at an early day, and without doubt this was one of the moving considerations for empowering the Legislature to initiate constitutional amendments by a ma-

jority vote, ratified by the people. Let it be borne in mind that this power to alter embraces the subject matter of suffrage and elections as well as every other part of the Constitution. Authorizing the Legislature, therefore, to liberalize and extend the franchise was in effect a reference back to the people of the question of universal suffrage, leaving the approximations to be regulated by the popular demand. Certainly this is no limitation on the power of the people, and they who are most strenuous for universal suffrage have no cause to complain that the right of appeal to the people is forever reserved to them by the Constitution itself. They do and will always deplore that a Convention of Radical men commissioned to build up the foundations of a great commonwealth anew should have foregone so providential an opportunity to link their names with immortality and set the example of true and noble reconstruction, by establishing an equal freedom as the ground-work of their structure. They believe, furthermore, that it will hereafter be a source of equal mortification to many who are responsible for this omission, and that they too will derive their chief consolation from the fact that the facility of amendment guarantees a speedy success to that agitation which can only end when here in Missouri, as all over this Union of States, all men stand equal before the law.

On March 7th, Gov. Fletcher issued a proclamation, stating that no organized force of the enemies of the Federal Government existed in the State, and calling upon the civil officers to resume their duties in all parts of the State, under the laws thereof, and to arrest and bind over all offenders against the criminal laws of the United States, as they were authorized to do. On March 17th, Maj.-Gen. Pope, in command of the Military Department, issued his orders to aid in carrying out the proclamation of the Governor. All provost marshals were relieved from all duties except those of a military character, whenever notified that the civil courts were in operation, and required to turn over all matters, not military, to the civil authorities, and render their assistance when desired.

The total vote on the new Constitution, on June 6th, was 85,578, of which 43,670 were in favor, and 41,808 against it. It was therefore adopted by a majority of 1,862 votes. In 1860 the vote of the State for President was 131,462, and in 1864 it was 104,428.

Some exciting scenes ensued upon the adoption of measures to enforce the ordinances of the Convention and the provisions of the Constitution. The first arose under the ordinance above mentioned, vacating the public offices. The judges of the higher courts declined to vacate. The Circuit Court of St. Louis County decided that there was no legal validity in the ordinance. New judges, David Wagner and Walter E. Lovelace, were appointed by Governor Fletcher to the bench of the Supreme Court of the State, in place of Judges Bay and Dryden. An order from the new judges was served on the clerk of the court on June 12th, demanding the delivery of the records. In consequence, the old court in session issued the following order, which was attached to the doors of the clerk's office and of the court-room:

IN THE SUPREME COURT OF MISSOURI, }
HELD AT ST. LOUIS, Monday, June 12, 1865. }

It is ordered by the Supreme Court of Missouri: That no person or persons shall touch, handle, or remove from the court-room or office of the clerk of this court any of the books or records of the same without the consent of A. W. Mead, the clerk thereof; and any person or persons disobeying this order shall be deemed guilty of contempt of this court, and shall be punished accordingly.

A true copy from the record.

Attest:

A. W. MEAD, Clerk.

On the 13th an injunction was issued by the Circuit Court of St. Louis, restraining the new judges and all others from meddling in any manner with the records, without the consent of the old clerk. On the next day the Supreme Court of the State being in session, the commander of the enrolled militia, Gen. D. C. Coleman, appeared and presented to the judges on the bench the following order from Governor Fletcher:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, June 13, 1865.

SIR: By the ordinance of the State Convention vacating certain offices, the offices of the judges of the Supreme Court became vacant on the first day of May last. By virtue of the authority conferred on me by that ordinance, as Governor of the State of Missouri, I have caused commissions to be issued in legal form to Hon. David Wagner, Hon. Walter E. Lovelace, and Hon. Nathaniel Holmes, as judges of the Supreme Court, and who have qualified as such judges.

The ordinance referred to is the supreme law on that subject, and it is my imperative duty to enforce it, which duty I shall pursue the most summary course in performing, and will treat as they deserve any acts on your part done in furtherance of a design to intrude yourselves into and usurp the powers of the office of a judge of the Supreme Court.

Respectfully yours,

THOS. C. FLETCHER, Governor of Missouri.

The Judges Bay and Dryden informed the General that they declined to yield compliance to the threat, adding that the Governor had no warrant or authority for interrupting them in the discharge of their duties. The General then withdrew, and in a half hour returned with the following order from the Governor:

Special Order.

HEADQUARTERS STATE OF MISSOURI, June 14, 1865.

1. The usurping judges of the Supreme Court will be compelled to submit to the ordinance of the State Convention vacating certain offices.

2. David Wagner, Walter E. Lovelace, and Nathaniel Holmes will be put in possession of the Supreme Court room, in the court-house, at St. Louis, with all the records, seals, furniture, books, and papers of the office of the clerk of the Supreme Court.

3. Brig.-Gen. D. C. Coleman is charged with the execution of this order, and will employ such force for that purpose as he may deem necessary, and arrest all persons who may oppose him.

THOMAS C. FLETCHER,
Governor and Commander-in-Chief.

HEADQUARTERS STATE OF MISSOURI, June 14, 1865.

GENERAL: Herewith please find special order directing you to enforce the ordinance of the State Convention, vacating certain offices by putting the recently appointed judges of the Supreme Court into the possession of the court-room, records, etc., of that court.

You will proceed to the court-house, and, on the arrival of Messrs. Dryden and Bay, deliver to each of them the sealed note addressed to them respec-

tively. An officer of the city police will accompany you, and will have a force of the city police at hand.

If, after delivering the notes, the said Bay and Dryden do any act to disturb Messrs. Lovelace and Wagner in entering on said discharge of their duties as judges, you will direct the policemen to arrest them, and take them before the City Recorder, and at once inform me of that fact.

In case Messrs. Bay and Dryden do not come to the court-house at 9 o'clock or soon thereafter, you will cause the note referred to to be delivered to them at their rooms.

In putting the judges into possession of the court-room and clerk's office, you will, as far as is convenient in your judgment, avoid the use of violent means; but if in your judgment necessary, do not hesitate to employ all the force it may require.

THOMAS C. FLETCHER.

To Gen. DAVID C. COLEMAN.

The subsequent proceedings in the court were thus reported: "Judges Bay and Dryden refused also to recognize the authority of this order, and again protested against any interruption of themselves or their business at the hands of Gen. Coleman. This gentleman informed the Judges that, as an officer, he must obey the orders of his superiors. At first, he desired the Judges should consider themselves removed by force. This they declined acceding to. He then proposed to lay his hands upon them, and that they should consider that as an arrest. This also was declined, and he was informed that they would only yield to the presence and command of a force which they could not successfully resist. The General then informed them that a force of police was waiting in the hall of the court-house. The police were then introduced, the Judges taken from their seats by the police, by whom they were escorted as prisoners to the office of Recorder Wolf.

"When there, they found the following complaint on file against them:

To the Judge of the Recorder's Court of St. Louis County:

I do complain of Wm. V. N. Bay and John S. Dryden for disturbing the peace by interference with the Supreme Court. Please summon as witnesses.

Very respectfully,

THOMAS C. FLETCHER.

David Wagner,
Walter E. Lovelace,
Thomas C. Fletcher,
D. C. Coleman,
— Bomen.

"On this charge these gentlemen gave bond to appear before the recorder on the next morning.

"Directly after this ejection, Messrs. Wagner and Lovelace entered the Supreme Court room, and seated themselves upon the judges' bench. They attempted to transact no business, and after a short time adjourned their court until 3 o'clock p. m. During this time Gen. Coleman and his *posse comitatus* were in and in the vicinity of the Supreme Court room.

"At 3 o'clock Messrs. Wagner and Lovelace again took their seats on the judges' bench and opened their court.

"After a suspense of some minutes, an attorney arose and inquired in what order 'the

Court' would proceed to hear cases? To this Mr. Wagner responded that 'the Court' had not yet considered that matter, but would do so in a few days.

"Immediately after the eviction of Judges Bay and Dryden, Gen. Coleman demanded possession from Mr. A. W. Mead, Clerk of the Supreme Court, of the books, records, seal, etc., belonging to the court, with which order he necessarily complied, and thus had his official career as 'summarily' interrupted as was that of the Judges themselves."

On the next day the complainants did not appear before the Recorder's Court, and the persons arrested were discharged.

It was objected to these proceedings that the vacating ordinance was not within the scope of the act calling the Convention, and therefore beyond the power of the Convention to adopt; that it had never been submitted to the people, nor incorporated in or made a part of the Constitution which had been submitted; that it was the business of the courts to pass on the constitutionality of laws, and not that of the Governor; that it belonged to the old court and not to the new one to decide the question, or the whole theory of liberty, based on a constitutional judiciary, passes away, etc. There was also an interference of the military with courts in other parts of the State. Subsequently a civil suit was commenced in the Circuit Court by Judge Dryden against the Governor and General and others for unlawful interference while in the discharge of their duties, and asking as damages \$50,000. It had not reached a decision at the close of the year.

The oath required of professional men, also created much excitement. The Missouri Baptists, at their thirteenth annual meeting, held on August 19th and 20th, agreed to decline taking the oath required of ministers and teachers by the new Constitution. About fifty members were present. The reasons for this action were briefly that the oath was in conflict with the Constitution of the United States; interfered with the freedom of worshipping God; was *ex post facto* in its operations, and made every minister who refused to take it become a witness against himself; that the oath was unjust and unequal in its operations; that its purpose was to punish ministers for what was really no crime against any human law; that to take it was to acknowledge an authority in the State that does not belong to it, and that human authority was above divine. The Catholic Archbishop of St. Louis addressed the following letter to his clergy:

ST. LOUIS, 23th July, 1865.

REVEREND SIR: Since under the new Constitution a certain oath is to be exacted of priests, that they may have leave to announce God's word, and officiate at marriages, which oath they can in nowise take without a sacrifice of ecclesiastical liberty, I have judged it expedient to indicate to you my opinion in the matter, that you may have before your eyes a rule to be followed in a case of this delicacy. I hope that the civil power will abstain from exacting such

an oath. But should it happen otherwise, I wish you to inform me of the particular circumstances of your position, that I may be able to give you counsel and assistance.

I am, Rev. Sir, your obedient servant in the Lord,
†PETER RICHARD, Archbishop St. Louis.

The Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church thus expressed his views:

ST. LOUIS, August 29, 1865.

Editors Missouri Democrat.

A friend has called my attention to the following in your paper of Monday, the 28th:

We learn that Bishop Hawks, of the Episcopal Church in this State, has advised the clergy of his diocese to take the constitutional oath, or if they cannot conscientiously do so, to abandon preaching in this State.

I do not know who authorised you to say so much. My real position is this:

I am opposed to the oath pressed upon the clergy, not because by it the State infringes upon my divine commission. In my judgment it does not. If I thought that it did, I would never take the oath—and I have taken it. My opposition is that it is retrospective in its action, and that it also singles out particular classes for its application.

My advice to all clergymen who have asked it (and there are many of various Christian denominations who have done so) has been always—if you can take the oath conscientiously, do so; if not, then do not take it.

Of the wisdom of the Convention in framing and ordering such an oath I say nothing—my view is manifest. I hope that it may soon be repealed, and that in the mean time the civil authority will not attempt to enforce it.

Yours respectfully,

C. O. HAWKS.

A number of prosecutions were commenced against non-juring clergymen, who were in the meanwhile confined in the cells of prisons.

Members of the legal profession were also required to take the oath. At the September term of the criminal court in St. Louis, Judge Prim, after opening the court, informed the attorneys present, that he considered it to be his duty to declare, that no person would be permitted to practise as an attorney or counsellor-at-law in the court, without having taken and filed the oath of loyalty prescribed by the Constitution. In his opinion the courts had always been the judges of the qualifications of attorneys, that is, whether they had complied with the requirements of the law before engaging in practice, and it was the duty of the courts now, as heretofore, to permit no person to practice who was not a legally constituted attorney. Robert McDonald then addressed the court, expressing the opinion, that this action amounted to a prejudgment of the rights of parties who might be arraigned for trial before it, for a refusal to take, subscribe, and file the oath. The cases set for trial were postponed one or two days, but the court proceeded to swear the panel of grand jurors, when three of the jurors objected to being sworn. One objected, that in 1861 he was loyal to the United States, but sought to subvert the State Government under Gov. Jackson. Another was opposed to the provisions of the Constitution, believed the instrument was contradictory and in contravention to the

Constitution of the United States. A third stated that his conscience would not permit him to indict a minister who had failed to take the oath for preaching the gospel, and therefore was not competent to sit as a grand juror, especially as this question would probably be before the jury. The court refused to excuse them, stating that the reasons assigned by them were not valid, and that they were not judges of their disqualifications. The court then charged the grand jury, and upon a review of the sections of the Constitution arrived at the following conclusions:

1st. That the office of any officer or person referred to in the third section becomes vacant at once, by a failure on the part of such officer or person to take, subscribe, and file the oath of loyalty in the proper archive, within sixty days from the 4th day of July, 1865.

2d. That any such officer or person, who, after the expiration of the said sixty days, shall hold or exercise his office without having taken, subscribed, and filed the oath of loyalty, is liable to fine or imprisonment, or both.

3d. That after the expiration of said sixty days, no person shall assume the duties of any State, county, city, town, or other office to which he may be appointed, otherwise than by a vote of the people; and no person shall be permitted to practise as an attorney or counsellor-at-law; and no person shall be competent as a bishop, priest, deacon, minister, elder, or other clergyman of any religious persuasion, sect, or denomination, to teach or preach, or solemnize marriages, without having first taken, subscribed, and filed the oath of loyalty, under the penalty of fine and imprisonment as before stated; and,

4th. That persons taking the oath of loyalty falsely, by swearing or affirmation, are liable to be adjudged guilty of perjury, and to be punished by imprisonment in the penitentiary for a term of not less than two years.

The Judge further added:

But I charge you that it is your sworn duty to enforce this law, by presenting all offenders against its provisions, no matter what their estate or condition.

Some of you, too, may possibly entertain similar opinions; but such opinions must yield to the mandates of a law which your oath requires you to enforce, and which it is not within your competency to repeal or invalidate.

Before the adjournment of the court a motion was made to set aside the rule. This motion, after argument on a subsequent day, was overruled by the court.

The operation of the law was very unequal. In some cases grand juries adjourned without finding indictments against a minister, teacher, corporation officer, trustee, deacon, or elder. In other cases individuals made complaints before justices of the peace against teachers, male and female, who had not taken the oath. Many of the clergy, especially Catholic, were cast into prison.

Maj.-Gen. Pope, who was in command of the Department, adopted the policy of withdrawing the military force as fast as the people gave a sign of their willingness to return to the protection of the courts, and to enforce and obey the laws. In August, the number of military posts had been reduced to less than a dozen, which were kept up chiefly for the protection

of Government property. Martial law was nowhere applied to any but strictly military offences, and practically was, at this early day, at an end.

On November 1st, the total receipts into the treasury for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1865, were \$2,463,909.03, and total expenditures \$1,854,661.77, leaving a balance in the treasury of \$609,247.26, of which balance \$105,535.28 was in currency, and \$503,711.98 in Union military bonds and other issues of the State. The total bonded debt of the State, exclusive of bonds loaned the several railroads, was \$602,000, of which amount \$402,000 matured in 1862 and 1863. For these matured bonds, in pursuance of an act of January 2, 1864, new bonds, having twenty years to run, to the amount of \$260,000, had been exchanged. The total amount of bonds of the State loaned to the railroads, including the bonds guaranteed by the State, was \$23,701,000, on which the accrued and unpaid interest up to January, 1866, was \$1,307,780. The amount of the war debt of the State reached \$7,546,575. This debt was incurred by the State for the payment of the six months' militia, the enrolled militia, and the different organizations called out by the order of the Federal commanders. Of the gross amount, the sum of \$3,016,657 had been paid or cancelled. It was in progress of payment by the increased taxation upon persons immediately benefited by the objects for which the debt was incurred. It was believed that within two years the entire debt would be extinguished.

The railroads of the State continued to progress. The one from St. Louis to the western State line, known as the Pacific Railroad, was completed during the year. The Southwest Branch and Iron Mountain became by the operation of law the property of the State; and the Governor, in a message to the Legislature, recommended its sale on such terms as would insure its completion. The liability of the State on account of the road was \$4,000,000, with overdue interest amounting to \$1,350,000. The construction of 550 miles of road, in addition to that built on this route, would connect St. Louis with Galveston.

The Governor urged upon the Legislature the creation of a Department of Agriculture in connection with the State University. This measure is required by the new Constitution. The grant of Congress to the State, for the endowment of an Agricultural College, amounts to 330,000 acres of land.

By the new Constitution, it is provided that the right of suffrage of every male now ten years of age, shall depend upon his ability to read and write when he becomes twenty-one. The Governor urges the Legislature to avail themselves of the power granted by the Constitution to compel parents to send their children to school. The Constitution also directs the establishment and maintenance of a State University, with departments for instruction in

agriculture and the natural sciences, and a normal professorship. The State University at Columbia is situated in the central and a fertile portion of the State. The buildings are large, substantial, and elegant, and were erected without cost to the State. This institution is endowed with the fund arising from the sale of the land granted by the act of Congress of March 6, 1820, to the State, for the use of a seminary of learning. Of this fund \$1,000,000 is invested in the stock of the State Bank of Missouri, and 20,000 in the stock of the Branch Bank of Chillicothe. The sixth section of the ninth article of the Constitution requires that this stock should be sold or invested in United States or other securities.

The University, notwithstanding the small amount derived for its support from the dividend of three per cent. per annum declared by the State Bank, is in a healthy and flourishing condition, maintaining a high rank among the institutions of learning in the West.

The State holds in trust for the Common School Fund \$678,967.96, which is invested in stock of the State Bank of Missouri. The Constitution requires that this stock shall be sold.

The Missouri Military Institute, provided by the act of May 13, 1861, has not been organized. The Governor has not been able to find the deed contemplated by the eleventh section of that act, the delivery of which to the Governor is a condition precedent to the taking effect of the law. The buildings which were erected by the Masonic Order at a large cost have been almost entirely destroyed by the acts of the public enemy.

A board of emigration, created by an act of the Legislature of the previous year, has been engaged for six months in disseminating in the other States and in Europe information concerning the peculiarities and capabilities of the soil of the State, the numerous localities of the minerals, extent of timber, availability of water-courses, nature of the climate, and opportunities for education. The peaceful attitude which public affairs, soon after the war, assumed, greatly aided the people in recovering from their disasters.

MORNY, CHARLES AUGUSTE LOUIS JOSEPH, Duc de, President of the French Legislative body, born in Paris, October 23, 1811, died in that city, March 10, 1865. His parentage was purposely involved in mystery, but he is generally understood to have been the illegitimate child of Queen Hortense, the mother of Louis Napoleon, and the Count de Flahault, and thus a half brother of the Emperor. He was brought up under the care of his grandmother, Madame de Sousa, and was early remarked for his proficiency in his studies and the elegance of his manners; and to give him a position in society, the Count de Morny, a nobleman resident in the Isle of France, was induced to adopt him as his son, receiving the sum of 800,000 francs for the act. At the age of nineteen the young Count was placed at a military school, and

after two years received his commission as sub-lieutenant in a regiment of lancers then quartered at Fontainebleau; here he showed the versatility of his mind by frequenting the library of the palace, where for a time he devoted his attention to theological and metaphysical studies. He soon after joined the French army in Africa, where he took part in the expedition to Mascara and the siege of Constantine. At Mascara he performed the feat of crossing the whole army of Abd-el-Kader to join that of the French; at Constantine he was wounded with four balls, and at the end of the campaign was nominated Chevalier of the Legion of Honor, for having saved the life of General Trezel beneath the walls of that stronghold. In 1837 Queen Hortense died, leaving him an annuity of 40,000 francs, and soon after he retired from the army, and with his capital plunged into commercial speculations, his first essay being as a manufacturer of beet-root sugar at Clermont. He subsequently engaged in other speculations, with more or less success. In 1842 he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies for Puy-de-Dome, and, after eight years' service, was elected to the Legislative Assembly, when he at once identified himself with the policy of Louis Napoleon. During the *coup d'état* he was one of the few who were in the confidence of the Emperor, and was one of his most effective assistants in its consummation. After that event he held the office of Minister of the Interior, being appointed December 2, 1851, but resigned his position January 23, 1852, on account of the confiscation of the property of the Orleans family. Subsequently he became a member of the Legislative Body, and from 1854 to the time of his death officiated as its president. In 1857 the Count was sent to Russia as ambassador extraordinary to represent the French Emperor at the coronation of the Czar, when the relations between the two Governments were restored to an amicable footing, and a treaty of commerce negotiated. During his stay in Russia, M. de Morny married the young and wealthy Princess Troubetskoi, who had been brought up at the institution of the imperial maids of honor. As a wedding present, he is said to have given his bride diamonds costing 2,000,000 francs. He also purchased, in the name of his wife, a seigniorial estate belonging to the Sevlosky family, situated about twelve miles from St. Petersburg. Political affairs, however, by no means claimed his exclusive attention; on the contrary, for the last ten years he was associated in numerous industrial undertakings, and entered largely into important speculations connected with railroads, canals, mines, credit, societies, etc. He had also a decided taste for paintings, of which he had gathered quite a valuable collection. Of his political character, it may be said that he exercised no useless tyranny. His strategy consisted in profiting by circumstances, and demeaning himself courteously toward those he

had put down. The influence he had in the Chamber proceeded entirely from this tendency of his character, audacity in great moments of crisis, and conciliation when the danger was over and the battle won.

MORRIS, Brevet Brigadier-General WILLIAM WALTON, U. S. army, colonel 2d U. S. artillery, born at Ballston Springs, N. Y., in 1801, died at Fort McHenry, Baltimore, Dec. 11, 1865. He came of distinguished ancestors, whose names had been honorably associated with the history of our nation from its birth; entered West Point at the close of the second War of Independence in 1815, and graduated July 1, 1820, as second lieutenant of the 6th infantry. With that regiment he distinguished himself in Indian warfare near Council Bluff, Iowa, for which services he received the promotion of first lieutenant. In 1824 Lieutenant Morris was honored by a transfer from the infantry to the artillery; receiving a first lieutenancy in the 4th regiment of the latter service. When the war with the Seminole Indians in Florida began, General Thomas S. Jessup, who had assumed command of the army in the Creek Nation (now Alabama), organized a battalion of mounted Creek volunteers for service against the Seminoles, and gave the command to Lieutenant Morris, with the volunteer rank of major. At the head of this force Major Morris formed the advance of General Jessup's command, marching into Florida to the assistance of Governor R. K. Call and Colonel Zachary Taylor, and arrived in time to take part in the "great" Indian battle of Wahoo Swamp, on November 21, 1836. The battle was a total defeat for the Indians. They were driven across the Withlacoochee, with a loss of fifty killed, while our loss was only eight killed and nineteen wounded. For his conduct on this occasion Major Morris was promoted to a captaincy in the 4th artillery, the promotion dating December 17, 1836. He was also engaged in several other affairs with the Indians, the most important of which were the battles of the Okeechobee (December 25, 1837), the affairs at Hatcheelsnee Creek (January 27, 1837), Camp Moore, Clear River, Waccassassa, and Mosquito Inlet. His conduct in those several engagements gained him a brevet promotion. His brevet, which was that of major, was dated January 27, 1837 (the day of the Hatcheelsnee affair), and read that it was given "for gallant conduct on several occasions, and general efficiency in the war against the Florida Indians."

When the war with Mexico began, Captain Morris had become irregularly attached to the Judge Advocate's department of the army, and though actively engaged and distinguished at the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, the reputation which he won in that war was more that of a military lawyer than a warrior. During the nine years of garrison life, from 1837 to 1846, he had won a reputation as one of the ablest military lawyers in the service; and after the famous campaign of

General Scott against the city of Mexico had fairly opened, Captain Morris was employed as his legal talent rendered most appropriate. He was made Military Governor and alcalde of the city of Tampico on the occupation of that city, being removed shortly after to assume the same duties in the more important post of Puebla. Here he remained until the close of the war. Captain Morris was promoted major, November 4, 1853, and attached to the 4th artillery, and placed on duty as commandant of Fort Kearny, Nebraska Territory. He was relieved of this command by Colonel D. S. Miles in 1860, and ordered to the command of Fort Ridgely, Minn., where he was on duty until shortly before the commencement of the late war, when he was ordered to Fort McHenry, Baltimore. He was in command at this point on the memorable 19th of April, when the riots occurred in the streets of that city, and he caused much surprise and no little indignation among the secessionists by his promptness in training his guns on the riotous city. Here General Morris remained during the entire war, his career marked by no startling events, but his conduct always distinguished by firmness, fortitude, and faithfulness.

It was shortly after assuming command at Fort McHenry that Colonel Morris (he had been promoted lieutenant-colonel, May 14, 1861) took the important step of refusing to answer a writ of *habeas corpus* granted by a Maryland judge, in order to obtain possession of a soldier of the garrison of Fort McHenry. Against the advice and arguments of all his friends, legal advisers and fellow officers, Colonel Morris deliberately concluded to refuse the surrender of the culprit; and though the *habeas corpus* had not been formally suspended, he decided that the commencement of hostilities necessarily suspended it. He was the first officer who resisted the execution of the writ of *habeas corpus* after the war began, though hasty historians have given the credit to General B. F. Butler. He always acted with a firmness only intensified by its deliberation and coolness. He possessed great perseverance, and was of iron will, though mild mannered and affectionate to an unusual degree. He was a man of fine personal appearance, and dignified and courtly manners. Colonel Morris received his full promotion to the colonelcy of the 2d artillery on November 1, 1861, and his brevet of brigadier-general in the regular army was dated June 9, 1862, "for meritorious service."

MOTT, VALENTINE, M. D., LL. D., an eminent American surgeon, for many years at the head of his profession in the world, born at Glen Cove, Oyster Bay, Long Island, August 20, 1785, died in New York city, April 26, 1865. His father, Dr. Henry Mott, a native of Hempstead, L. I., practised medicine for many years in New York, and died in 1840, at the age of 88. Valentine Mott received his classical instruction from private instructors at New-

town, L. I., and in 1804 entered Columbia College as a medical student, becoming a private pupil in medicine at the same time, of his relative, Dr. Valentine Seaman. In 1806 he was graduated M. D., and proceeded almost immediately to Europe, where he visited regularly for months, St. Thomas', Bartholomew's, and Guy's Hospitals, where he enjoyed the advantage of the clinical instruction of Abernethy, Sir Charles Bell, and Sir Astley Cooper, choosing the latter as his private preceptor, and attending also the lectures of Currie and Haighton. From London he went to Edinburgh, where he attended the lectures of Hope, Playfair, and Gregory, as well as the prelections of Dugald Stewart. His skill and intrepidity as an operator, even at this early period, began to win him renown; and on his return to the United States in 1809, he was at once called to fill the chair of surgery in Columbia College. This responsible position he held with credit to himself and the college till the medical department of Columbia College was merged in 1813 in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, when he was immediately called to the same chair in the new college, where he remained till 1826, when some difficulties arising between the trustees and professors on the principles of collegiate government, he resigned, withdrew from the school, and with Drs. Hosack, Mitchill, Francis, and others, founded the "Rutgers Medical College," which, however, was prevented from further action by the Legislature, in consequence of an alleged invalidity of its charter, after an existence of four years. In 1830 Dr. Mott returned to the College of Physicians and Surgeons as Professor of Surgery, where he remained till 1840, when he became President of the Faculty and Professor of Surgery and Relative Anatomy in the new University Medical School. Of the science of Relative Anatomy, one of the greatest importance to the surgeon, he is considered the author. In 1860 he retired from the active duties of his professorship, after a service of more than fifty years, and was immediately elected Professor Emeritus. In this capacity he occasionally lectured to the classes during each subsequent year. He was the first to introduce in this country clinical instruction in surgery.

But while maintaining a high character as a lecturer and teacher of surgical science, Dr. Mott was winning a magnificent reputation as a practical surgeon. Cool, calm, and always thoroughly self-possessed, he spared no labor or pains to make himself perfectly master of the anatomy of whatever portion of the body was to be the subject of his operations. Through life it was his uniform practice never to perform an important operation upon the living subject until he had first performed it on the cadaver. When but thirty-three years of age, in 1818, he placed a ligature around the brachio-cephalic trunk or arteria innominata, only two inches from the heart, for aneurism of the right sub-clavian artery, for the first

time in the history of surgery. The patient survived the operation twenty-eight days, and thus demonstrated the feasibility of this hazardous and thus far unparalleled undertaking. He discovered in this case that though all supply of blood to the blood-vessels of the right arm was apparently cut off, the circulation was kept up by the interosculating blood-vessels, the pulsation at the wrist maintained, and no evidence of loss of vitality or warmth manifested in the limb. The patient finally died from secondary hemorrhage. In July, 1864, Dr. A. W. Smyth, of New Orleans, performed the operation successfully, and the patient entirely recovered, thus demonstrating that it was both possible and justifiable.

In 1828 he excised the entire right clavicle for malignant disease of that bone, where it was necessary to apply forty ligatures, expose the pleura, and look for arteries displaced to an almost incredible degree, by the abnormal growth of a cancerous tumor. This, the most dangerous and difficult operation which can be performed on the human body, had never before been attempted, and though completely successful (the patient still living and enjoying perfect health), it was thirty years before it was again performed, either in Europe or America. In 1821 he performed the first operation for osteo-sarcoma of the lower jaw. In 1822 he introduced his original operation for immobility of the lower jaw. He was the first surgeon who removed the lower jaw for necrosis, and the first to tie successfully the primitive iliac artery for aneurism. Other of his original operations were—cutting out two inches of the deep jugular vein, inseparably imbedded in a tumor, and tying both ends of the vein, and closing, with a fine ligature, wounds of large veins of a longitudinal or transverse kind, even where an olive sliced piece had been cut out. He tied the common carotid artery forty-six times; cut for stone one hundred and sixty-five times; and amputated nearly one thousand limbs. Sir Astley Cooper, his former preceptor, himself one of the most eminent surgeons of modern times, said of him: "He has performed more of the great operations than any man living, or that ever did live." Yet it would be doing a great injustice to Dr. Mott's memory, to intimate that he was ambitious to operate under all circumstances. No surgeon ever investigated his cases with more conscientious care and thoroughness, or weighed with more deliberation the question, "Is an operation necessary?" That he decided in favor of operating when some of his associates hesitated, as was sometimes the case, was due rather to his large experience than to an overweening fondness for the use of the knife. Gifted with a constitution of remarkable vigor and nerves of extraordinary steadiness, he continued to operate with his usual success, and to lecture on surgery with great ability, till within a few days of his decease. But though surgery was his favorite depart-

ment of the profession, he had also a large medical practice, and was for a series of years the favorite accoucheur in a large circle of families in New York. Unlike many practitioners in the decline of life, he was always ready to adopt any improvements in practice, or any adjvants to it, which bore the test of practical trial. The introduction of anæsthetics was welcomed by him with great cordiality, and perhaps no member of the profession administered them more frequently, or with better general effect. Though himself the inventor of many admirable surgical and obstetrical instruments, he always manifested his gratification at any successful inventions of other surgeons. In 1835, wearied by his incessant labors, Dr. Mott visited Europe, and spent two or three years in travel throughout Great Britain, the Continent, and the East. He was received with great distinction, his reputation having preceded him. In Paris he was most cordially welcomed by the great surgeons of that capital, and enjoyed the special friendship of the King of the French, Louis Philippe, and his family. In Constantinople he was called to remove a tumor from the head of the reigning Sultan, Abdul Medjid, and was invested by that sovereign with the order of Knight of Medjidiechi of Constantinople for his success. On his return, he published the results of his tour under the title of "Travels in Europe and the East" (N. Y., 1842), and not long after a translation of "Velpéau's Operative Surgery," with extensive additions and annotations, in four volumes, 8vo. Besides these works, Dr. Mott had published a "Sketch of the Life of Wright Post, M. D.;" an "Anniversary Discourse before the Graduates of the University of New York" (1860); "Discourse before the Binghamton (N. Y.) Inebriate Asylum;" "Eulogy on John W. Francis, M. D., before the New York Academy of Medicine;" and

twenty-five papers on surgical topics, many of them of great length, and illustrated with numerous drawings. A selection of his clinical lectures, reported by Dr. S. W. Francis, was published in 1860. In 1864, though nearly eighty years of age, he accompanied several other eminent physicians to Annapolis and elsewhere, to investigate the condition of the starved and cruelly maltreated Northern prisoners, and contributed his testimony to their deplorable condition.

Literary and scientific honors were showered upon Dr. Mott with a liberal hand. The University of Edinburgh conferred upon him the honorary degree of M. D.; the Regents of the University of New York honored him with the degree of LL. D.; he was a Fellow of the medical societies of several of the States, Fellow of the Imperial Academy of Paris, of the Clinical Society of Paris, and of the Medical and Chirurgical Societies of London and Brussels. Kings and Queen's College of Physicians of Ireland, which has elected but twenty new members in two hundred years, elected him an Honorary Fellow. He had served for many years as President of the Faculty of the University Medical College, and for a considerable period as President of the New York Academy of Medicine, and at the time of his death was President of the New York Inebriate Asylum. His death, which was the result of a very brief illness, was induced by the shock he experienced on receiving the intelligence of President Lincoln's assassination. His genial temper, fine constitution, and temperate habits, had enabled him to bear up under his vast load of care and his constant and abundant labors to a good old age, with a far greater measure of health and vigor than usually falls to the lot of professional men; and when at last the Nestor of the profession was taken away, he was widely and almost universally mourned.

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NASSAU, a German duchy. Duke, Adolf I., born July 24, 1817, succeeded his father on August 20, 1839. Heir apparent, Prince Wilhelm, born April 22, 1832. The legislature of the duchy consists of two Chambers, meeting annually, and elected for the term of six years. Area, 1,802 English square miles. Population in 1864, 468,811. Capital, Wiesbaden, with a population of 26,578 inhabitants. As to their religious denominations, the inhabitants were divided, in 1868, as follows: Protestants, 241,384; Roman Catholics, 213,835; Mennonites, 104; German Catholics, 309; Israelites, 7,252. Contingent of Nassau to the Federal Army, 5,498.

NAVY, CONFEDERATE. The surrender of the naval vessels of the Confederates on the rivers is related under **ARMY OPERATIONS**. For

the facts relative to the ocean steamers see **NAVY, U. S., and DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE**.

NAVY, UNITED STATES. Until the termination of hostilities in the spring of 1865, the six squadrons, established in the early part of the war, continued to be maintained, viz: the North Atlantic Squadron, Rear-Admiral D. D. Porter; the South Atlantic Squadron, Rear-Admiral J. A. Dahlgren; the East Gulf Squadron, Acting Rear-Admiral C. K. Stribling; the West Gulf Squadron, Acting Rear-Admiral H. K. Thatcher; the Mississippi Flotilla, Acting Rear-Admiral S. P. Lee; and the Potomac Flotilla, Commander Foxhall A. Parker. In addition to these there were the usual squadrons in foreign waters, which, in the summer and autumn, were greatly increased in number and effectiveness.



L. J. Jones

The first part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the general principles of the theory of the structure of the atomic nucleus. It is shown that the structure of the nucleus is determined by the interaction of the nucleons, which are the particles that make up the nucleus. The interaction is described by the strong interaction, which is the most powerful of the four fundamental interactions. The strong interaction is responsible for the binding of the nucleons together in the nucleus. The second part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the experimental results of the study of the structure of the atomic nucleus. It is shown that the experimental results are in good agreement with the theoretical predictions. The third part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the applications of the theory of the structure of the atomic nucleus. It is shown that the theory can be used to predict the properties of the nucleus, such as its mass, its size, and its stability. The fourth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the future of the theory of the structure of the atomic nucleus. It is shown that there are many problems that still need to be solved, and that the theory is still in the early stages of development.

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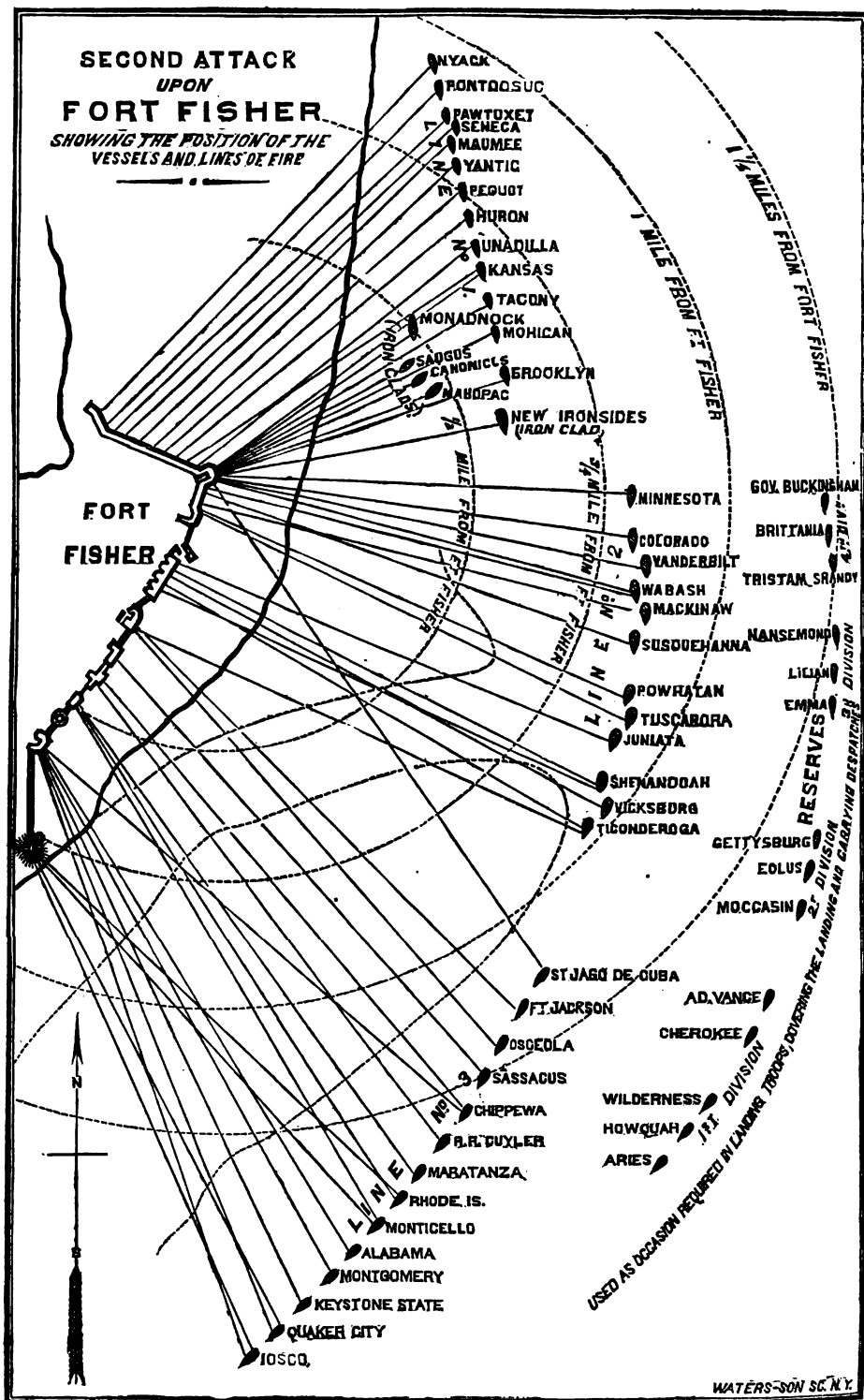
D. C. Farrington
U. S. NAVY.

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The most important operations of the navy during the year were those performed by the North Atlantic Squadron, acting in cooperation with the large land force under Gen. Terry, in the successful attack upon Fort Fisher, on January 18th and 15th, of which, as they were intimately connected with the history of the first attack, in December, 1864, a full account was given, under the head of "Operations of the United States Navy," in our volume for 1864. Of this remarkable attack full details, not accessible when our narrative was written, were included in the documents accompanying the report of the Secretary of the Navy for 1865. Although the vessels participating in that engagement varied in size from small gunboats of five hundred tons to powerful frigates like the Wabash or Colorado, or the New Ironsides, yet in weight of metal and in the rapidity and force of their fire they probably exceeded any fleet that ever attacked fortifications. The accompanying diagram illustrates the position of every vessel in the attack, and the manner in which their fire was concentrated upon the fort. The attacking squadron numbered forty-four vessels, mounting upward of five hundred guns. Admiral Porter declared that the same fleet which was used at Fort Fisher could silence Fortress Monroe, considered the strongest and most important work in the United States, in a day, and dismount all the conspicuous guns; and that the iron-clads could demolish all the casemates in a few hours. The result of the engagement convinced him that the old maxim, that "one gun on shore is equal to many on shipboard," was no longer true, at least with respect to forts of earth or masonry, having guns mounted according to the present system; and that turrets, similar to those in monitor vessels, must be employed to protect the guns of land defences from such a fire as an effective fleet of iron-clads can concentrate upon them. In view of the experience derived at Fort Fisher, he advised that all works hereafter constructed shall be earthworks, and that those already built shall be covered with earth, the guns to be mounted in monitor turrets, which can be constructed of any thickness of iron deemed necessary. In this way only, he thinks, can the advantage formerly possessed by forts over ships be restored. The fall of Fort Fisher compelled the abandonment by the enemy of Forts Caswell, Campbell, and Shaw, and other works defending the entrances to Cape Fear River, which were immediately occupied by the navy. In February a number of the light-draught vessels ascended the river and cooperated with the troops under Gens. Schofield and Terry in the reduction of the strong works guarding the approaches to Wilmington. The capture of this place in the latter part of the month enabled Admiral Porter to reinforce the squadron in the James River. The enemy upon their retreat from Wilmington took the large iron-clad Chickamauga some distance up the Cape Fear River, and sunk her across the stream at Indian

Wells. On March 12th the gunboat Eolus passed safely up the river and opened communications with Gen. Sherman, at Fayetteville. Nothing else of interest in which the navy participated occurred on this station previous to the termination of hostilities. In the latter part of March Admiral Porter went up the James River, to superintend whatever duties might devolve upon the navy in the final series of battles around Petersburg and Richmond. As the operations were almost exclusively of a military character, his vessels were not actively employed. After the evacuation of Richmond, the gunboats proceeded up the river, removing torpedoes and other obstructions to navigation. At Richmond the unfinished ram Texas, and the tug gunboat Beaufort, were found uninjured. The following vessels had been blown up by the enemy: Virginia, flagship, four guns, iron-clad; Richmond, four guns, iron-clad; Fredericksburg, four guns, iron-clad; Nansemond, two guns, wooden; Roanoke, one gun, wooden; Torpedo, tender; Shrapnell; and Patrick Henry, school-ship.

The operations of the South Atlantic Squadron had little of that stirring character noticeable in former years of the war. Admiral Dahlgren rendered efficient service in January in transferring a part of Sherman's army to Beaufort, S. C.; and in the succeeding month a division of his squadron demonstrated along the approaches from Bull's Bay to Mount Pleasant, with a view of embarrassing the Confederate commander at Charleston and deceiving him as to the Federal plan of campaign. The city was meanwhile carefully watched, and on the morning of February 18th it fell without a struggle into the hands of the naval and military forces of the United States. Previous to their departure from Charleston, the enemy destroyed most of their effective vessels afloat; but the ram Columbia, which had grounded in coming out of her dock in January, was left by them, and was floated on the 26th of April. She was pierced for six guns, and was plated on her casemate with six inches of iron. The harbor was found to be plentifully filled with obstructions, and the numerous powerful earthworks, which had so long defied the efforts of the fleet, were uninjured. Georgetown and other places on the coast were immediately occupied by the gunboats. On the night of January 15th, the monitor Patapsco, Lieut.-Com. Quackenbush, while engaged in covering the scout and picket boats, which were searching the entrance to the lower harbor of Charleston for obstructions and torpedoes, struck and exploded a large torpedo on her port side, and almost immediately sank. Five officers and thirty-eight men were saved, and sixty-two officers and men were lost. Two other vessels were lost during the year. The Dai Ching gunboat, having grounded in the Combahee River, under the fire of a Confederate battery, was destroyed by her commander, after she had been much cut up and her guns disabled in a seven hours' engagement.



All the officers and crew were brought off safely, except five. On the morning of March 1st the flagship of the squadron, the *Harvest Moon*, having on board Admiral Dahlgren, was struck by a torpedo while steaming down the bay of Georgetown, and sank soon after. But one life was lost. The operations of the East Gulf Squadron, being far removed from the seat of war, were of comparatively little interest. They were confined chiefly to petty expeditions on the Florida coast, the destruction of salt works, etc. The record of the Mississippi and Potomac flotillas is equally barren of stirring events.

In the Department of the Gulf, the chief interest centred around the investment and capture of the strong works which defended Mobile. The naval force employed to cooperate with the troops under Gen. Canby in these operations was early in the year increased by several light-draught iron-clads detached from the Mississippi Squadron, and which were well adapted to navigate the shallow waters of the Mobile Bay. A naval reconnoissance on March 11th having shown that the enemy had not evacuated their works in the neighborhood of the city, Admiral Thatcher covered the landing of the troops on the left bank of Fish River, and in the latter part of March and the early part of April cooperated in the joint military and naval attack upon Fort Alexis and Spanish Fort. The upper bay was found to be thickly planted with torpedoes, and a large force was employed in dragging for and removing them. In spite of these precautions, however, two river monitors, the *Milwaukee* and *Osage*, and the "tin-clad" *Rodolph*, were destroyed by torpedoes between March 28th and April 1st, the casualties amounting to twenty-seven. On April 14th the gunboat *Sciota* was lost by the same means, and during the operations in the bay several small tugs and launches met a similar fate. On the night of April 8th Fort Alexis and Spanish Fort yielded to the joint attack of the army and fleet; and on the 10th a detachment of iron-clads, in consequence of the thorough dragging of the Blakely River, moved up nearly abreast of Spanish Fort, from which point Forts Huger and Tracy were so persistently shelled that they were evacuated by the enemy on the succeeding day. On the 12th the troops were conveyed across the bay to attack Mobile on its west side, but before any demonstration could be made the city was surrendered by the mayor. The Confederate army and fleet, on evacuating the city, retreated up the Tombigbee, whither preparations were making to follow and attack them, when, on May 4th, a proposition was received from Commodore Ferrand, their naval commander, to surrender all the vessels in those waters. This was accepted, and the surrender took place on the 10th at Nanna Hubba Bluff, the terms being the same accorded by Gen. Grant to Gen. Lee. Four vessels were surrendered, the *Morgan*, *Baltic*, *Nashville*, and *Black Diamond*, and four hundred and twenty-one officers and men

were paroled. The *Huntsville* and *Tuscaloosa*, two powerful rams, were sunk in Spanish River before the evacuation of Mobile. Full details of the operations before Mobile will be found under the head of "ARMY OPERATIONS." Subsequent to the fall of the city the fleet was employed in occupying the principal forts along the Gulf coast; but no further fighting took place. On the 24th of April the Confederate ram *W. H. Webb*, having run the blockade of Red River, steamed rapidly down the Mississippi past New Orleans, with the intention of getting out to sea and making for Havana. So unexpected was her appearance in front of New Orleans, that she received only two shots in her hull while passing. She was immediately pursued by a detachment of gunboats, and when about twenty-five miles below the city was encountered by the corvette *Richmond*, coming up the river. Her commander, seeing escape hopeless, ran her on shore and blew her up. Her cargo consisted of cotton, rosin, and turpentine. The crew dispersed among the swamps, but were eventually nearly all captured.

Although in 1864 the privateers *Alabama*, *Florida*, and *Georgia*, constituting the chief naval force the enemy then had afloat, were destroyed or captured by national cruisers, their resources were not yet exhausted. The shipyards and foundries of Great Britain still supplied them with vessels and guns, and to the same country they were indebted for trained seamen and gunners in numbers always equal to the demand. Early in 1865 two new vessels, of power superior to those which had already so crippled our commerce, were put into the service, and, but for the vigilance of United States naval officers and the termination of the war, might have wrought serious mischief. One of these was the iron-clad ram *Stonewall*, Captain Page, originally built for the Danish Government, and subsequently purchased by the rebels. Some difficulty in procuring an armament and crew was at first experienced, but in January she was met by an English steamer off the coast of France, and her armament, which was made in England, with supplies for a cruise and an English crew, were transferred to her. When fully equipped and manned she was a formidable antagonist, having a heavy ram projecting from her bow, and two turrets, mounting one three hundred pound rifle gun and two others of less calibre. She was easily managed, and could steam at the rate of ten knots an hour. On February 4th the *Stonewall* arrived at Ferrol, on the north-west coast of Spain, where she received some slight repairs, and probably took in additional supplies. About this time the U. S. vessels *Niagara* and *Sacramento*, which had received tidings of her whereabouts, arrived at the neighboring port of Corunna, and kept a strict watch over her movements. Notwithstanding their superiority in numbers and guns, so formidable did the iron-clad seem likely to prove in a contest with the wooden vessels, that the two sides were

about equally matched. In smooth water the Stonewall, owing to the rapidity with which she could be turned, probably had the advantage, while under other circumstances the superiority rested with her adversaries. Thus matters remained for several weeks, no occasion offering when both sides were willing to risk an engagement. In the latter part of March the Stonewall effected her escape from Ferrol, and put into Lisbon on the 27th, being followed thither by the Niagara and Sacramento. She was immediately ordered away by the Portuguese authorities, and the United States vessels were required to remain twenty-four hours after her departure. While attempting to change their anchorage in the Tagus, the vessels were fired upon from Belem Castle, under the supposition that they were attempting to run out and follow in the traces of the Stonewall before the twenty-four hours had expired. Fortunately no lives were lost, and ample apology was rendered for the outrage by the Portuguese Government. Captain Craven, commanding the Niagara, was subsequently court-martialed for neglecting to attack the Stonewall off Ferrol, and sentenced to two years' suspension from duty. This sentence was set aside by the Secretary of the Navy. Upon leaving Lisbon the Stonewall proceeded to Teneriffe and thence to Havana, where she arrived on May 11th. On the 28th Acting Rear-Admiral Godon arrived at Havana with the squadron destined for the Brazil station, together with several iron-clads, and soon afterward the Stonewall was surrendered by her commander to the Spanish authorities. She was subsequently placed at the disposal of the United States by the Spanish Government, and conveyed to Washington.

The Shenandoah, the second of the two vessels above referred to, was built in Glasgow, in 1863, and called the Sea King. Her registered tonnage was seven hundred and ninety tons, her framework being iron with wood planking; and she was propelled by engines of two hundred horse power. She was originally owned by William Wallace, of London, and, like so many other rebel vessels, was entirely of British origin and equipment. In September, 1864, she was sold to Richard Wright, of Liverpool, and soon after cleared in ballast at London, as an ordinary merchant vessel, for Bombay. In the mean time, another vessel, called the Laurel, of Liverpool, was taking on board all the necessary armament, stores, etc., several Confederate officers, and a large number of men. On the same day that the Sea King sailed from London for Bombay, the Laurel sailed from Liverpool for Nassau. The two vessels met at Madeira, and thence proceeded in company to an island near by, where, within Portuguese waters, the armament and men were speedily transferred from the Laurel to the Sea King, both vessels being still under the British flag. The Sea King was then renamed Shenandoah, hoisted the rebel flag, and set forth on her piratical cruise, under

the command of J. I. Waddell, formerly of the U. S. navy. Her armament consisted of six guns, viz., four 68-pounders and two 32-pounders, with a full crew of British sailors. The first heard of her after she left Madeira was that she had destroyed a few vessels in the neighborhood of the Island of St. Helena. Her next performance was to double the Cape of Good Hope, and cruise around in the Bay of Bengal and the Straits of Sunda. She then made her appearance in the port of Melbourne, Australia, and having coaled, provisioned, and received a reinforcement of men, sailed on February 8th for the North Pacific, where, between April 1st and July 1st, she destroyed and bonded twenty-nine vessels, thus entirely breaking up the whaling season in that quarter. Although notified by some of his victims that the Confederate armies had surrendered, Waddell gave no heed to the intelligence, but continued his work of destruction until four months after the fall of Richmond, when he was advised by an English vessel that Lee was on parole and Davis a prisoner. Nothing remained for the Shenandoah after this but to return for refuge to the country of her origin, and on November 6th she cast anchor in the Mersey. Capt. Waddell having in a formal letter surrendered his vessel to the English Government, she was by the latter given up to the American consul at Liverpool. The depredations of the Shenandoah upon American commerce naturally formed the subject of diplomatic correspondence with Great Britain, from which, though it was clearly shown that the British Government, if disposed to do so, might have prevented the sailing or the refitting of cruisers at various times during the war, no practical redress seems to have been obtained.

From the commencement to the termination of the war, about thirty vessels of all descriptions were fitted out by the enemy to prey upon American commerce; and although but seven of these, viz., the Sumter, Nashville, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Tallahassee, and Shenandoah, were in any respect formidable, their operations were disastrous to our mercantile navy afloat, and almost broke up the carrying trade of the country. Careful statistics show that during the war 275 vessels, of nearly 100,000 tons in the aggregate, were captured by these privateers. These comprised 4 steamers, 78 ships, 43 brigs, 82 barks, and 68 schooners. The value of the vessels and their cargoes it is not easy to compute, but it amounted to many millions.

On the other hand, the number of vessels captured and sent to United States admiralty courts, for adjudication, from May 1, 1861, to the close of the war, was 1,149, of which there were steamers, 210; schooners, 569; sloops, 139; ships, 13; brigs and brigantines, 29; barks, 25; yachts, 2; small boats, 139; rams and iron-clads, 6; gunboats, torpedo boats, and armed schooners and sloops, 10; class unknown, 7—making a total of 1,149. The numbers of vessels burned, wrecked, sunk, and otherwise de-

stroyed during the same time were: steamers, 85; schooners, 114; sloops, 32; ships, 2; brigs, 2; barks, 4; small boats, 96; rams, 5; iron-clads, 4; gunboats, torpedo boats, and armed schooners and sloops, 11; total, 355—making the whole number of vessels captured and destroyed, 1,504. During the war of 1812 the naval vessels, of which there were 301 in service at the close, made 291 captures. There were 517 commissioned privateers, and their captures numbered 1,428. Nearly all the captures of value in the recent war were vessels built in so-called neutral ports, and fitted out and freighted for the purpose of running the blockade. The gross proceeds of property captured since the blockade was instituted, and condemned as prize prior to the 1st of November, 1865, amount to \$21,829,543.96; costs and expenses, \$1,616,223.96; net proceeds for distribution, \$20,501,927.69. At the close of the year there were a number of important cases still before the courts, which will largely increase these amounts. The Secretary of the Navy estimates that the value of the 1,143 captured vessels will not be less than \$24,500,000, and of the 355 vessels destroyed at least \$7,000,000, making a total valuation of not less than \$31,500,000, much of which was British property.

As early as the fall of Fort Fisher, which sealed the last of the Atlantic ports easily accessible to blockade-runners, measures were taken for the reduction of the squadrons on the Atlantic coast. But this process, which was intended to be gradual, was pushed forward so rapidly after the overthrow of the rebellion in April and May, that at the close of the latter month the entire force remaining in domestic waters did not exceed one hundred vessels. Early in July, this force was further reduced to thirty steamers, which, with storeships and tenders, comprised the entire squadrons on the Atlantic and Gulf coasts. In June, the North and South Atlantic Squadrons were consolidated into one, known as the Atlantic Squadron, and commanded by Acting Rear-Admiral Radford, who, in June, was succeeded by Commodore Joseph Lanman. A similar consolidation of the two Gulf Squadrons was effected, Admiral Thatcher remaining in command. On July 31st the Potomac Flotilla passed out of existence, and on August 14th the Mississippi Squadron, which had been gradually reduced, was wholly discontinued. Alluding to the extensive scale on which the reductions had been made, the Secretary of the Navy, in his last annual report, said: "There were in the several blockading squadrons in January last, exclusive of other duty, four hundred and seventy-one vessels, and two thousand four hundred and fifty-five guns. There are now but twenty-nine vessels remaining on the coast, carrying two hundred and ten guns exclusive of howitzers. Disposition has been made of all the others. Some of the vessels are laid up in ordinary, some with their crews are on foreign service, but

many have been sold, and, with most of the men that were actively engaged in hostile operations, are now employed in peaceful occupations." At the commencement of December, 1865, when this was written, of the great naval armament which had been employed in overthrowing the enemy and maintaining the national dignity abroad, there were in actual commission but one hundred and seventeen vessels of all descriptions.

The domestic troubles of the country having been appeased, measures were at once taken to reestablish or strengthen the various foreign squadrons. These, though not greatly increased over former years, either in the number of vessels or of guns, were, nevertheless, from the superiority of steam over sails for naval war-vessels, and the improvement and new patterns of ordnance, of greatly augmented efficiency and power. Four foreign squadrons, the European, the Brazilian, the East India, and the Pacific, were on a permanent footing at the close of 1865, and measures were in progress to revive the West India Squadron, on account of the proximity of those waters to the United States, and of our intimate commercial relations with the islands therein. It was also proposed to make considerable additions to the Pacific Squadron and ultimately to divide it, in view of the extensive limits of the station and the rapidly developing interests of the United States in the South American republics.

After recapitulating the facts connected with the expansion of the navy, between 1861 and 1865, from insignificant proportions to an almost unexampled size and power, and the principal achievements performed by it, the Secretary, in his last annual report, gives the following interesting statistics:

Three hundred and twenty-two officers traitorously abandoned the service. The embarrassment caused by these desertions in the moment of trial was temporary. Better men from the merchant marine, educated and vastly more efficient, promptly volunteered their services, in many instances at great pecuniary sacrifice, to fight the battles of the Union. About seven thousand five hundred of these gallant and generous spirits have, after examination, received appointments and been employed in the navy. Most of the volunteer officers have received an honorable discharge, and returned to their peaceful professional pursuits.

From seven thousand six hundred men in service at the commencement of the rebellion, the number was increased to fifty-one thousand five hundred at its close. In addition to these, the aggregate of artisans and laborers employed in the navy yards was sixteen thousand eight hundred and eighty, instead of three thousand eight hundred and forty-four previously in the pay of the Government. This is exclusive of those employed in the private ship yards and establishments, under contracts, constituting an almost equal aggregate number. Two hundred and eight vessels have been commenced and most of them fitted for service during this period. A few of the larger ones will require still further time for completion. Only steamers, the propellers also having sailing power, have been built by the Government during my administration of the department.

Since the 4th of March, 1861, four hundred and eighteen vessels have been purchased, of which

three hundred and thirteen were steamers, at a cost of \$13,866,681.82, and of these there have been sold three hundred and forty vessels, for which the Government has received \$5,621,800.27.

With the close of the war it became necessary to take measures for laying up the iron-clad vessels which were already afloat, and those approaching completion. As fresh water is indispensable for the preservation of this class of vessels, and as none of the navy yards possessed this requisite, the Secretary was induced, in the absence of any Congressional appropriation for a suitable dock yard or station in fresh water, to select League Island, in the Delaware River, which a committee, appointed in 1862, in pursuance of an act of Congress, had reported the most suitable location for a new yard, "so far as iron vessels are concerned." To this place were accordingly conveyed from time to time during the year all the iron-clads on the Atlantic coast not in commission. On the Mississippi River, where there is as yet no public navy yard, the station at Mound City has been retained, and the iron-clads belonging to the Mississippi Squadron have there their headquarters. Several vessels of this class which were built at St. Louis and attached to the West Gulf Squadron, where they rendered good service, particularly in the Bay of Mobile, have been laid up at Algiers, opposite New Orleans. In view of the great advantages possessed by League Island, and the contracted and altogether insufficient area of the Philadelphia navy yard, the Secretary of the Navy has strongly urged the transfer of the latter to the former place. On July 22, 1865, the iron-clad ram *Dunderberg*, commenced three years previous at the ship yard of W. H. Webb in New York, was successfully launched. In size, in strength, in offensive power by means of her armament and ram, and in her almost complete impregnability, she is perhaps the most formidable vessel ever constructed; and, although destined to be completed long after the termination of the recent rebellion, she will prove of inestimable value as an engine of offence or defence in any future struggle. While due care has been taken to render the *Dunderberg* safe in a heavy sea-way, the prime necessity of offering the utmost resistance to the missiles of an enemy has not been neglected. For this end the advantage of an angular surface to receive the enemy's fire has been combined with a great mass of timber and the protective powers of four and one-half inch solid armor plating. In her general appearance she resembles a huge fort embasured for a score of the heaviest ordnance yet placed upon the deck of any vessel, and her magnitude and novel design are rendered pleasing to the eye by her spars and outward fittings. The hull contains several thousand feet of solid timber of the finest quality and choicest selection. The bottom is flat, the sides angular, extremely sharp, and surmounted by a casemate in which are to be placed sixteen guns, although it is

pierced for twenty-one. The hull is built in layers of square logs, securely bolted together, having no openings between them, and is caulked inside as well as outside. This massive structure is strongly trussed with diagonal braces of iron fastened inside of the solid frame, securely strengthening her, and in such a manner that it seems almost impossible that she could be damaged by any ordinary disaster. The hull is three hundred and eighty feet four inches in extreme length, and seventy-two feet ten inches extreme beam. The main hold is twenty-two feet seven and a half inches in depth. Her tonnage is set down by the naval authorities in the register as five thousand and ninety tons. The ram is a portion of the ship itself, being literally the bow fashioned into a huge beak. To form this ram the vessel is a solid mass of timber from her stem backward fifty feet, rendering it impossible for any shock to break it off. It is arranged with a wrought-iron jacket or front-piece to protect it, not only from shot but from abrasion in contact. The side armor is of the best hammered iron plates, three and a half inches in thickness, and screw-bolted to the armor cushion by one and a half inch bolts. The plates are placed vertically, and not horizontally, as is the case with the iron-clad vessels of Europe. The armor which covers the casemate is four and a half inches in thickness, and is also placed vertically on the sloping sides. The top of the casemate will have a light bomb-proof armor. The main deck outside of the casemate will be covered with thick armor, and will be secured to the deck by three-quarter inch iron bolts with counter-sunk heads. The armor will extend out over the shelf which serves as a protection to the screw and the two rudders. The casemate is constructed of square logs, each one foot in thickness, built up to the height of seven feet, and covered over with a bomb-proof deck on which it was originally intended to place two turrets, similar to those in use on board of the monitors. The casemate will contain twelve to fourteen eleven-inch Dahlgren, and four fifteen-inch Rodman smooth-bore guns, making it the heaviest armament of its number ever placed on the deck of any vessel.

The following table recapitulates the general dimensions of this formidable vessel:

Extreme length.....	380 feet 4 inches.
Extreme beam.....	72 " 10 "
Depth of main hold.....	22 " 7 "
Height of casemate.....	7 " 9 "
Length of ram.....	50 "
Draught when ready for sea.....	21 "
Displacement.....	7,000 tons.
Tonnage.....	5,090 "
Weight of iron armor.....	1,000 "

Dimensions of Engines, Boilers, etc.

Cylinders (two), each.....	100 inches.
Stroke of pistons.....	45 "
Boilers—6 main and 2 donkey.	
Depth of boilers.....	13 feet.
Height of boilers.....	17 feet 6 inches.
Front of boilers.....	21 " 6 "
Weight of boilers.....	450 tons.
Boiler surface.....	80,000 feet.
Grate surface.....	1,200 "

Condenser surface.....	12,000 square feet.
Diameter of propeller.....	21 feet.
Pitch of propeller.....	37 to 80 feet.
Weight of propeller.....	84,680 pounds.
Capacity of coal-bunkers.....	1,000 tons.
Actual horse-power.....	5,000 horse.
Nominal horse-power.....	1,500 horse.

Some interesting facts and statistics concerning the comparative healthiness of iron-clads and wooden vessels are given in the report of the Chief of the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery, which accompanies the annual report of the Secretary of the Navy. An examination of the sick-reports, covering a period of over thirty months, shows that so far from being unhealthy, there was less sickness on board the monitor vessels than on the same number of wooden ships with an equal number of men, and in similarly exposed positions. Not less valuable testimony respecting the offensive power and seaworthy qualities of iron-clads of the type of the *Monadnock*, which is double turreted, carries four guns, and has a tonnage of fifteen hundred and sixty-four tons, is afforded in a report of Admiral Porter, written soon after the fall of Fort Fisher. Speaking of the conduct of the monitors in a gale off New Inlet, he said: "The smaller monitors, *Mahopac* and *Canonicus*, at times almost disappeared from sight, and the commander of the former vessel complained of discomfort, owing to the decks leaking; but the vessels were in no danger at any time. As to the *Monadnock*, she could ride out a gale at anchor in the Atlantic Ocean. She is certainly a perfect success, so far as the hull and machinery are concerned, and is only defective in some minor details, which, in the building of these vessels, require the superintendence of a thorough seaman and a practical and ingenious man. The *Monadnock* is capable of crossing the ocean alone (when her compasses are adjusted properly), and could destroy any vessel in the French or British navy, lay their towns under contribution, and return again (provided she could pick up coal) without fear of being followed. She certainly could clear any harbor on our coast of blockaders in case we were at war with a foreign power." Elsewhere, in the same report, he says, that in a fight the *Monadnock* would prove more than a match for the *New Ironsides*, which has been considered the most powerful vessel in the navy. A further test of the sea-going qualities of the *Monadnock* was afforded in her voyage around Cape Horn, for the purpose of joining the Pacific Squadron. In the roughest weather she behaved in a manner to excite the admiration of all who witnessed her performances. "In the long seas of the Pacific," says Commander Rodgers, "I observed that the *Monadnock* took very little water on her decks, rising above the waves easily and buoyantly." He further reported that her machinery worked well, with the exception of a temporary disorder in one of her condensers, which was soon repaired; and also that she made good speed, sailing at a maximum rate of a hundred and

ninety-five knots a day, and a minimum rate of a hundred and fourteen.

The navy yards now in active use are those at Kittery, Me.; Charlestown, Mass.; Brooklyn, N. Y.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Washington, D. C.; and Mare Island, Cal.; besides those at Norfolk, Va., and Pensacola, Fla., which suffered considerably during the time they were in the hands of the rebels. Secretary Welles complains that they are all of limited area, and insufficient for our present navy. "Not one of them," he says, "presents the full requisite conveniences and facilities for promptly fitting out, in a rapid and efficient manner, more than a single vessel at a time. Vessels which ought to be repaired in three months are often detained for a year, and officers ordered to their ships, which should be ready for sea, have been kept waiting for months at great expense to themselves and the country, and to the injury of the service. There is not a public yard where an iron vessel can be constructed, an iron plate made, or where shafting can be forged, or steam machinery manufactured, except on a moderate scale; nor, with the exception of Mare Island, in California, and Norfolk, have we a navy yard with sufficient room to erect the necessary works for even present wants. England, besides her great public navy yards, with which ours can bear no comparison, possesses even several private establishments, in each of which there are more mechanical appliances than are possessed by our whole country." Entertaining such opinions, he recommends the enlargement of the yards at Charlestown and Brooklyn, the rebuilding of those at Norfolk and Pensacola, the completion of that of Mare Island, and the transfer of that at Philadelphia to League Island. Congress, however, has taken no measures to carry out these suggestions, and the outbreak of a new war, a few years hence, would find the country as inadequately supplied with proper navy yards and facilities for building or repairing ships as at the commencement of 1861.

The Naval Academy, which in 1861 was temporarily removed from Annapolis, Md., to Newport, R. I., was in September, 1865, restored to its quarters in the former place, and at the close of the year contained four hundred and fifty-one midshipmen. In October Admiral Porter succeeded Commodore Blake as superintendent. The present buildings, designed originally for one hundred and eighty midshipmen, being wholly inadequate to accommodate the large number of pupils, additional buildings and grounds are imperatively needed. The cost of these is estimated by the late superintendent at \$800,000. The Secretary of the Navy, in view of the temptations thrown in the way of students by the location of the school in the midst of a large town, recommends some other site on Chesapeake Bay. The report of the board of visitors for 1864 shows that many of the boys entering the school have neither the mental nor physical qualities to fit them for the naval service, and

are obliged to leave before the conclusion of the course. A special department for instruction in the principles and practice of naval engineering is now connected with the school. With a view of improving the quality of the enlisted men in the navy, the apprentice system has been revived, and as an inducement to parents to send their boys for instruction in seamanship, it is recommended that half the annual appointments to the Naval Academy be made from among the naval apprentices who have served two years on board of a practice ship. By this plan, it is believed, the physical standard of the midshipman will be greatly improved, while a better class of boys will be obtained for naval apprentices.

The naval pension-fund on January 1, 1866, amounted to about \$10,000,000, and in July last it paid as interest, in currency, the sum of \$292,783.59. This fund is wholly derived from the Government's share in the proceeds of captured and condemned prize property; most of it was foreign capital, embarked in foreign bottoms to aid the insurgents. The income from this source will, if rightly husbanded, be ample to meet the requirements of the Government for the payment of naval pensions, without any tax upon the people. On November 1, 1865, the navy pension roll was as follows:

881 invalids, with annual pensions amounting to \$63,567 50
1,096 widows and orphans, annually receiving.... 179,943 00
2,027 persons, receiving total amount of..... \$243,529 50

Being an increase during the year of four hundred and eighteen persons, receiving pensions amounting to \$58,870.40.

The total expenses of the Naval Department from the 4th of March, 1861, to the 30th of June, 1865, embracing a period of four years and four months, and covering not only the ordinary expenses of the navy, but such as have arisen in the purchase, construction, and equipment of vessels and in the maintenance of the large naval force required during the war, were \$314,170,960.68—an average annual expenditure of \$72,500,990.93. The navy has cost the Government less than one-tenth of the whole expenses entailed by the war.

The following tables of expenses and estimates, exhibit the great reductions which will follow the peace establishment:

The available resources for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1865, were..... \$140,001,127 00
Expenditures during the same time..... 116,731,675 95

\$23,269,450 04
Appropriations not wanted and carried to surplus fund..... 900,459 89

Leaving a balance at the commencement of the present fiscal year of..... 22,408,990 65
The appropriations for the current year are.. 119,882,928 75

Making the total available resources from appropriations for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1866..... \$142,291,919 40

This is exclusive of what has been and may be derived from the sale of vessels and other property which the close of the war has enabled the department to dispose of.

The whole of this amount will not be needed for disbursement during the year, and several of the bureaus will have balances sufficiently large to cover their expenditures for the succeeding fiscal year. The estimates for the year ending June 30, 1867, are as follows:

Pay of the navy..... \$9,236,638 00
Bounties to discharged seamen. 800,000 00
Equipment of vessels..... 1,000,000 00
Navy yards, pay of superintendents, etc..... 7,186,566 00
Navigation, Naval Academy, Observatory, etc..... 436,779 00
Surgeons' necessities and hospitals..... 265,750 00
Marine corps..... 1,757,734 50
Contingent and miscellaneous..... 3,900,000 60

Total..... \$32,983,457 50

This amount includes the sum of \$5,500,000 for the erection of barracks for the accommodation of seamen now quartered on board receiving-ships; for the erection of additional dwelling-houses for officers in the several navy yards; the purchase of land, and other improvements of a permanent character.

NETHERLANDS, THE, or HOLLAND, a kingdom in Europe. King William III., born February 19, 1817, succeeded his father, on March 17, 1849. Heir apparent to the throne, Prince William, born September 4, 1840. The sovereign has a civil list of 600,000 guilders, and 300,000 more guilders is allowed for the princes or princesses of the royal family, and the maintenance of the court. According to the constitution of 1848, the Upper House, or first Chamber, consists of thirty-nine members, elected by the Provincial Diets from among the most highly assessed inhabitants; the second Chamber numbers seventy-two members, elected by ballot. The right of voting is made contingent upon the paying of a tax of 120 guilders. Of the members of the second Chamber, one-half retire every second year, and of the Upper Chamber one-third every third year. Area, 10,905 square miles. Population in 1864, 3,699,744. Capital, Amsterdam, with 261,455 inhabitants. The largest cities next to Amsterdam, are Rotterdam, with 114,052 inhabitants, and The Hague with 85,689. There were, in 1863, thirty-six towns having a population of more than 10,000 inhabitants. As to their religious denominations, the inhabitants were, in 1859, classified as follows: Reformed (Calvinists), 1,942,387; Lutherans, 64,539; Catholics, 1,234,486; Greeks, 32; Israelites, 63,890. The Netherlands, in 1857, had 2,478 public schools, with 4,638 schoolmasters and 134 schoolmistresses; 186,766 boys and 136,001 girls; 944 higher schools, with 1,842 male and female teachers, and 40,493 male and 40,652 female pupils; 63 additional "Latin schools," with 1,802 pupils; three universities—Leyden, Groningen, and Utrecht—with 1,327 students.

The colonial possessions of the Netherlands contained, in 1863, the following population:

East Indies..... 19,119,494
West Indies..... 81,063
Coast of Guinea..... 120,000

The most important of the East India possessions are the following:

Colonies.	Inhabitants.
Java and Madura	18,649,680
Sumatra (Western Coast).....	1,070,758
Borneo " "	841,078
Do. Eastern Coast.....	610,679
Celebes.....	294,418
Timor.....	907,184

The number of Europeans living in the Dutch East Indies, is 83,194, of whom 27,565 were born in the colonies. But this number does not include the East India army, which comprises 12,474 Europeans. The number of Chinese in the East India colonies is 234,263. In the Dutch West Indies, slavery was abolished on July 1, 1863. Before that date the slave population amounted to 35,371. The budget for 1865 estimates the revenue at 103,-248,076 guilders; the expenditures at 103,652,-597 guilders. The public debt amounted, in 1865, to 999,266,882 guilders. The budget for the colonies showed, in 1863, a surplus of 8,780,609 guilders. The army consisted, in 1865, of 1,837 officers, and 59,249 men. The East India army numbered in 1862, 24,544 infantry; 2,823 artillery; 624 cavalry; 937 engineers; 1,264 officers. The fleet in 1865 consisted of 154 vessels, carrying 2,150 guns. The value of imports amounted, in 1863, to 442,-438,906 guilders (from the United States 8,661,955); of exports, to 374,730,947 guilders (to the United States 3,279,722). The movement of shipping was as follows:

	ENTREED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1862.....	8,861	1,757,625	9,078	1,889,331
1863.....	8,894	1,662,291	8,618	1,740,387
Total.....	17,755	3,419,916	17,691	3,629,718

The merchant navy consisted, in December, 1863, of 2,231 vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 510,152.

The leading measure of the session of the States-General which closed in 1865, was the repeal of the Municipal Excise Act—an act which authorized every municipality to impose excise duties on whatever articles of consumption they thought proper. Thus, scarcely an article of domestic use was allowed to pass any of the city gates without paying the town excise—a system attended with immense inconvenience both to merchants and consumers. The repeal of the Excise Act was to come into operation on January 1, 1866, and its first effect was expected to be to give a great impetus to the trade in French wine with Holland, on which a mere nominal duty was to be placed, in conformity with the recent commercial treaty concluded between France and the Netherlands. The great failure of the session was the withdrawal, by the Minister of Finance, of the bill for the repeal of the Newspaper Stamp Act. When this bill was introduced it met with so much opposition that the minister thought it prudent to withdraw it rather than go to a division. The chief domestic event of the session was the withdrawal of M. Groen

Van Prinsterer, the able leader of the "Church and State" (conservative) party, from political life, in consequence of increasing infirmities.

NEVADA. The Legislature was convened for its second session at Carson City, on January 1, 1865, and was organized by the choice of Republican officers in both houses. It continued in session about two months, and among its proceedings was the passage, on February 16th, of a joint resolution ratifying the anti-slavery amendment to the Constitution. There was but one vote in each house in the negative, both being thrown by Democrats.

An election was held in November for a member of Congress and members of the Legislature. The resolutions of the Democratic Convention endorsed the policy of the administration, and urged a speedy admission of the reconstructed States into the Union. Those of the Republicans were as follows:

Resolved, That we endorse our national and State administrations, conducted as they have been with patriotism, wisdom, and economy; and will, in the future as in the past, give to both that support which they have so well deserved at the hands of the Union organization.

Resolved, That there must be no imprudent haste in admitting representatives from the conquered rebel States into the national Congress; and we are inflexibly opposed to according these communities a position of equality in power and dignity, and participation in the administration of the Federal Government with the loyal States, until most conclusive and unmistakable proof has been furnished of profound contrition for the past and devoted patriotism in the future.

Resolved, That the Government of the United States, alike by virtue of the Constitution and under the laws of nations, as a victorious belligerent, may, in consideration of the withdrawal of its military power and the restoration to their ancient status in the Federal Union of the so-called Confederate States, subject such States to such conditions as may place the peace, integrity, and existence of the nation beyond the hazard of future disturbance; and, in all its intelligent, earnest efforts to secure this great end, the Union men of Nevada will support the administration of Andrew Johnson.

Resolved, That, inasmuch as the right of suffrage is limited by the Constitution and laws of the State of Nevada to the loyal white man, we are, therefore, opposed to changing our organic and statutory law in this respect, and are in favor of the Federal Government, in the reorganization of the State governments of the so-called seceded States, limiting this right to the loyal white man, until time and experience shall demonstrate that it is impracticable to reorganize said State governments on such basis.

The following is the result of the vote for member of Congress:

Delos R. Ashley, Republican.....	3,691
H. K. Mitchell, Democrat.....	2,115

Majority for Ashley..... 1,576

The Legislature elected is reported to be unanimously Republican in both branches.

The public debt of Nevada amounted, on January 1, 1866, to \$436,500, of which \$60,000 were due on January 10th; \$49,000 on February 1st; \$5,775 on July 1st; and \$11,250 on August 1, 1866, which would leave the debt on the last-named date \$310,475. The third section of the ninth article of the Constitution provides that,

"for the purpose of enabling the State to transact business on a cash basis from its organization, the State may contract public debts; but such debts shall never in the aggregate, exclusive of interest, exceed the sum of three hundred thousand dollars, except for the purpose of defraying extraordinary expenses, such as would be necessary in time of war or insurrection." Under this provision it is contended that, as the State debt already exceeds the limit allowed, no more money can be raised by loan until the present indebtedness is reduced, and that the expenses of the next fiscal year will have to be met by taxation.

Her silver mines still continue to be the great source of wealth to Nevada; and notwithstanding several districts have enjoyed an ephemeral notoriety, the "Washoe" region still maintains its preëminence, and will, in all probability, do so for many years to come. The following table shows the average monthly production of the four principal mining centres of Nevada, during the first nine months of 1865:

Washoe (Virginia and Gold Hill Districts).....	\$1,234,275
Austin (Reese River District).....	75,000
Aurora (Esmeralda District).....	19,000
Unionville (Humboldt District).....	1,233

Total monthly average..... \$1,331,507

Of this amount by far the greater part comes from the celebrated Comstock lode, near the town of Virginia, in Western Nevada, which may be described as a ledge of ore running along the mountain side for three miles, and having a width of from fifty to one hundred feet, and a depth at present incalculable. Over thirty companies, formed principally by Eastern capital, were at work on this ledge in 1865, but so variable is the soil in mineral richness that probably not half of them have paid dividends. One company has spent already a million of dollars, without striking a bed of "pay ore," that is, ore rich enough to pay for mining. The success of other companies, again, has been of the most remarkable character. The Gould & Curry, which is the largest and most famous enterprise on the Comstock ledge, has mined to the depth of eight hundred feet, excavated five millions of cubic feet of earth, and produced twelve millions of bullion, of which four millions were clear profit. It is said that, but for extravagance in the management and the necessity of expensive experiments, the net profits would have reached six millions. This company has now more than two miles of underground passages, and has consumed more lumber to brace up the walls of its tunnels than the entire town of Virginia, containing from ten to twelve thousand inhabitants, has used for all its buildings. In May, 1865, for the first time since the discovery of the Comstock lode in 1859, its annual production began to diminish, and so materially to diminish, that fears are entertained lest the mines may be giving out and fail to pay expenses. That these fears are not without some foundation will appear from the fol-

lowing table, showing the approximate yield of these mines during the first nine months of 1865:

	Pounds Avordupois.	Value.
January.....	54,123	
February.....	59,106	... \$4,434,609
March.....	64,737	
April.....	61,179	
May.....	58,453	... \$4,261,511
June.....	49,979	
July.....	41,526	
August.....	44,927	... \$3,224,951
September.....	40,275	

In nearly every mine on the ridge the lower workings now show ore which is of inferior quality and much less in quantity to what the upper levels have produced; and it becomes interesting to ascertain the practicability of continuing the excavations already commenced, with a view of finding new and valuable deposits of ore at a much lower depth. On this point the opinion of William Ashburner, Mineralogist of the California State Geological Survey, is worth quoting. "It is now," he says, "an accepted conclusion by all those persons who have examined the matter carefully, and have had the most experience in geological as well as in general mining matters, that the Comstock is a fissure vein of extraordinary width and productiveness, and, consequently, reasoning from analogy, we have great right to assume that ore exists and will ultimately be found at as great a depth as it is possible to extend underground workings. In fact, there is no instance where a well-defined fissure vein has been found terminating entirely in depth; and although nothing is more frequent in the progress of working than to meet with barren zones of unproductive matter, their metalliferous contents have never been exhausted at any depth which has yet been obtained by mining. The limit to the successful working of one of these veins appears to be fixed entirely by the increased cost of extraction of the ore, and pumping the water from the lower levels, and consequent reduction of the profits. There is a point, of course, where, in the absence of new discoveries of increased value, the receipts will exactly counterbalance the expenses of working, and then soon these latter will exceed the former." * * * "As a general thing, these mines have been worked heretofore, not so much with reference to the permanent interests of the stockholders, as for the purpose of raising the market value of the stock. With this view, it has frequently happened that circumstances deeply affecting the interests of the mines have been concealed from the public, and the policy has hitherto been to increase the production as largely as possible, in order to enable certain persons to realize immediately great profits from the sale of their stock, rather than await the slower and perhaps more hazardous returns which it was expected would be afforded by the dividends. This is the only excuse, or rather reason, why, in the midst of mines yielding so enormously, no proportion of the gain in their more prosperous days was

ever devoted to the purposes of exploration; and the necessity of keeping these works in advance of those of extraction seems never to have entered the minds of those persons who were called upon to fill the positions of trustees to the various companies, until the receipts began to be inferior to the expenses."

Conscious that their existence depends upon the discovery of new deposits of ore at a lower depth, most of the companies on the Comstock ledge are now engaged in sinking their shafts deeper. Their average depth is now about five hundred feet only, while that of some of the most celebrated silver mines of Mexico and Europe is from fifteen to twenty-five hundred. The Gould & Curry Company are tunnelling the mountain on which their mine is situated, some distance below their previous excavations, and in connection with it propose to sink a shaft of enormous depth, with a strong probability of finding valuable deposits of ore. There is also a project for draining these mines by means of an adit some three and a half miles in length, known as the Suto Tunnel, which will strike the vein at a depth of nearly two thousand feet below the outcrops. A careful estimate shows that within the last five years upward of thirty-five millions have been taken from the Comstock ledge and put upon the market, and that enough has been wasted in the working of the ore to make the products of the district reach sixty millions.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. The political canvass in this State commenced early in the year with the nomination by the Republican and Democratic parties of candidates for Governor and other State officers, and for members of Congress. The former nominated for Governor Frederic Smyth, and passed resolutions expressing confidence in the administration of President Lincoln and in favor of a vigorous prosecution of the war. The Democrats nominated Edward W. Harrington, and adopted as a platform of principles, "the Constitution and the Union." Amendments sustaining the Kentucky and Virginia resolutions of 1798-'99, recommending a convention of States, and denouncing the anti-slavery amendment and the war, were rejected. The election took place on March 14th, with the following result:

Governor.	Number of Votes.
Frederic Smyth, Republican.....	84,145
Edward W. Harrington, Democrat.....	83,017
Majority for Smyth.....	6,071

The Legislature elected at the same time stood as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint ballot.
Republicans.....	9	214	223
Democrats.....	8	114	117
Republican majority..	6	100	106

Three Republicans were also elected members of the Thirty-ninth Congress.

The Legislature convened at Concord on June 7th, and was organized by the election of E. A. Straw as President of the Senate, and A. F.

Pike as Speaker of the House of Representatives. On the succeeding day Governor Smyth was inaugurated, and a Secretary of State, Treasurer, and other State officers were elected by a convention of both houses. The Legislature adjourned on July 1st, having passed 153 acts and resolutions. One of the most important acts in relation to the State finances authorized the Treasurer, with advice of the Governor and Council, to issue bonds, not exceeding one million of dollars, in such sums and for such time, not less than one nor more than five years, and at such rate of interest, payable semi-annually, as the Governor, with the advice of the Council, should determine upon. It also provided for the raising of seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars by taxation, to be assessed, collected, and paid into the State Treasury on or before December, 1866; also, that on the first day of January, 1867, there shall be set apart the sum of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, and annually, for four years afterwards, such sums as will be needed to pay up the one million of bonds authorized above. An act in relation to a temporary loan empowered the Treasurer to borrow for the immediate use of the State the sum of one million and five hundred thousand dollars for a period not exceeding one year. Another act levied a tax of twenty-five per cent. upon the income of all bonds, notes, or other securities not taxed by the State; the intent being to levy a duty upon the income of Government bonds, and thus indirectly tax the bonds themselves. This act was advocated by the Democratic members of the Legislature, and passed mainly through their votes, the great body of the Republicans opposing it.

By a vote of the people in the November election of 1864, it devolved upon the Legislature of 1865 to appoint a time for the meeting of a Constitutional Convention, and to order the election of delegates to the same. The action of the convention was to be limited to the following questions: to enable our qualified voters in the military or naval service to exercise the right of suffrage while absent from the State; to abolish all religious tests as qualifications for office; to diminish the number of members of the House of Representatives; to increase the number of members of the Senate; and to make provisions for future amendments of the Constitution. A Legislative committee, to whom the subject was referred, recommended that it be referred to the Legislature of 1866, which was done. Among the last proceedings of the Legislature, were the passage of a resolution ratifying the anti-slavery amendment to the Constitution, and also of the following resolutions on national affairs:

1. *Resolved, etc.*, That we welcome with profound gratitude to the Almighty Giver, the return of peace and the restoration of the national authority.

2. *Resolved*, That we give our hearty thanks to our soldiers, who left the comforts and security of home to suppress the rebellion and restore the Union; that we will cherish, with perpetual honor, the memory of those who have given their lives a sacrifice for

their country, and that we receive as a priceless treasure, those who are permitted to return to us bringing with them the prestige of victory and the example of their heroic deeds.

8. *Resolved*, That we take a just pride in the patriotism, perseverance, and wise counsels of the statesmen who have administered our national Government amidst the difficulties and dangers of the rebellion, and confidently refer them for their reward to the gratitude of the nation and the records of history.

4. *Resolved*, That we have full confidence in the ability, integrity, and patriotism of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States; and while under the peculiar situation of the country no one can anticipate the exigencies which may arise, believing that he will be fully equal to every emergency, we pledge to him and to the Government our united action and earnest support.

5. *Resolved*, "That with proper safeguards to the purity of the ballot-box, the elective franchise should be based upon loyalty to the Constitution and Union, recognizing and affirming the equality of all men before the law," and that in the reorganization of the rebellious States, both justice and safety require that ample provision be made for the protection of the freedmen.

6. *Resolved*, That we ask the attention of our Senators and the Representatives in Congress, to these resolutions, as expressing the sentiments of the people of New Hampshire.

An additional resolution endorsing the declaration of President Johnson, "that the States that have been in rebellion are still States, or in other words that the Governments of those States are not destroyed but were only in abeyance, and that when the rebellion was suppressed, and the laws and the Constitution revived, neither the President nor Congress has any authority to prescribe the qualification of electors of those States," was rejected by a large majority.

The financial condition of the State was thus exhibited in the message of Gov. Smyth to the Legislature:

Funded debts and trust funds.....	\$1,628,978 44
Notes due the current year.....	2,855,000 00
Total debt, represented by loans.....	\$3,978,878 44
Interest due the current year.....	258,000 00
Total debt as represented by loans, with current interest.....	\$4,286,878 44
Outstanding obligations estimated by the Auditor.....	706,000 00
He estimates the demands upon the treasury the current year, including floating debt, interest, outstanding claims, and expenditures,.....	8,575,050 00
Deduct estimated receipts.....	982,100 00
Leaves to be provided for the current year....	\$2,642,950 00

The Finance Committee of the House of Representatives reported toward the close of the session that, on July 1, 1865, the actual debt of New Hampshire would be \$3,798,625.82. The amount of deposits in savings banks at the date of the last commissioners' report was \$7,831,935.72, being an increase of \$167,577.26 over the previous year. The banks of discount were stated to be fast surrendering their State charters and passing into national associations. The public institutions and schools of the State were reported to be in a prosperous condition. From the printed report of the condition of the common schools in 1864, the following statistics are obtained: Number of districts reported,

2,828; number of scholars four years of age and upward, attending school, 83,401; average attendance, 52,826; number between four and fourteen not attending anywhere, 8,440; number of male teachers, 759; female teachers, 3,262; volumes reported in school, district, and town libraries, 71,411; school houses unfit for their purposes, 509; unsuccessful teachers, 163; money strictly used for schools, \$244,263.62; amount for each scholar, \$2.90; visits of citizens, not including strangers, 82,665; number of academies and permanent schools reported, 61.

During the recent civil war New Hampshire furnished 83,427 troops to the national armies. Of these 11,039 have been disabled, and 5,518 fell in battle.

Of the resources and products of the State the following account is given by Gov. Smyth:

In some branches of agriculture we have already reached a comparative degree of excellence. In wheat-growing our average yield per acre is 12½ bushels, and is larger than that of Maine, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Kentucky, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, or West Virginia. In corn crops our average yield per acre is 20½ bushels, and is larger than that of Maine, New York, Maryland, Delaware, Kentucky, Michigan, Indiana, Missouri, Kansas, or Nebraska. In potatoes our average yield is 164 bushels per acre, and is larger than that of any other State this side the Rocky Mountains. In rye crops our average yield per acre is 14½ bushels, and is larger than that of Maine, New Jersey, Kentucky, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, or West Virginia. In the hay crop the average yield is one ton to the acre, being larger than that of Maine and equal to each of the other New England States. Of beef and mutton we produce all that is required for home consumption, with a surplus for other markets.

The heavy growth of timber in the northern part of the State, must be a source of revenue to the owners for many years to come. Our minerals are also attracting more attention. The variety of ores existing in our soil is not surpassed by that of any Atlantic State, embracing iron, zinc, copper, lead, silver, and tin. It is quite probable that most if not all these ores may at no distant day be mined at a large profit. The slate quarries of Littleton, apparently inexhaustible, and the rich lime-beds in that vicinity, suitable for mechanical and agricultural purposes, only call for enterprise to develop sources of wealth and employment.

NEW JERSEY. This State had its full share of the general prosperity, as is evident from its increasing revenue and the condition of its finances. During the fiscal year ending November 30, 1865, the receipts of the treasury, including the cash balance of \$139,273 on hand at the close of the previous year, were \$595,811, the disbursements for ordinary and extraordinary expenses having been \$490,860, leaving a balance in the hands of the treasurer of \$164,461. Available assets, the property of the "State fund," consisting of shares of various railroad, canal, and other stock, etc., were also in the treasury, amounting to \$575,486. The receipts of the "School fund" during the fiscal year, including the balance of \$47,992 on hand at the end of the previous year, amounted to \$170,214. The disbursements from the fund

during the same time were \$82,017, leaving a balance on hand of \$88,198. The whole amount of the "School fund," securely invested and drawing interest, was, on the 30th of November, including the cash balance on that day, \$538,205.

The receipts and expenditures of the "War fund" during the fiscal year were \$984,933. The entire debt of the State on account of the war, nearly all incurred for the payment of the monthly bounty to discharged men and the families of volunteers, was \$2,818,119. Claims of the State against the United States for money advanced during the war, amounting to about \$800,000, when paid will reduce the entire indebtedness of the State, all of which was incurred for war purposes, to about \$2,000,000.

The number of men mustered into the United States service from this State during the war, exclusive of the militia sent to aid in the defence of Maryland and Pennsylvania in 1864, was 79,348—a total greater than that of all the able-bodied men in the State between the ages of eighteen and forty-five at the commencement of the war—all of whom, with the exception of one regiment, have been mustered out and discharged. The amount paid by the State during the year to soldiers honorably discharged, was \$126,472, and to families and dependent mothers \$416,205, the total for these purposes from the beginning of the war being \$2,317,375. Besides these amounts, an aggregate of more than \$2,800,000 was transmitted during the war by soldiers in the field for the benefit of their families in the State. The remains of seventy-seven New Jersey soldiers were entombed at the Gettysburg cemetery, the graves being all regularly graded, headstones erected, the avenues macadamized, and trees and shrubbery planted. Measures having been taken for the establishment of a similar cemetery at Antietam, an agent was sent by the Governor of New Jersey to visit all the battle-fields in Maryland, and mark the graves of the New Jersey dead, so that their remains might be identified, with the view of reinterment at Antietam.

On the 23d of March the Legislature passed an act incorporating the "Soldiers' Children's Home" at Trenton, and on the 6th of April an appropriation of \$5,000 was made in aid of the institution. To this was added a further sum of \$8,000, donated by the "Delaware and Raritan Canal" and the "Camden and Amboy Railroad" Companies. "The Home" is under the management of an association of ladies, who have now under their care forty-one homeless orphan children, all of whom are clothed and instructed at the expense of the institution. From statistics of orphanage returned to the Secretary of State, it appeared that there were recently in the State 1,865 orphan or half-orphan children of soldiers or sailors, and that of this number 1,589 were under twelve years of age. An act

was also approved on the 23d of March to authorize the establishment of a home for disabled soldiers.

The law passed at the session of the Legislature in 1865, for the more effectual organization of the militia of the State, has had the effect of reducing it to a better state of discipline and placing it in a more effective condition than at any former period. Several new companies were added to the rifle corps during the year, so that that organization now includes nearly 2,000 rank and file, well armed and equipped, and ready to be concentrated for active service at any point within the State at a few hours' notice.

The interest of the people in the cause of education is steadily increasing, and the amount of money raised and appropriated for the maintenance of public schools was larger than in any previous year, being \$704,694, an increase of \$67,614 over the expenditures for 1864. The number of children attending the public schools during the year was larger than in 1864. In compliance with an act passed by the Legislature on the 2d of February, the Governor purchased for the State the Model and Normal School buildings at Trenton, as well as the land, library, and other property connected with them, and the Normal School became one of the permanent institutions of the State. The number of pupils under instruction during the year, in these schools and in the Farnum Preparatory School at Beverly, was as follows:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Normal School.....	11	114	125
Model School.....	208	162	365
Farnum Preparatory School.....	112	125	237
Total.....	326	401	727

The "College for the Benefit of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts," organized in conformity with the act of Congress of July 2, 1862, donating public lands to provide colleges of this class in the several States, went into operation in September, by the opening of a Scientific School in connection with Rutgers College at New Brunswick. The course of instruction includes civil engineering, mechanics, chemistry, the theory and practice of agriculture, modern languages, and military tactics. Governor Parker, in his third annual message, says:

The farm attached to the institution has, during the past year, been greatly improved by under-draining, fencing, and the use of fertilizers. All the cleared land not in meadow, has been ploughed and prepared for cropping. The price originally paid for the tract, containing one hundred acres, was fifteen thousand dollars, and the improvements since made have cost more than three thousand dollars. The President of the Board of Trustees has given assurance that this farm shall be made all that the warmest friends of scientific agriculture can desire. Special attention will be paid to market gardening and the cultivation of fruits. The best implements of husbandry will be used, the most approved methods of culture adopted, and each pupil instructed to keep a full account of all experiments, with expenses and income.

Under the provisions of an "act to establish

and organize a State Reform School for Juvenile Offenders," passed at the last session of the Legislature, the Board of Control appointed six persons as trustees, whose first duty was to purchase land and erect buildings; but the sum of \$15,000, the amount appropriated for the purpose, having been found insufficient for the purchase of a suitable site, a further appropriation was recommended by Governor Parker, under the conviction, after visiting the State prison and county jails, that such an institution could not fail to work incalculable good to the community by the reformation of criminal and vagrant youths.

The number of patients in the State Lunatic Asylum at the beginning of the year was 383. In the course of the year 192 were received and 158 were discharged or died, leaving in the Institution at the end of the year 367 patients. The receipts for the year, including \$10,000 appropriated by the State, were \$86,236; the payments for the same period were \$86,155, leaving a balance in the hands of the Treasurer of \$81.

Owing to the high prices of provisions and the difficulty of procuring work for the convicts, the expenditures of the State Prison largely exceeded the income, the receipts having been only \$30,154, while the expenditures amounted to \$48,878, involving a loss of \$18,724.

The survey of the marl region of the State, comprising nearly a thousand square miles, is now complete, with the maps and sections, by the aid of which the position of the marl can be readily ascertained by the use of compass and level, thus making all the varieties of this valuable fertilizer easily accessible. The iron-ore region of Morris County, embracing eighty square miles, and including some of the richest iron mines in the United States, has also been minutely surveyed and mapped upon a large scale.

During the year efforts were renewed to have the New York Quarantine established on the soil of New Jersey. On this subject Gov. Parker, in his third annual message, says:

On the 6th of November last, application was made to the Federal authorities at Washington to permit the health officers of New York to locate hospitals on Sandy Hook. Having received information of the contemplated application, on the 4th of November last I telegraphed to the New Jersey State Agent to visit the President at once, and notify him that on behalf of the State of New Jersey, I protested against any action of the General Government looking to the establishment of a quarantine hospital at Sandy Hook. On the 6th of November I forwarded a telegram to the President, renewing the protest against granting the application, and claiming for the State of New Jersey jurisdiction over the designated locality. On the following day I received a despatch from the Secretary of War, stating that the question had been referred to him, and that the health officers of New York were then at Washington urging the Government to grant authority to locate quarantine hospitals on Government property at Sandy Hook. Accompanied by the Attorney-General of this State (whose views on the subject entirely coincided with

mine), I immediately visited Washington, and had full and satisfactory interviews with the President and Secretary of War. Written objections denying the right of the United States to make the proposed grant were filed with the Secretary, by whom they were referred to the Attorney-General of the United States. I have recently received information that the Attorney-General has decided that the General Government has not the right to grant the application. This decision, it is hoped, will settle the question of jurisdiction over Sandy Hook, and put an end to the efforts of the New York authorities to induce the General Government to aid in establishing their quarantine on the soil of New Jersey.

With regard to the controversy between the State and the General Government as to the power of the latter to make a post road of the railroad from Raritan Bay to the Delaware, Gov. Parker remarks:

The General Government has no right to build a foot of railroad or to charter a corporation to construct the same, in any of the States, for the purpose of carrying passengers or freight for compensation. Neither can Congress authorize any railroad company chartered by a State to do any act that is forbidden or that is not authorized by the law of its incorporation as passed by the Legislature. No power can make the creature superior to or independent of its creator.

The proposition to amend the Federal Constitution by adding an article abolishing slavery throughout the United States, was transmitted to the Legislature of New Jersey, at its last session, for ratification or rejection, and was rejected by the Senate and House of Assembly.

The Republican State Convention assembled at Trenton on the 20th of July, and nominated Marcus L. Ward for Governor, to fill the place of Joel Parker. A series of resolutions were adopted, pronouncing the war not a "failure," and rejoicing in the advent of peace, endorsing President Johnson's reorganization policy, strongly denouncing the conduct of the Democratic party during the war, pledging the support of the party to the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery, expressing gratitude to the heroic men of the army and navy, in favor of exempting discharged soldiers from the poll tax, pledging the party to the most rigid economy in the State administration, and reaffirming the resolutions of the Baltimore Convention in reference to the Monroe doctrine. A resolution in favor of negro suffrage was voted down by an overwhelming majority.

The Democratic Convention assembled also at Trenton on the 30th of August, and Gen. Theodore Runyon was unanimously nominated for Governor. A series of resolutions were reported, charging the consequences of the war on the election of a sectional President and the fanaticism of a sectional party, favoring a return of the Government to its original purposes and objects, declaring and insisting on the rights of the States, opposing negro suffrage, and agreeing with President Johnson that the question should be left with the States, favoring a return to the specie currency, opposing the exemption of Government bonds from taxation,

expressing sympathy with and gratitude to the soldiers, insisting on the full payment of the promised Government bounty, opposing military arrests, favoring freedom of elections and the restoration of the *habeas corpus*, and severely criticising the management of the national debt.

The election took place on November 6th with the following results:

Governor.	Number of Votes.
Marcus L. Ward, Republican.....	67,529
Gen. Theodore Runyon, Democrat.....	64,781

Majority for Ward..... 2,791

The Legislature chosen at this election stood :

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	11	86	47
Democrats.....	10	24	34
Republican majority....	1	12	18

NEW YORK. The great wealth and resources of the Empire State were strikingly manifested in its uninterrupted and increasing prosperity, notwithstanding the heavy burdens entailed upon it by the late war. The soldiers furnished to the General Government by this State alone were sufficiently numerous for military operations on a great scale. The total number whose term of service varied from three months to three years was 457,456; to which must be added 15,987 militiamen mustered for a less term of service than three months, making a grand total of 473,443 men. The total number of years' service supplied by the State since the commencement of the war was 1,148,604 years, equal to 882,868 three years' men. Of these there remained in the service of the United States at the end of the year, only seven regiments of infantry and two of cavalry. The total sum disbursed by the State for bounties from July 17, 1862, to January 1, 1866, was \$35,088,999.

The organizations of the National Guard as they existed at the close of the year, including officers and men of all arms, were of an aggregate strength of 49,906 men, of whom 81,170 were fully armed, equipped, and uniformed. The amount expended out of the sum appropriated by the last Legislature for the purchase of arms, accoutrements, and uniforms, for the National Guard, was \$216,651, the total payments having been, according to the Comptroller's report, \$643,359, or one-half as much as the entire amount of the other ordinary expenses of the State Government.

The number of men furnished by the city of New York during the war was, according to the report of the chairman of the Board of Supervisors, 116,882, for terms of one, two, three, and four years, the total number of years' service being 267,551. The average cost per man under each call was—for bounties, \$80.06; for bounties and hand-money, \$84.81; for bounties and hand-money and expenses connected and not connected with bounties, including expenses for the family relief fund, \$150.47.

The Legislature at its session in 1865 authorized the erection of a fire-proof edifice, to be

called the "Hall of Military Record," as a repository for the records of the war, and for the collections of the Bureau of Military Statistics, provided the sum of \$75,000 should be voluntarily contributed for the purpose. The authorities of the city of Albany offered an appropriate site, and contributions were made by the people of various sections of the State for the erection of the building. This institution it is hoped will secure the careful preservation of the records of the military services of individuals and of regiments, and of the part taken by the counties, cities, and towns, in raising troops, and at the same time afford a safe place for the deposit and display of flags, trophies, and other objects of military interest, belonging to the collection of the State, as well as for the preservation and convenient use of newspapers, books, pamphlets, and other papers belonging to the Bureau of Military Record, which already has in its custody eight hundred battle-flags of regiments, batteries, and ships, besides numerous relics from all the great battle-fields of the late war.

The receipts into the treasury during the fiscal year ending September 30, 1865, on account of all funds except the canal fund, were \$16,278,666; the payments on account of all the funds except the canal fund were \$16,188,098, leaving a balance in the treasury at the end of the fiscal year, of \$90,570. The receipts on account of the general fund revenue from all sources, were \$11,912,986; the payments, including the deficiency from the previous year, were \$13,092,330, leaving a deficiency on the 30th of September, 1865, of \$1,179,394. This was owing to the fact that the sum of \$2,667,487, taxes due from the city of New York, was not collected till the fall, which, if it had been paid before the end of the fiscal year, would have made the balance in the treasury \$2,758,007; and instead of a deficiency in the general fund, there would have been a surplus of \$1,448,048.

The funded debt of the State on the 30th of September, 1860, including the canal and general fund debts, was \$38,612,976; on the 30th of September, 1865, it was, not including the county debt, \$25,475,540, showing a diminution of the debt as it existed before the war, of \$8,137,436. The State would within a very few years have been entirely free from debt, but for the large bounty loan made during 1865; the certificates on account of which issued up to the 10th of December, amounted to the sum of \$25,566,000, the canal and general fund debts added to which made the total debt of the State on the 10th of December, 1865, \$51,041,540. The direct tax levied during the year was 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ mills: $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mill for schools, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ mills for general purposes, and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mill for canals.

During the fiscal year the receipts on account of the canals from tolls and other sources were \$3,577,465, and the payments \$1,927,374, leaving a surplus revenue of \$1,650,091 to be paid into the sinking fund. A comparison of the

receipts with those of the preceding year, which were \$4,846,266, shows a diminution of \$763,800. Comptroller Robinson in his report of December 30, 1865, says:

The receipts and expenditures upon the canals, should attract the attention of taxpayers. Whilst the receipts are rapidly diminishing, the expenses are still more rapidly increasing. In 1863 the receipts were \$5,118,501.35, and the payments for collection and ordinary repairs, \$770,882.52. In 1865 the receipts were \$3,577,465.45, and the payments for collection and ordinary repairs, \$1,927,378.59. In 1863 the surplus to meet the requirements of the Constitution was \$4,347,618.83, leaving a "remainder" of \$981,376.17. In 1865 the amount was but \$1,650,091.86, leaving a deficiency of \$1,716,150.80, to be provided for by taxation. In 1863 the percentage which the cost of maintenance of the canals bore to the amount of tolls was but \$15.33; in 1865 it rose to the enormous rate of \$54.73, being far greater than it ever was before, in any year since the canals went into full operation. And this statement does not include the heavy payments for "extraordinary repairs," which would make it much higher. The payments of \$350,000 to the General Fund Debt Sinking Fund, and \$200,000 for the support of Government, cannot of course be made.

These facts and figures are instructive, and are worthy of the attention of those who think that a State can manage the business of transportation better than private individuals, and who are proposing to build new canals, and to commence another enlargement of some of the old ones.

The stock and debts of the railroads in the State on September 30, 1865, were as follows:

	Roads operated by steam.	Roads operated by horse-power.
Capital stock by charter and acts of the Legislature.....	\$64,816,200	\$18,731,000
Capital stock subscribed for.....	96,433,662	18,653,850
Capital stock paid in.....	96,040,187	18,105,105
Funded debt.....	68,804,976	5,974,606
Floating debt.....	8,804,834	578,845
Total funded and floating debt.....	74,165,610	6,553,450

During the same year ending September 30th, the earnings of the railroads operated by steam were \$48,642,966, and the payments, other than for construction, including \$155,000 carried to the surplus fund, \$48,742,428; the earnings of the roads operated by horse-power were \$5,948,657, and the payments, including \$226,283 to the surplus fund, \$5,853,440.

On the 9th of March the Legislature passed an act called the "enabling act," the object of which was to afford to the banks of the State a means of transferring their organization and business to the national system without the tedious process of a formal dissolution, with the attendant inconvenience of a dispersion of their capital and surplus earnings. Between that time and the end of the fiscal year one hundred and seventy-three banks closed business as State institutions, and were converted into national banks. Besides these, twenty banks had received authority and were doing business under the national system prior to the passage of the act, ten of them having effected the change prior to the 1st of October, 1864. Thus one hundred and eighty-three banks were during the fiscal year transferred with all their wealth and influence to the national guardian-

ship. The magnitude of the change may be seen from the following statement of the Superintendent of the Bank Department:

The capital invested in banking, under our State laws, on the 24th day of September, 1864, was, \$107,806,945
On the 30th day of September, 1865..... 20,434,970

Decrease during the fiscal year..... \$86,969,975
The greatest decrease in any previous year during the last ten years..... 1,351,199

The circulation returned and destroyed during the year ending September, 1865, was \$16,728,179, which exceeds by about \$2,000,000 the amount returned during the panic year of 1857, and by about \$9,000,000 the average yearly amount for the last ten years.

The circulation issued and outstanding on the 30th September, 1864, was..... \$40,115,635 00
The circulation issued and outstanding on the 30th September, 1865, was..... 27,009,449 00

Decrease during the fiscal year..... \$13,106,186 00

Securities, including cash, held under general laws, to redeem circulation, September 30, 1864..... \$87,208,224 00
Securities held, under general laws, to redeem circulation, September 30, 1865..... 25,469,157 41

Decrease during the fiscal year..... \$11,594,366 41

The decrease of the different classes of securities has been as follows:

Of United States stocks..... \$8,523,600 00
" New York State stocks..... 2,235,706 00
" Illinois State stocks..... 233,400 00
" Bonds and mortgages..... 936,576 00

Increase of cash deposits to redeem circulation, 1864..... \$11,924,582 00
1865..... 90,215 81

Total decrease as stated above..... \$11,594,366 41

Notwithstanding the large withdrawal of labor to maintain the military strength of the nation, the State has continued to make steady progress in agriculture and manufactures—improvements in the implements of husbandry and the discoveries of science having contributed largely to increase the productiveness of industry, and thus compensated in a measure for the scarcity of laborers and artisans.

The school system of the State continued to increase in efficiency and importance. The following is a brief summary from the returns of the commissioners for the year ending September 30, 1865, showing the condition of the common schools:

Number of school districts.....	11,759
Teachers for twenty-eight weeks or more.....	15,478
Children in the State between the ages of five and twenty-one.....	1,398,739
Male teachers employed.....	4,422
Female teachers employed.....	22,917
Children attending school.....	916,617
Average daily attendance of children.....	393,617
Volumes in school district libraries.....	1,278,123
Number of school houses.....	11,613

The receipts and expenditures on account of common schools were:

<i>Receipts.</i>	
Amount on hand October 1, 1864.....	\$474,447 98
Apportionment of public moneys.....	1,872,362 73
Proceeds of school lands, etc.....	18,531 11
Raised by tax.....	3,501,070 28
Raised by rate bill.....	653,156 72
From all other sources.....	223,471 79

Total..... \$6,252,942 54

Expenditures.

For teachers' wages.....	\$2,976,098 48
For libraries.....	26,816 08
For school apparatus.....	175,766 70
For colored schools.....	86,622 26
For school houses, sites, etc.....	799,160 70
For all other expenses.....	730,259 09
Forfeited in hands of Supervisors.....	751 98
Amount on hand October 1, 1865.....	516,782 80

Total..... \$4,252,242 54

The total number of pupils receiving instruction in the State, including colleges, academies, private schools, and common schools, but excluding professional schools, was 1,007,737. The number of pupils who received instruction in the State Normal School during the year was 278; in teachers' classes in academies, 1,598; in the Oswego Normal and Training School since its organization, 185, of whom 106 graduated. The number of teachers instructed in teachers' institutes during the year was 8,897.

In the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb on Washington Heights, the whole number of pupils was 402, of whom 284 were males and 168 females. Of these 267 were supported by the State and 81 by the counties, the remainder being beneficiaries of the institution and of the State of New Jersey, or supported by their friends. In the New York Institution for the Blind the number of pupils on the 30th of September was 121, of whom 108 were beneficiaries of the State. In the twenty-five schools on the Indian reservations the aggregate attendance of pupils was 971.

The number of convicts in the several State prisons on the 30th of September was 1,878, of whom 159 were females and 73 insane. The earnings for the fiscal year amounted to \$205,219, to which must be added \$78,477, the estimated value of a large stock of iron and nails manufactured by the inmates of the Clinton prison remaining unsold, making the total earnings \$283,696. The expenses during the same period were \$474,040, an excess over the receipts of \$190,344. Governor Fenton, in his message of January 2, 1866, says:

The large excess of expenditure over the earnings of the year compares unfavorably with the results of previous years, and is caused, in part, by the fact that during the first nine months of this period there was a large decrease in the number of inmates, while the volume of expenses could not be ratably diminished. The report of the inspectors shows gradual improvement in the discipline and internal management of the persons under their charge, and for their efforts in this behalf I cannot speak too warmly. Perhaps, however, to accomplish the highest success, our prison system should be wholly absolved from party influence, and the changes incident to the varying fortunes of political organizations. To attain this independence, and to engraft on our penal code valuable improvements, appears to be the purpose of the Prison Association of this State. This association is charged by law with the function of "visiting, inspecting, and examining" all the prisons of the State, and of reporting annually to the Legislature the results of this inquiry. These duties seem to have been discharged with intelligence and fidelity, and their recommendations, based upon extended observation and research, are worthy of the attention of the Legislature. The measures of this board to

furnish more thorough information, and to acquire familiarity with the working of prisons throughout the Union, will doubtless aid in the diffusion of practical knowledge and lead to salutary legislation.

On the 2d of November a vessel arrived from Europe at the port of New York, having on board a large number of passengers, several of whom were sick with Asiatic cholera. The commissioners of quarantine found themselves wholly unprovided with a place for their reception, except upon the floating hospital which had been used during the summer for yellow-fever patients. But this vessel was ill adapted for the purpose, and only partially met the requirements of the commissioners. There was still no place in which might be detained those persons who, from having been exposed to the disease, could not with safety be permitted to enter the city until they had undergone the usual precautionary treatment. Besides this difficulty, the commissioners were without funds to procure the necessary supplies and accommodations, the last appropriation having been exhausted in making the improvements and disbursements authorized by the Legislature. Under these circumstances, Gov. Fenton advised the commissioners to assume the responsibility of incurring such liabilities as might be necessary to meet the emergency, and to rely upon the Legislature to ratify their action. In accordance with his suggestions, every thing possible was done on the part of the commissioners and the health officer to provide what the occasion seemed to demand. But they were unable to procure any accommodations on land either for the care of the sick, or for the temporary detention of those who had been exposed to the disease. In view of this unfortunate condition of the quarantine, and the fact that the epidemic of eastern Asia, following the highways of commerce, had already made its way from Arabia and Syria to the basin of the Mediterranean and the shores of western Europe, and might be expected to commence its ravages in the seaboard cities of the American continent in the ensuing spring or summer, the Governor recommended prompt legislative action with regard to such measures as should meet the views of the commissioners and health officer, and suggested that if it should be found impossible to procure a suitable location on land, attention should at once be given to the erection of proper structures on the water.

The Democratic State Convention was held at Albany on the 6th and 7th of September. A Secretary of State was the highest officer to be elected. The Convention nominated Maj.-Gen. H. W. Slocum, and adopted the following platform:

Resolved, That the past history of the Democratic party is to be found in the proudest records of the country, and its creed in the Constitution; and that it is ready to meet the great questions of the future with the patriotism, fidelity to principle, and practical wisdom that have characterized its long and auspicious identification with the history of the nation.

Resolved, That we congratulate the people of this

State and of the nation, upon the termination of civil war and upon the return of peace, and especially that this blessing is attained with a preserved Union, an undivided country, and the reassertion of constitutional liberty throughout the land.

Resolved, That as the first fruits of this triumph, the people demand the subordination of military to civil rule, the restitution of the authority of the courts, and the recognition of the equality of the States; that we regard all efforts, either by prolonged military rule or by denying the right of representation to States, in order to compel them to adopt negro equality or negro suffrage as an element of their constitutions, as tending to delay and prevent the pacification of the country, and to subvert the principles of the Government, and endanger the liberties of the people.

Resolved, That in the plan of President Johnson for the speedy restoration of the States lately in rebellion to their old positions in the Union, by commencing the work of reorganization at the point of secession, and confiding it to those then recognized as electors by the laws of the respective States, leaving the question of suffrage, where the Constitution places it, to the future action of the several States, we recognize enlightened statesmanship, sound political theory, and an old-fashioned, time-honored regard for the relations and rights of the States and the Federal Government, as established by the Constitution; and that we pledge to the President, in this great work, our cordial and energetic support.

Resolved, That while we stigmatize as alike fatal to national prosperity and the rights of labor, the doctrine that "a national debt is a national blessing," we recognize the obligation by which the whole resources of the country are pledged to the payment of the public debt, and we believe the interests and honor of the people are involved in its faithful fulfillment, and that all constitutional and legal means should be taken to compel the whole property of the country, real and personal, to share in the public burdens, believing that equality of taxation is not only equity, but also the soundest possible basis of public credit.

Resolved, That the thanks and gratitude of the people are due to the soldiers and sailors of the nation and to their brave commanders, who have illustrated the pages of our history with deeds of valor that elevate the fame of the people, and vindicate the character of republican government.

Resolved, That the position originally taken by our Government in reference to the interference of European powers with the people of this continent, called the "Monroe doctrine," is a policy which has preserved peace and avoided foreign entanglements, and cannot be abandoned without dishonor to us as a Power among nations, nor without danger to democratic institutions.

Resolved, That the frank and generous acceptance by the Southern people of the condition in which they have been left by the recent war, including the abandonment of slavery, removes the main difficulties in the way of the restoration of amicable feeling among the States; and that it should be met on the part of the Federal Government in a spirit of conciliation and kindness.

Resolved, That, banishing all minor party considerations, and acting in the spirit of an enlarged and generous patriotism, we cordially support President Johnson in the policy which he has avowed, to enable the States lately in revolt to put their governments in practical operation, and in all such constitutional measures as he may inaugurate to harmonize the country and restore and cement the union of the States.

A resolution was also adopted, charging the Secretary of State and the enumerators under him with the perpetration of frauds in connection with the census.

The Republican Convention met at Syracuse, on the 20th of September. Maj.-Gen. Barlow was nominated Secretary of State, and the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That we congratulate the people of this State upon the overthrow of the rebellion and the return of peace to all sections of our common country; and that we find in the preservation of the Union, the reestablishment of the national authority, and the extirpation of slavery, ample recompense for the suffering and sacrifices by which these results have been achieved.

Resolved, That to the soldiers and sailors of all ranks and in all departments, by whose valor, under divine Providence, this great result has been accomplished, and who have by their heroism shed new and undying lustre on the American name, we return the heartfelt thanks of a grateful people; that we renew the demand made by the Union National Convention at Baltimore that adequate provision be made by the national authorities for the support and comfort of such of their survivors as have received honorable and disabling wounds in the service of their country.

Resolved, That while we deplore the death by assassination of Abraham Lincoln as closing a career of transcendent usefulness and honor, and as a great national calamity, we recognize in Andrew Johnson, his successor, a statesman of ability, experience, and high-toned patriotism and the most unswerving integrity, and one who has rendered invaluable services to the Union cause during the rebellion, and whose single-hearted devotion to the permanent prosperity and glory of our common country commands the respect and confidence of the American people; and that we renew to him in his administration those assurances of cordial and effective support which were tendered by us in his nomination and election.

Resolved, That we approve as eminently wise and just the sentiments of kindness and confidence which President Johnson has evinced toward those of the communities and individuals lately in rebellion who accept the perpetuation of the Union and the perpetual prohibition of slavery as the legitimate and irrevocable results of the war; that we approve the initial steps which he has taken toward relaxing the bonds of military authority in the Southern States and in restoring to their people full and complete control over their local affairs just as soon as may be found compatible with the preservation of order, the maintenance of peace, the exclusion of slavery, and the fulfillment of the constitutional obligations of the national authority to guarantee to every State a republican form of government; and that we confidently look forward, under his wise and patriotic administration, to the establishment of more cordial relations, of greater mutual respect, and of a stronger interest in each other's welfare between the Northern and Southern sections of the Union than have hitherto prevailed, and that in all the measures he may adopt tending to the attainment of these just and beneficent ends we pledge him our cordial and hearty support.

Resolved, That while we regard the national sovereignty over all the subjects committed to it by the Constitution of the United States, as having been confirmed and established by the recent war, we regard the several States in the Union as having jurisdiction over all local and domestic affairs expressly reserved to them by the same constitutional authority, and that whenever it shall be deemed compatible with the public safety to restore to the States lately in rebellion the renewed exercise of those rights, we trust it will be done in the faith and on the basis that they will be exercised in a spirit of equal and impartial justice, and with a view to the elevation and perpetuation of the full rights of citizenship of all their people, inasmuch as these are

principles which constitute the basis of our republican institutions.

Resolved, That the restoration of peace will enable the Government to restore the civil tribunals of the country to their just and natural supremacy, and that we have full and entire confidence that this will be done as soon as the safety of the nation will permit, and no sooner.

Resolved, That the debt incurred by the nation in defence of its own existence is a sacred and inviolable obligation, resting upon all the property and all the resources of all sections of the country for its fulfilment; that while we demand at the hands of Congress such measures as shall impose the burden of taxation equally and impartially upon all classes, we have full reliance upon the people for the maintenance of the national honor and the ultimate extinction of the national debt; and that we approve and endorse the determination of the Government under no circumstances to assume, directly or indirectly, any portion of the debts incurred by the rebel authorities in the prosecution of the war against the United States.

Resolved, That we expect at the hands of the Government as prompt and as large a reduction of the national expenditures as the national safety will permit; an abolition of all sinecures, and a wise and economical administration of public affairs.

Resolved, That we have entire confidence in the direction, under President Johnson, of our intercourse with foreign nations, in his prompt enforcement against them of all just demands, in securing redress for national insults and wrongs, and in maintaining the fixed policy of our Government, by which the interference of foreign Powers with the institutions of this continent, is regarded as hostile to our peace and menacing to our independence.

Resolved, That we tender our congratulations to William H. Seward upon his providential escape from the knife of the assassin, and we rejoice that his distinguished services may still be continued to the nation and the cause of liberty.

Resolved, That the administration of Governor Fenton deserves and commands the respect and confidence of the people of this State, and that we hereby pledge to it our cordial and hearty support.

Resolved, That we call upon the loyal constituencies of the several districts in this State, in selecting candidates for the Legislature and other offices, to nominate none but men of known integrity of character, as the only means of avoiding corruption, and securing an honest administration of public affairs.

Resolved, That, as the Union party has steadily sustained the Government in its contest with the rebellion, not only against its open enemies in the field, but against those who gave it the aid of organized sympathy and encouragement in this and other loyal States, so will it now maintain its authority and second its efforts to restore all the blessings of union, freedom, and peace to all sections of our common country; and we confidently appeal to its past history, its present, and the character of its candidates, as its title to public confidence and support.

Resolved, That we repel as false and calumnious the imputation cast by the Democratic Convention upon the official integrity and personal honesty of Chauncey M. Depew, Secretary of State, and that we endorse his official conduct in the enumeration of the census, and in all respects, as worthy of the approval and commendation of the people.

Resolved, That we tender to the able men who have sustained the cause of American nationality in England our grateful thanks, and mingle our mourning with that of his countless friends in this country for the loss of Richard Cobden, one of the truest of their number.

The election took place on the 7th of November, and resulted in the success of the Republican ticket. The vote for Secretary of State

was, for Major-General Slocum (Democrat), 272,798, and 300,254 for Major-General Barlow (Republican), giving the latter a majority of 27,491. The Legislature chosen at this election stood:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	27	89	116
Democrats.....	5	89	44
Republican majority....	22	50	72

The whole number of votes cast in the State on the 14th of March on the proposition to amend the Constitution, so as to provide for the appointment of five Commissioners of Appeals, was 138,260, of which 56,486 were for, and 81,532 against the amendment, causing its rejection by a majority of 25,046 votes.

A State convention of colored men, representing quite a number of counties, met at Poughkeepsie, on the 9th of November. The following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That this Convention is of the opinion that there should be a representation of colored men in the city of Washington from the different sections, to be there during the session of Congress, supported by the people, whose duty it should be to urge upon the members of Congress the importance of having the status of the colored American so fixed in the land that his color shall not be a bar to his occupying any position or to the enjoyment of all the rights that appertain to citizenship.

In accordance with the requirements of the Constitution, the State census was taken during the summer; the inquiries made by the enumerators referring to the status of the population on the first Monday in June. The aggregates according to the census were much less than had been anticipated; and instead of the population of the State having increased, it was found to be 48,958 less than in 1860, and only 363,282 greater than in 1855. The population of New York city was less by 87,288 than in 1860, and only 96,482 greater than in 1855. Secretary Depew, alluding in his "Preliminary Report" to this diminution, said: "The extraordinary efforts made by New York, in common with the loyal States, for the maintenance of the Union, could not fail of being shown in the results of the census. In every State where a census has been taken within the last year, this influence is shown; and if the aggregates are less than were anticipated, it is only because we have under-estimated the effect of this cause."

To the towns that showed an unusual loss or gain from the census of 1860 circulars were sent, requesting opinions as to what had occasioned the change. The decrease, in sixty-five towns, was ascribed to emigration, chiefly to the West; in thirty-seven towns to consolidation of farms; in thirty-two directly to the war, but in what manner was not specified; in twenty-five to imperfection of returns in 1860; in twenty-three to discontinuance of manufactories; in eighteen to increased mortality, especially from diphtheria; in eighteen to removals to Canada to avoid the draft; in fifteen to the decrease or discontinuance of the lumber-

ing business; in twelve to deaths in the military service; in eleven to the completion of railroads; and in eleven others to removals to the oil regions of Pennsylvania. The increase in twenty-eight towns was ascribed to the growth of manufactures; in twenty-two to the growth of villages; in fourteen to an increase of railroad business; in ten to emigration; and in nine to suburban growth.

The following table shows the population of the State in 1865 by counties, with the increase and decrease, and the number of aliens and colored persons not taxed:

Population of New York State.

COUNTIES.	Population.	Changes since 1855.		Aliens.	Colored persons not taxed.
		Increase.	Decrease.		
Albany	115,504	11,828	10,442	866
Allegany	40,285	1,312	916	149
Broome	87,983	1,282	1,184	258
Cattaraugus	44,305	2,742	1,517	138
Chautauque	55,730	2,152	3,210	828
Chemung	68,325	5,143	3,506	156
Chemung	81,923	4,605	2,015	422
Chenango	35,899	1,555	514	157
Clinton	45,713	3,391	6,094	84
Columbia	44,905	514	2,009	855
Cortland	24,815	240	538	22
Delaware	41,633	1,889	770	130
Dutchess	65,192	4,557	4,806	1,514
Erie	157,190	24,743	20,838	571
Essex	25,644	105	2,389	60
Franklin	25,573	2,655	2,392	11
Fulton	24,512	1,223	568	126
Genesee	31,733	190	2,327	76
Greene	31,710	573	721	577
Hamilton	2,658	200	38	1
Herkimer	89,154	583	2,027	147
Jefferson	66,445	1,023	4,565	180
Kings	310,824	94,469	53,423	3,987
Lewis	27,840	2,611	1,397	25
Livingston	27,535	886	2,244	81
Madison	42,607	1,181	1,574	214
Monroe	104,235	7,211	11,488	401
Montgomery	31,447	689	972	273
New York	726,386	96,432	151,388	8,399
Niagara	49,635	1,037	710	331
Oneida	102,713	5,066	6,045	455
Onondaga	92,332	6,403	6,995	392
Ontario	43,316	644	2,715	361
Orange	70,165	9,297	6,046	1,655
Orleans	28,603	163	1,999	77
Oswego	72,200	6,802	5,401	204
Otsego	48,616	1,119	1,885	180
Putnam	14,845	1,885	86
Queens	57,997	11,731	6,096	2,532
Rensselaer	33,210	8,973	290	581
Richmond	28,209	6,820	3,056	455
Rockland	20,788	1,277	1,383	483
St. Lawrence	30,994	6,017	3,110	86
Saratoga	49,892	513	2,328	477
Schenectady	30,888	1,816	1,044	151
Schoharie	32,359	163	343	322
Schuyler	15,441	886	292	74
Seneca	27,633	2,295	1,201	112
Stenben	66,192	8,227	2,232	232
Suffolk	42,569	1,903	1,538	1,618
Sullivan	32,741	3,254	1,251	73
Tioga	25,163	1,201	447	164
Tompkins	30,606	820	509	171
Ulster	75,609	7,673	4,563	1,232
Warren	21,128	1,450	950	14
Washington	46,244	1,839	3,884	216
Wayne	47,498	738	2,163	179
Westchester	101,197	23,519	12,895	1,526
Wyoming	30,033	2,115	1,217	88
Yates	19,385	474	518	85
Total	3,881,777	363,232	899,456	35,049

Population of New York City.

WARD.	Population, 1865.	Changes since 1855.		Aliens.	Colored persons not taxed.
		Increase.	Decrease.		
1st	9,852	3,684	1,527	95
2d	1,194	2,055	282	25
3d	3,267	4,542	1,180	39
4th	17,352	5,543	4,558	30
5th	18,205	3,419	4,906	300
6th	19,754	5,808	3,674	273
7th	26,963	2,540	5,563	45
8th	30,093	3,954	5,384	2,074
9th	33,504	1,478	5,494	313
10th	31,587	5,150	8,478	89
11th	55,958	5,974	12,651	118
12th	23,259	10,608	4,361	349
13th	26,888	209	4,275	252
14th	23,882	1,373	5,030	623
15th	25,573	1,536	6,672	797
16th	41,973	2,149	8,388	673
17th	79,563	20,015	17,895	313
18th	47,618	8,104	10,197	360
19th	39,945	22,079	7,396	370
20th	61,884	14,829	12,635	1,123
21st	38,669	10,735	8,303	396
22d	47,361	24,756	8,456	139
Total	726,386	96,432	151,388	8,399

In the Senate the ratio of representation according to this census is 1 to 106,045. In the Assembly the Constitution secures to every county at least one member, with the exception of Hamilton, which is placed with Fulton County. Deducting aliens and colored persons not taxed, the total population divided by 128 gives a ratio of 1 to 26,511½. By the first of the two methods of distribution which exist in assigning ratios; the counties having a representative population less than this are first deducted, and the remaining population divided by the remaining number of members (Fulton and Hamilton having one), gives a ratio by which the larger counties receive their allowance. In the present census the counties of Cortland, Essex, Franklin, Fulton and Hamilton, Lewis, Putnam, Richmond, Rockland, Schenectady, Schuyler, Seneca, Warren, and Yates, having each less than the ratio of 1 to 26,511½, and together a representative number of 287,513, would be deducted. The remaining 3,105,926, divided by 115, gives the ratio of 1 to 27,006, by which the other counties would be equalized.

By the second method, as each county (excepting Hamilton) has a fraction that would entitle it to at least one member, the ratio of 1 to 26,511½ is used without previous deduction of the smaller counties.

NOMENCLATURE AND NOTATION, CHEMICAL. "No chemist will need to be reminded," observes Professor Hofmann (*Introduction to Modern Chemistry*), "that, during the last quarter of a century, the science of chemistry has undergone a profound transformation." He reminds his readers that the accessions of fact have been so rapid, so voluminous, and so heterogeneous, as almost to exceed the grasp of any single mind. Meanwhile, of course, attempts have continued to be made toward the scientific interpretation of such facts:

toward the discovery of those general principles which, it has been assumed, must hold true in respect to the chemical nature and relationships of different substances, and to the chemical phenomena they can exhibit; and, in fine, at once toward a comprehensive and orderly grouping of bodies, elementary and compound, and a unitary and philosophical system of the truths ascertained concerning them.

Such being the important ends to be kept in view, it has naturally happened, among the multitude of experimenters and theorists engaged in the work, that, in the first place, many of the suggestions and hypotheses put forward have sooner or later been proved untenable and valueless; and that, in the second place, a considerable degree of conflict and collision has unavoidably existed, both in respect to the views presented and to claims as to priority in advancing them. This ordeal of new views in chemistry has been similar to that through which, some two and three centuries earlier, the mechanical and certain of the physical sciences were passing. Indeed, in the realm of chemical science, the clash of opposing views has not yet ceased; and while there are chemists who still withstand, as unsupported or unnecessary, the recent theories respecting combinations and equivalencies, and the new system of names it has been proposed to introduce, it is also true that some at least of the principles referred to, as well as in some instances the claims to their origination, are still in question, and must await the decision of the future. Still, so large a proportion of the leading chemists of the world have taken part in developing the new views, or have already given assent to them, that we can no longer doubt their ultimate practical acceptance (subject to such extensions or modification as further research shall introduce), as the basis and doctrines of the science, in the new form in which it is to pass from the present to future times. Recognizing both the changes already accomplished, and the necessity for continued labors in the same direction, Professor Miller, in his opening address before the chemical section of the British Association, 1865, and in connection with a reference to certain researches in organic chemistry, said:

"In these and kindred investigations, the necessity for the introduction of fixed principles of nomenclature for regulating the construction of names for the recently discovered compounds has been sensibly felt; and indeed the changes in notation rendered necessary by the alteration in the values assigned to the atomic weights of many of the chemical elements have rendered a general revision of the system of chemical nomenclature a matter of pressing importance."

It is not surprising that, in the application of the new views of chemical combination, some outstanding and apparently irreconcilable facts are yet to be met with. But, admitting this, it is still safe to say that the period under consideration has effected the growth of a chemical philosophy which is largely new;

that it has established new conceptions of the molecular constitution of bodies, both elementary and compound; that it has thus necessitated new ideas of chemical equivalency and reactions, and a new scheme of symbolic notation; while, recently, it has witnessed the attempt to replace the imperfect system of names for compound bodies hitherto in use, by one that, at least both flexible and improvable, may yet be developed into a precision and completeness adequate to the constantly growing requirements of the case.

Basis of the Old and of the New Notation.—From the time of the promulgation by Dalton, during the first few years of the century, of his discoveries respecting the combination of bodies in definite and fixed equivalents by weight, down quite or nearly to the present, the general theory of chemical changes or reactions, as held by a large body of chemists and adopted in text-books on the subject, and of course also the notation employed to represent the products of such reactions, have been essentially such as grew out of or harmonized with those views of the distinguished philosopher named. Strange to say, however, within a very few years of the publication of Dalton's views (as early, indeed, as 1808), Gay-Lussac made known another class of facts respecting at least those bodies existing or obtainable in the æriform state; and facts which, after the lapse of a full half-century, are now at length only just admitted to their due place and force in connection with the theory of chemical reactions and of the constitution of elementary and compound bodies. Illustrations of the application of Dalton's primary law, but without reference to the combining volumes in the case, are seen in the determination, by the most recent and accurate experiments, of the equivalents or combining weights of the elements *hydrogen, chlorine, oxygen, nitrogen, and carbon*, as respectively 1, 35.5, 8, 14, and 6; the ultimate atoms of these bodies being supposed also to have weights corresponding to the numbers so ascertained. Now, Gay-Lussac found that—temperature and pressure remaining the same—elements in the æriform state also combine invariably in certain simple relations by volume, the volumes of the products furthermore bearing some simple ratio to the sum of volumes of the components. Thus, 2 vols. H. combine with 1 vol. O., resulting in 2 vols. water-vapor; 2 vols. N. with 1 vol. O. form 2 vols. nitrous oxide; 1 vol. N. with 1 vol. O. forms 2 vols. nitric oxide; 3 vols. H. with 1 vol. N. form 2 vols. ammonia; 1 vol. H. with 1 vol. Cl. forms 2 vols. chlorhydric acid gas, etc.

This principle of combination by volumes, until recently admitted into the text-books of the science rather in the manner of an incidental circumstance, has at length, as already implied, come to be seen as of coordinate importance, in the determining of combining-ratios and the constitution of compound bodies, with the more familiar principle of equivalents

by weight. The spirit, then, of the chemical theory now apparently being superseded, was essentially that of recognizing *ponderal* equivalencies only, as found to exist between bodies elementary and compound. But it will be seen, as we proceed, that the modern chemical theory has its basis in the conjoint admission and determination of both *ponderal* and *volumetric* combining-ratios; while, as scarcely less essential, it incorporates at the same time two other leading ideas recently developed—that of *substitutions*, or replacements, of certain elements or groups in compound bodies; and that of definite molecular *types*, few in number, under which all elementary and all compound bodies would appear naturally to fall.

Determination of Weight and Volume Ratios.—It will be proper here to premise so much of chemical theory as to intimate the principles which have been, down to the present time, gradually matured, for determining the *weight* and *volume ratios* in which elementary (and of course also, compound) bodies enter into combination. Obviously, the relative combining weights can usually be determined with comparative ease; and the volumes also, whenever the bodies under examination are such as have naturally, or can be brought into, the gaseous form, at temperatures within which the experiments can conveniently be carried on. In the mode in which the modern chemical philosophy regards the constitution of elementary and compound bodies, and attempts the determination of their combining weights and volumes, an indispensable part is played by the hypothesis early advanced by Ampère, namely, that of all bodies in the gaseous state (pressure and temperature being the same) equal volumes contain an equal number of atoms, or of molecules; and to the application of this assumed principle, as yet, but a small number of apparent exceptions have been met with.

Let it for the present be granted, that in volumetric determinations it is the 2-atom or double volume which should be dealt with, and the following statement, from Hofmann's *Modern Chemistry*, will serve clearly to indicate the general rule of both weight and volume determinations:

"It is by first obtaining the gaseous or volatile compound formed by an element, either with hydrogen itself, or, failing this, with some element bearing thereto known weight and volume ratios, and by then ascertaining its *vapor-density* and *composition*, so as to learn how much of the element under investigation exists in the dililral [double] volume of such compound, that the atom-weights of the elements, whether volatile or fixed, can be most safely and certainly determined."

In a small proportion of instances, in which these usual modes of proceeding are impracticable, or give uncertain results, certain analogies traceable between different classes of compounds, or those relations constituting groups among the elements themselves, may be brought

to the aid of the chemist; and also certain physical principles, if applicable to the bodies in question. Among the latter, is the law of Dulong and Petit, to which but few exceptions (O, Si, and Bo, at least) appear to remain, viz., that the products of the atomic weights of the elements into their specific heats, give nearly a constant quantity—a law from which, in connection with Ampère's hypothesis, Regnault (1849) deduced the principle of thermic proportional numbers, or *thermal equivalents*, of the elements. Other principles of the like sort and value, especially in case of compound bodies, are that afforded in the law of *homologous series*, as those of the *alcohols*, *ethers*, *hydrocarbons*, etc., with certain relations, as the regular gradation of boiling-points, pertaining to them; as well as also the principle of *isomorphism*, or similarity of crystalline forms, etc.

Glance at the Rise of the Type Theory.—M. Auguste Laurent, November, 1846, first distinctly intimated the idea of *types* among compound bodies. Thus, he considered alcohol, and also certain hydrated oxides, as comparable with water—an atom of hydrogen being in the former replaced by one of ethyle (C_2H_5), and in the latter by one of a metal: thus, calling water H_2O ,—

$H.HO.$	$(O_2H_4).HO.$	$K.HO.$
Water.	Alcohol.	Hydrate of Potash.

Professor T. Sterry Hunt, a young American chemist, began (1848-'50) the expansion of this idea to its consequences, and toward the full breadth of its applications; while, later, through the labors and writings of Williamson, Gerhardt, Wurtz, Hofmann, Odling, and others, this work has been well-nigh completed; so that the doctrine of typical forms among compound bodies, and of a natural grouping or classification of bodies under such types, has become developed into a system, based on true scientific grounds, and warranted especially by the light it throws on cases of substitution, on chemical reactions generally, and on the results to be anticipated in the way of experiment, in case of given compound bodies. The history and details of the type theory in chemistry may possibly be given in a future volume: at present, it must suffice barely to indicate the main results reached.

The new theory admits generally a distinction between the *atom* (equivalent, or combining proportion) of any body, and the *molecule* (definite aggregation of atoms), or form under which the same body exists in the free state. It regards the molecules of most simple, and of many compound bodies, as composed respectively of two atoms (Ampère); so that free chlorine is $ClCl$, or *chloride of chlorine*, etc. Under it, four leading types have been determined, representing respectively 1-, 2-, 3-, and 4-atom combinations of certain elements or compounds with the single atom of certain others; those types being the following:

HCl	H_2O	H_2N	H_2C
Chlorhydric acid.	Water.	Ammonia.	Methane-gas.

Owing to the fact of the successively increas-

ing condensation of volume, with increase in the number of hydrogen atoms—the product-volume in all the above cases being that of a single gaseous molecule=two atoms, the types after the first are called “condensed” (and “derived” also); while types still more condensed, and also “mixed” types, are admitted, to embrace peculiar forms of chemical constitution.

Weight and Volume of Atoms, and of Molecules.—It is quite impossible, within the limited space here allowed, to present in full either the important facts in the growth of the modern chemical philosophy, or the system of weight and volume determinations, atomic and molecular, and the notation corresponding, which find their basis in it. An attempt will, however, be made to give a general outline of the latter subjects, or at the least so far as to embrace the principles most essential to an understanding of them.

Up to a very recent period, the works of chemistry have, in the main, proceeded substantially on the assumption that the volume of hydrogen combined, in forming water, with oxygen, was to be taken as the *unit-volume*, or at least as representing (if the volumes of oxygen and hydrogen in the case were subdivided an equal number of times, and until the single atom of the former was reached) a single atom of hydrogen. In accordance with this view, the atomic weight of hydrogen being taken as 1, those of O, S, C, and Ca, respectively, would be 8, 16, 6, and 20; while the equivalents of the other elements would, of course, be made to accord with the same assumption. But the *half* of the hydrogen volume in water is the quantity which combines with a like volume of chlorine to form chlorhydric acid gas, and is the proportion also which directly combines with many other elements; while, besides this, other facts also go to show that this half of the volume of hydrogen in one unit-volume (compound) of water, is itself the true *unit-volume* for the elements, including not only hydrogen, oxygen, chlorine, etc., but in fact all, save four or five exceptions yet to be named.

Now, admitting the conclusion thus arrived at, many of the elements, as chlorine, iodine, nitrogen, potassium, etc., which like hydrogen combine with oxygen and elements of its class in the lowest usual proportion in double volumes, still retain their previously determined atomic weights unchanged; while of oxygen, sulphur, carbon, and calcium, above referred to, and of certain other elements, in consequence of the fact that their unit-volume (gaseous or volatilized, or as having analogies with other bodies which may be so) must be compared with two unit-volumes of hydrogen and bodies of its class, the previously determined atomic weights require now to be doubled; thus, O, S, C, and Ca are now, respectively, 16, 32, 12, and 40. Berzelius had crossed or *barred* the symbols of elements which he supposed to combine in *two*

atoms each; but more recently the *bar* has been turned to the new use of marking the symbols of elements whose atom-weight, calling the hydrogen in water 2 atoms, should be doubled. Williamson and Hofmann, however, have finally dropped the bar, employing the bare symbols as before, but now to indicate the new or double equivalents, in cases in which such have been determined.

By the atom of an elementary body is to be understood the smallest proportional weight of the latter which is capable of entering into or existing in chemical combination. It has already been intimated that, calling the ordinary elementary atom one volume, a body in the free state, and whether simple or compound, appears to exist as a collection of molecules, each consisting (as the rule) of two atoms of the given kind. The molecule of a body may, in general, be defined as the smallest proportional weight of it capable of existing in the free or uncombined state. Molecules generally, then, equal in volume two atoms each. Hofmann takes the cubic *litre* (equal to 1 cubic decimetre, or $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of a cubic metre) as his standard unit-volume; and, as his unit of actual weights, the weight of this volume of hydrogen at 0° C. of temperature and 760 mm. pressure; while, for this weight, which equals 0.0896 gramme, he has proposed the name of *crith* ($\kappa\rho\iota\theta\acute{\iota}$, a barley-corn). He accordingly terms the usual atom-volume *monolital*, and the usual molecule-volume *dilitral*.

Exceptions to the rule just implied are, on one side, P and As, which combine in half the usual atom-volume, or are *hemi-lital*; and on the other Hg and Cd (to which, also, some authors add Zn), which combine in double the usual atom-volume, or are *dilitral*; so that, in these latter, the atom equals in volume the molecule. Exceptions to the general rule of product-volumes, or molecules of compound bodies, appear to exist also in certain instances; as in case of *perchloride of phosphorus*, *chloride of ammonium*, *monohydrated sulphuric acid*, and a few other bodies, the molecules of which seem to represent 4 volumes, in place of 2.

Analysis of the four Leading Types.—Observing, now, the combining proportions, both by volume and weight, in the four leading types, the following interesting results are obtained:

Atoms,.....	H+Cl	$\frac{H}{H}$	+O	$\frac{H}{H}$	+N	$\frac{H}{H}$	+C.	$\frac{H}{H}$
Proportions by weight, 1+35.5	$\frac{1}{1}$	+16	$\frac{1}{1}$	+14	$\frac{1}{1}$	+12.	$\frac{1}{1}$	
Weights of compound molecules,.....	86.5	18	17	16.				
Proportions by volume,.....	1+1	$\frac{1}{1}$	+1	$\frac{1}{1}$	+1	$\frac{1}{1}$	+1.	$\frac{1}{1}$
Sums of volumes,.....	2	2	4	2	2			
Volume of product,...	2	2	2	2	2			

Here it is seen that the product-volumes of

Table of Elements, and Chemical Values.

NAMES OF ELEMENTS.	Symbol and Quantivalence.	Atomic Weight	Volume of atom, that of H = 1.	No. of atoms in the free mole- cule.
Aluminium	Al ³	27.5
Antimony	Sb ³	122
Arsenic	As ³	75	$\frac{1}{2}$	4
Barium	Ba ²	137
Beryllium	Be ²	14
Bismuth	Bi ³	208
Bromine	Br ¹	80	1	2
Boron	Bo ³	11
Cadmium	Cd ²	112	2	1
Cæsium	Cs ¹	133
Calcium	Ca ²	40
Carbon	C ⁴	12
Cerium	Ce ³	92
Chlorine	Cl ¹	35.5	1	2
Chromium	Cr ³	52.5
Cobalt	Co ³	58.8
Copper	Cu ²	63.5
Didymium	Di ³	96
Fluorine	F ¹	19
Gold	Au ³	196.7
HYDROGEN	H ¹	1	1	2
Iridium	Ir ⁴	198
Iodine	I ¹	127	1	2
Iron	Fe ³	56
Lanthanum	La ³	92
Lead	Pb ²	207
Lithium	Li ¹	7
Magnesium	Mg ²	24
Manganese	Mn ³	55
Mercury	Hg ²	200	2	1
Molybdenum	Mo ⁶	92
Nickel	Ni ³	58.8
Niobium	Nb ⁴	97.6
Nitrogen	N ³	14	1	2
Osmium	Os ⁴	199
Oxygen	O ²	16	1	2
Palladium	Pd ³	106.5
Phosphorus	P ³	31	$\frac{1}{2}$	4
Platinum	Pt ⁴	197.4
Potassium	K ¹	39
Rhodium	Rh ³	104
Rubidium	Rb ¹	85.5
Ruthenium	Ru ⁴	104
Selenium	Se ³	79	1	2
Silver	Ag ¹	108
Silicon	Si ²	28.5
Sodium	Na ¹	23
Strontium	Sr ²	87.5
Sulphur	S ²	32	1	2
Tantalum	Ta ⁴	187.5
Tellurium	Te ³	128
Thallium	Tl ¹	204
Thorium	Th ⁴	231.5
Tin	Sn ⁴	118
Titanium	Ti ⁴	50
Tungsten	W ⁶	184
Uranium	U ³	120
Vanadium	V ⁵	187
Yttrium	Y ³	68
Zinc	Zn ²	65
Zirconium	Zr ⁴	90

Of course, the atomic volume and molecular

constitution of many elements in respect to which these particulars are not given in the table, are regarded as being known, with greater or less certainty, being inferred in accordance with principles already indicated. Further, some variation still exists between different authors in regard to the atomic weights and quantivalent coefficients to be assigned to certain of the elements. Odling, for example, agreeing in the other instances with the values above, places lead and palladium among tetrads, and thallium among triads; while Strecker regards the last-named element as presenting analogies with both monatomic and triatomic elements, and raises a question as to the invariableness of the atomicities.

It may here be remarked, that the symbols employed throughout this article have the equivalential (atomic-weight) values given in the table above, so far, at least, as the doubling of the equivalents of certain elements—O, S, O., etc.—is concerned.

Nomenclature.—Besides the general interest recently taken in the theory of chemical combination and equivalents, much attention has during a very few years past been given to the special subject of the nomenclature to be employed in case of compound bodies, and for the present at least, of those particularly of an inorganic character.

Professor A. W. Williamson delivered before the London Chemical Society, December 15, 1864, a short discourse on the subjects of "Chemical Nomenclature and Notation;" and, a large part of that and of a succeeding evening having been devoted to discussion of the views advanced, the result was a very general approval, in the main, of their purport, by the distinguished chemists present. Of course, as the title of the leading discourse indicates, principles relating to the symbolic expression of compounds, as well as to their naming, were considered. Some of the more important views advanced on the occasions mentioned, as well as in certain published articles on the same subjects, will be embodied in this place, but without following the precise order of their presentation.

Adopting, as now usual, the volume of 16 parts by weight of oxygen as the relative unit-volume of bodies in gaseous form, Professor Williamson had, for his absolute measures of both volume and weight, fixed on units different from those proposed by Hofmann. As the standard volume, he takes 11.19 (for most practical purposes, say 11.2) litres, selecting this for the reason that, measured in oxygen gas at 0°C. and 760 mm. pressure, the weight obtained is just 16 grammes. The selection of this number, which corresponds with the new equivalent weight of oxygen, renders comparatively easy, when the molecular weights of the latter are once known, all calculations relative to the actual weights and volumes of gaseous and volatilized bodies.

The lecturer's principal purpose, however, was to suggest the adoption in scientific

treatises and usage of a new set of names for a large class of chemical compounds—perhaps to be ultimately extended to all compounds, organic as well as inorganic—and names which, it appears, were regarded as obviating some of the difficulties and inconsistencies of the nomenclature hitherto in use, at least in text-books in the English language. The system of names proposed is, in fact, not wholly new, being in good degree the same with that employed in Gmelin's Hand-Book, and to some extent also by Berzelius and other continental chemists. Professor Williamson admitted the hopelessness of changing the common usage as to the commercial names of various substances, as *soda*, *arsenic*, etc.; but he considered a scientific system of nomenclature as unsuited to ordinary commercial use. Professor Odling called attention to the impropriety of the use of the word *of*, in the existing nomenclature, and which the new system would escape: thus, to call the compound ClO an *oxide of chlorine*, or a *chloride of oxygen*, does not in either case truly express the relation which in it the elements bear to each other.

The following examples will illustrate both the new notation, and the proposed new nomenclature. Thus, among elements and compound radicals:

H	— 1,	represents an atom of hydrogen.
O	— 16,	“ “ “ oxygen.
N	— 14,	“ “ “ nitrogen.
C	— 12,	“ “ “ carbon.
Hg	— 200,	“ “ “ mercury.
CO	— 28,	“ “ “ carbonic oxide.
SO ₂	— 64,	“ “ “ sulphurous acid.
NH ₃	— 18,	“ “ “ ammonium.
CH ₄	— 16,	“ “ “ methyle.
CN	— 26,	“ “ “ cyanogen.
C ₂ H ₄	— 28,	“ “ “ ethylene.

Free molecules of elements, as of Cl, O, N, P, As, Hg, Cd, Zn, are thus represented:

Cl, O, N, P, As, Hg, Cd, Zn;
and those of compound radicals thus:

(CH₃)₃, (CN)₃, (NH₃)₃, NH₃, C₂H₄.

The following examples illustrate symbols of the molecules of bases, and the proposed names:

H ₂ O	, hydric oxide (water);
K ₂ O	, potassic oxide (potash);
Cu ₂ O	, cuprous oxide;
CuO	, cupric oxide;
(NH ₃) ₃ O	, ammoniac oxide;
Bi ₂ O ₃	, bismuthic oxide;
Fe ₂ O ₃	, ferric oxide;
K ₂ S	, potassic sulphide;
(C ₂ H ₅) ₂ O	, ethylic oxide (ether);
C ₂ H ₄ O	, ethylenic oxide;

the following, in like manner, in case of molecules of acids:

N ₂ O ₃	, nitrous acid;
N ₂ O ₅	, nitric acid;
I ₂ O ₅	, iodic acid;
I ₂ O ₇	, periodic acid;
CO ₂	, carbonic acid;
SiO ₂	, silicic acid (silica);
Bo ₂ O ₃	, boric acid;
(C ₂ H ₃ O ₂) ₂ O	, acetic acid;
C ₆ H ₈ O ₄	, succinic acid;

and finally, these, in case of the molecules of salts:

HNO ₃	, hydric nitrate (monohydrated nitric acid);
Fe(NO ₃) ₂	, ferrous nitrate;
Fe ₂ (NO ₃) ₆	, ferric nitrate;
Fe ₂ (SO ₄) ₃	, ferric sulphate;
H ₂ SO ₄	, hydric sulphate (monohydrated sulphuric acid);
HKSO ₄	, hydro-potassic sulphate;
H ₃ PO ₄	, hydric phosphate (trihydrated phosphoric acid);
Al ₂ Cl ₆	, aluminic chloride;
HCl	, hydric chloride (chlorhydric acid);
FeCl ₂	, ferrous chloride;
PtCl ₄	, platinic chloride.

The names assigned to compound bodies in the author's recent work, *Chemistry for Students*, are substantially in accordance with the examples here given. Prof. W. A. Miller and Mr. Newlands, while approving in substance the proposed nomenclature, both insist on the importance, with a view to definiteness and fixedness in the employment of the names for given compounds, not less than to accuracy in their use as analytic and suggestive of chemical composition, of incorporating with them as required the familiar prefixes, *proto*, *di* or *bi*, *tri*, *tetra*, *sesqui*, etc.; and the latter especially would guard against assigning to compounds analogous in composition differently formed names.

In the discussions above referred to, Professors Graham, Odling, Brodie, Hofmann, Miller, Frankland, and others took part. Prof. Brodie expressed the opinion that chemistry had reached a stage in which names of the now usual forms may be abolished altogether, the compounds being written or described merely by the symbols which make up their formulae; but Prof. Frankland insisted that there must still be, as now, the two systems of expressions.

Prof. Williamson condemned Gerhardt's application of the term *acid* to the hydrated acids. He would restrict the term to what are now called the *anhydrous acids*, or *anhydrides*, calling the bare compound SO₃ sulphuric acid, etc.; while bodies of the former class he would regard as *hydrogen salts* (see examples of salts, above). These views, however, did not meet with general approval. Prof. Miller has proposed to substitute for the awkward expression *anhydride*, the term *oxyl*.

Finally, it may be remarked that the period of transition in chemical theory and nomenclature is not altogether passed. And at the best, this transitional period has been, and while it lasts must be, one of perplexity to both learners and instructors. Hofmann states that he had found such phrases as “old style,” “new style,” “newest style,” “little equivalents,” “big equivalents,” etc., coming into use in instruction. The difficulties of such a transition, however, are held to be trifling in comparison with the advantages to be attained through its consummation; among these being the securing in a higher degree than before of simplicity and precision, both in theory and statement, with greater practical utility, and an increased value in the way of suggestiveness in the new

symbols, if not also in the new names, to be employed.

Sources of Information.—In the preparation of this article, besides the account of the lecture and discussions above referred to (*Chem. News*, December 24, 1864, and January 27, 1865), the lecture of Prof. Hofmann in the same journal (February 10, 1865), and certain articles in the *Philos. Magazine*, 1864-'65, recourse has been chiefly had for facts and illustrations—the language of such authorities being also in certain parts adopted—to the following sources: Two series of papers by Prof. Adolphe Wurtz, entitled, "An Introduction to Chemical Philosophy, according to the Modern Theories," and appearing in the *Chemical News*—the first, January 27 to June 16, 1865, and the second, January 19 to February 23, 1866; Prof. T. S. Hunt's paper, "On the Theory of Types in Chemistry" (*Chem. News*, March 17-24, 1865, reprinted from the *American Jour. of Science*, March, 1861); Dr. O. M. Wetherill's paper in the Smithsonian Report, 1863, entitled, "A Brief Sketch of the Modern Theory of Chemical Types;" and Prof. A. W. Hofmann's *Introduction to Modern Chemistry*, etc., London, 1865.

NORTH CAROLINA. The civil aspect of affairs in North Carolina was unchanged at the commencement of the year. The authorities presented a bold and confident aspect, and were unremitting in their efforts to stimulate the people. "I trust and believe," said Governor Vance in a proclamation to the people, "that there will be little difference of opinion in North Carolina, as to the propriety of continued resistance. The great argument which will be brought forward to shake your honor, and intended to excite you to despair, will be that successful resistance is no longer possible. Some will tell you that we are already subdued; that the enemy outnumber us; that our fighting men are all slain; our resources all exhausted, and we might as well submit now. This, my countrymen, is false, and as frequently proceeds from a craven or a traitorous as from an honest but mistaken spirit." As an evidence of strength to carry on the war, although it equally proved an indisposition to continue hostilities, the Governor further said: "Over four hundred thousand names yet stand upon the muster-rolls of the Confederacy, to say nothing of the many thousands who shirk. Where are they? Thousands upon thousands, absent without leave, are lurking in the woods and swamps of the South; hundreds of thousands of bushels of grain now rot at the various depots of the South for want of transportation, and this transportation cannot be protected because these absent soldiers are not at the post of duty." After the advance of General Sherman from Savannah had commenced, the Governor found it necessary to appeal again to the people to contribute for the support of General Lee's forces, as the interruption of railroad communication greatly endangered their subsist-

ence. At this time he proposed that each one should set apart a certain portion of his stores to be delivered at intervals to the nearest commissary agent. The military operations, however, which are related elsewhere (*see ARMY OPERATIONS*), soon exhibited the Federal strength so overwhelming and irresistible as to convince the most reluctant that the hour of submission was near at hand. The fall of Wilmington, the arrival of Sherman at Goldsboro', the surrender of Lee, followed soon after by that of Johnston, extinguished both the power and the disposition of the State to make further resistance. For the preservation of order until the will of the military commanders should be made known, Governor Vance now issued the following proclamation:

STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA, EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, }
GREENSBORO', April 23, 1865.

Whereas, By the recent surrender of the principal armies of the Confederate States, further resistance to the forces of the United States has become vain, and would result in useless waste of blood; and,

Whereas, All the natural disorders attendant upon the disbanding of large armies are upon us, and the country is filled with numerous bands of citizens and soldiers disposed to do violence to persons and property:

Now, therefore, I, Zebulon D. Vance, Governor of the State of North Carolina, in the sincere hope of averting some of the many evils which threaten us, do issue this my proclamation, commanding all such persons to abstain from any and all acts of lawlessness; to avoid assembling together in crowds in all towns and cities, or doing any thing whatsoever calculated to cause excitement, and earnestly appealing to all good citizens who are now at home, to remain there, and to all soldiers of this State to retire quietly to their homes, and exert themselves in preserving order, should it become necessary for the protection of citizens. I also appeal to the good and true soldiers of North Carolina, whether they have been surrendered and paroled, or otherwise, to unite themselves together in sufficient numbers, in the various counties of the State, under the superintendence of the civil magistrates thereof, to elect or stay any bodies of lawless or unprincipled men who may be committing depredations upon the persons or property of peaceable citizens, assuring them that it will be no violation of the parole to do so; and I would assure my fellow-citizens, generally, that under God I will do all that may be in my power, to settle the government of the State, to restore the civil authority in her borders, and to further the great ends of peace, domestic tranquillity, and the general welfare of the people. Without their aid I am powerless to do any thing.

By the Governor,

M. McPHERSON, Private Secretary.

On the next day Gen. Schofield, then Federal commander in the State, announced in the following order the policy which he proposed to pursue:

General Orders No. 31.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF NORTH CAROLINA, }
ARMY OF THE OHIO, RALPH, N. C., April 29, 1865.

The Commanding General has great satisfaction in announcing to the army and people of North Carolina that hostilities within this State have definitely ceased; that for us war is ended, and it is hoped that peace will soon be restored throughout the country.

It is now the duty of all to cultivate friendly relations with the same zeal which has characterized our conduct of the war, that the blessings of union, peace, and material prosperity may be speedily restored to the entire country.

It is confidently believed and expected that the troops of the army and people of North Carolina will cordially unite in an honest endeavor to accomplish this great end.

All good and peaceable citizens will be protected and treated with kindness, while those who disturb the peace or violate the laws will be punished with the severity of martial law.

The troops will be distributed so as best to secure the interests of the United States Government, and protect the people until civil government can be established in harmony with the Constitution and laws of the United States.

The most perfect discipline and good conduct are enjoined upon all officers and soldiers, and cordial support upon all good citizens.

All who are peaceably disposed are invited to return to their homes, and to resume their industrial pursuits. Such as have been deprived of their animals and wagons by hostile armies will be temporarily supplied, as far as practicable, upon application to the nearest Provost Marshal, by loans of captured property in possession of the Quartermaster's Department. The needy will also be supplied for the time being with subsistence stores from the Commissary Department.

It will be left to the Judicial Department of the Government to punish those political leaders who are responsible for secession, rebellion, and civil war, with all its horrors. Between the Government of the United States and the people of North Carolina there is peace.

By command of Major-General SCHOFIELD.
J. A. CAMPBELL, Assistant Adjutant-General.

To decide the civil position of the negroes, he at the same time issued the following order:

General Orders No. 32.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY OF THE OHIO, }
RALEIGH, April 29, 1865. }

To remove a doubt which seems to exist in the minds of some of the people of North Carolina, it is hereby declared that by virtue of the proclamation of the President of the United States, dated January 1, 1863, all persons in this State heretofore held as slaves are now free, and that it is the duty of the army to maintain the freedom of such persons.

It is recommended to former masters of freedmen to employ them as hired servants, at reasonable wages. And it is recommended to freedmen that when allowed to do so they remain with their former masters, and labor faithfully so long as they shall be treated kindly and paid reasonable wages, or that they immediately seek employment elsewhere in the kind of work to which they are accustomed. It is not well for them to congregate about towns or military camps. They will not be supported in idleness.

By command of Major-General SCHOFIELD.
J. A. CAMPBELL, Assistant Adjutant-General.

The aspect of affairs in the State now changed almost instantaneously. It was apparent to every mind that North Carolina was destined to be, as she had been, a State of the Federal Union. The result was universally acquiesced in, and the mass of the people turned their thoughts to the pursuits of industry and peace. Public meetings were held in various counties of the State, at which resolutions expressing the views of the people were adopted. They generally expressed abhorrence of the assassination of the late President; requested the President to adopt measures as early as practicable for the restoration of civil law in the State; and accepted the abolition of slavery as a part of the accomplished situation of affairs.

General Schofield, by his position, was virtu-

ally Military Governor of the State, and would so continue until the authority at Washington, which alone was recognized as supreme in the State, commanded a change. He therefore issued a further order regulating the relations of the freedmen and whites, as follows:

General Orders No. 48.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF NORTH CAROLINA.

ARMY OF THE OHIO, RALEIGH, N. C., May 15, 1865. }

The following rules are published for the government of freedmen in North Carolina until the restoration of civil government in the State:

1. The common laws governing the domestic relations, such as those giving parents authority and control over their children, and guardians control over their wards, are in force. The parent's or guardian's authority and obligations take the place of those of the former master.

2. The former masters are constituted the guardians of minors, and of the aged and infirm, in the absence of parents or other near relatives capable of supporting them.

3. Young men and women, under twenty-one years of age, remain under the control of their parents or guardians until they become of age, thus aiding to support their parents and younger brothers and sisters.

4. The former masters of freedmen may not turn away the young or the infirm, nor refuse to give them food and shelter; nor may the able-bodied men or women go away from their homes, or live in idleness, and leave their parents, children, or young brothers or sisters to be supported by others.

5. Persons of age, who are free from any of the obligations referred to above, are at liberty to find new homes wherever they can obtain proper employment; but they will not be supported by the Government, nor by their former masters, unless they work.

6. It will be left to the employer and servant to agree upon the wages to be paid; but freedmen are advised that for the present season they ought to expect only moderate wages, and where their employers cannot pay them money, they ought to be contented with a fair share in the crops to be raised. They have gained their personal freedom. By industry and good conduct they may rise to independence and wealth.

7. All officers, soldiers, and citizens are requested to give publicity to these rules, and to instruct the freed people as to their new rights and obligations.

8. All officers of the army, and of the county police companies, are authorized and required to correct any violation of the above rules within their jurisdiction.

9. Each district commander will appoint a superintendent of freedmen (a commissioned officer), with such number of assistants (officers and non-commissioned officers) as may be necessary, whose duty it will be to take charge of all the freed people in his district who are without homes or proper employment. The superintendents will send back to their homes all who have left them in violation of the above rules, and will endeavor to find homes and suitable employment for all others. They will provide suitable camps or quarters for such as cannot be otherwise provided for, and attend to their discipline, police, subsistence, etc.

10. The superintendents will hear all complaints of guardians or wards, and report the facts to their district commanders, who are authorized to dissolve the existing relations of guardian and ward in any case which may seem to require it, and to direct the superintendent to otherwise provide for the wards, in accordance with the above rules.

By command of Maj.-Gen. SCHOFIELD.
J. A. CAMPBELL, Assistant Adjutant-General.

Public affairs continued under the control of

the military authorities until May 29th, when President Johnson issued a proclamation appointing William W. Holden Provisional Governor. This proclamation is similar to the one issued in the case of Alabama. (*See ALABAMA.*)

On June 12th Governor Holden issued a proclamation announcing his appointment, and stating that a convention would be held as early as practicable, the object before it, and the subsequent election of State and local officers, etc. He then urged the people with cheerfulness and confidence to resume their accustomed pursuits; invited all who had been refugees to return, assuring them of protection and encouragement in their exertions to improve their condition, and instructed the colored population in the duties proper to their new condition.

The acquiescence of the people in their altered position proceeded peacefully and rapidly, and on August 8th Provisional Governor Holden issued a proclamation for the election of delegates to a State Constitutional Convention. The persons who might be voters, the manner of election, etc., were ordered as follows:

In pursuance of power vested in me by Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, by his proclamation of May 29, 1865, appointing a Provisional Governor of North Carolina, under the fourth article of the Constitution of the United States, which guarantees to every State in the Union a republican form of government; and in order to enable the loyal people of said State to organize a State government, whereby justice may be established, domestic tranquillity restored, and loyal citizens protected in all their rights of life, liberty, and property; and in order, also, that said State may be reduced to its constitutional relations to the Federal Government, by presenting such a republican form of government as will entitle the State to the guaranty of the United States therefor, and its people to protection by the United States against invasion, insurrection, and domestic violence, I, William W. Holden, Provisional Governor, as aforesaid, do hereby proclaim that an election will be held in said State on Thursday, the 21st day of September, 1865, for a convention, to be composed of one hundred and twenty delegates.

The clerks and sheriffs of the respective counties will proceed at once to assemble the justices of the peace, a majority of whom will select from their number not less than six nor more than eighteen justices, men of intelligence, discretion, firmness, and approved loyalty, whose duty it shall be to administer to those who may be entitled to receive it, the oath contained in the President's amnesty proclamation of May 29, 1865, under such instructions as may be prescribed in the proclamation. The justices shall, at the same time, appoint inspectors of the elections at the various precincts in their respective counties, in accordance with the law in relation thereto—chapter 52 Revised Code of North Carolina. The elections for members of the convention shall be conducted in the same manner as elections for members of the House of Commons, in accordance with the provisions of chapter 52 Revised Code, so far as said provisions may be applicable; and the officers appointed to hold said elections, and to make returns thereof, shall be liable to the same penalties for failure to act or for neglect of duty as are prescribed in chapter 52 Revised Code.

No person will be allowed to vote who is not a voter qualified as prescribed by the Constitution and laws of the State in force immediately before the 20th

day of May, 1861, except that the payment of poll tax shall not be required.

All paroled soldiers of the army and navy of the pretended Confederate States, or of this State, and all paroled officers of the army and navy of the pretended Confederate States, or of this State, under and including the rank of colonel if of the army, and under and including the rank of lieutenant if of the navy, will be allowed to vote, provided they are not included in any of the fourteen excluded classes of the President's amnesty proclamation; and provided, further, that they are citizens of the State in accordance with the terms prescribed in the preceding paragraph.

No person will be allowed to vote who does not exhibit to the inspectors a copy of the amnesty oath, as contained in the President's proclamation of May 29, 1865, signed by himself and certified by at least two justices of the peace.

The sheriff of the respective counties shall furnish, as soon as practicable, certificates of election to those persons who may have received the highest number of votes as members of the convention; and the sheriffs shall also immediately send to the office of the Secretary of State, Raleigh, a statement of the vote in their respective counties for the members aforesaid, and also a statement of said vote, sealed up, directed to the President of the convention, Raleigh, to be laid before the convention.

The members of the convention thus chosen will assemble in the city of Raleigh, on Monday, the 2d day of October, 1865.

The attention of justices appointed to administer the amnesty oath is especially directed to the fourteen excluded classes of the President's amnesty proclamation of May 29, 1865.

Under the first exception are included all persons who have been civil or diplomatic officers or agents of the pretended Confederate Government, either within or without the territorial limits of the United States.

Under the seventh exception are included all officers, agents, or private citizens who have been absent from the United States for the purpose of aiding the rebellion.

Under the thirteenth exception are included all who, during the rebellion, have held any office or agency under the State or pretended Confederate Government, or have in any way voluntarily joined in the rebellion, as, for example, for entering or marching with armed forces hostile to the United States; by sending or furnishing money, provisions, or arms to persons engaged in the rebellion, save in cases where money or provisions were furnished from the promptings of charity or humanity; by acting with assemblages of persons, whether organized or unorganized, hostile to the United States; or in any other way giving voluntary aid, assistance, or encouragement to the rebellion, and whose taxable property on the 29th day of May, 1865, exceeded in value the sum of twenty thousand dollars.

The other exceptions are so plain as not to require explanation.

No certificate will be granted by the justices to any person who is included in any of the excluded classes, unless on exhibition by the party of his pardon for his offence from the President.

The justices appointed to administer the amnesty oath and to furnish certificates of the same, which shall be evidence of loyalty, are especially instructed to be vigilant and faithful. While it will not be their duty to attempt to pry into the hearts and consciences of men, they will, nevertheless, admonish those who may apply to take the oath, that it must be taken and subscribed to in good faith, with an honest intention on their part to keep it, without secret purpose or mental reservation upon any occasion or at any time to commit any act in violation of said oath; and they will warn them that if the oath is not thus taken and kept, the pardon offered them

by the President will be void, and they will remain subject to trial under the law for perjury and treason.

The justices, clerks, and sheriffs, whose duty it is to provide for administering the oath and to conduct the elections, are enjoined to use every practicable means to enable every citizen to take the oath who may desire and be entitled to do so. And the inspectors are enjoined to inspect and examine fairly and truly, to decide in every case in accordance with the law and with the instructions they have received from this office, and to make prompt and correct returns of the number of votes and for whom cast at their respective precincts.

Done at our city of Raleigh, the 8th day of August, 1865, and in the year of the independence of the United States the eighty-ninth.

WILLIAM W. HOLDEN, Provisional Governor.

The delay of the Governor in issuing this proclamation and fixing the period for the election, was in order to afford time to the people to take the amnesty oath, to enrol their names and obtain the certificates required. In the discharge of his duties he was sustained by Maj.-Gen. Schofield, who issued general orders requiring all officers and men to give a cordial support to the Governor and the persons appointed to office by him. At the same time the civil officers were authorized to call upon the nearest military commanders for necessary aid in the execution of their legal duties. The original proclamation of President Johnson was well received by the people of the State. They were divided into three classes: those who were Unionists, in opposition to the Confederacy; those who were Conservatives, under the Confederacy; and the Secessionists. The latter were destitute of all political power, and their influence was in a great measure destroyed by the moderation of the President's proclamation and the abstinence of all interference with the claim of suffrage for the negroes.

On the 12th of September the election for delegates to the State Convention was held, and that body assembled at Raleigh on October 2d, and organized by the election of Edwin G. Reade, an ex-member of the Thirty-fifth Congress, as President. All the counties of the State except three were found to be fully represented, and all the members present took the oath to support the Constitution of the United States. The President, on taking his seat, spoke as follows:

Gentlemen of the Convention: As the representatives of the people of North Carolina, we are assembled at a time of great perplexity to reorganize the government, which has been disturbed by a protracted and disastrous war. It is gratifying to know that a virtuous and intelligent people have chosen a body of men distinguished for abilities, of much experience, and of exalted patriotism, fully equal to the grave matters which are intrusted to them. As the interests of our constituents are the same, it is to be hoped that there will be little conflict of opinions among us, and that frank speech and courteous manners will distinguish our intercourse, so that he who has been called to preside over our deliberations will find but little inconvenience from his lack of experience, and will be enabled to use the position with which he has been honored, as he earnestly desires to do, for its legitimate objects only. Fellow-citizens, we are going

home. Let painful reflections upon our late separation and pleasant memories of our early union quicken our footsteps toward the old mansion, that we may grasp hard again the hand of friendship which stands at the door, and, sheltered by the old homestead which was built upon a rock and has weathered the storm, enjoy together the long, bright future which awaits us. With the guidance of Infinite Wisdom and the care of a merciful Providence, which I earnestly invoke for the Convention and for each individual member, I invite you to the calm consideration and wise solution of the important questions which are to result in the peace, prosperity, and happiness of ourselves, and in the prosperity, strength, and grandeur of our nation.

The Provisional Governor, in a brief message to the Convention, declared their duties to be too plain to require any suggestions from him, and said:

North Carolina attempted, in May, 1861, to separate herself from the Federal Union. The attempt involved her, with other slaveholding States, in a protracted and disastrous war, the result of which was a vast expenditure of blood and treasure on her part, and the practical abolition of domestic slavery. She entered into the rebellion a slaveholding State, and she emerged from it a non-slaveholding State. In other respects, so far as her existence as a State and her rights as a State are concerned, she has undergone no change. The President of the United States wisely determined that her existence as a State should not be extinguished, but that, under that clause of the Federal Constitution which "guarantees to every State in the Union a republican form of government," her people, in convention assembled, might so alter and amend their constitution and adopt such measures as would restore the State to her constitutional relations to the Federal Government, and thus secure once more to the people thereof the immeasurable benefits and blessings of the Union. Allow me to congratulate you, gentlemen, upon the favorable circumstances which surround you, while engaged in this great work of restoring the State to her former and natural position.

It was resolved by the Convention that a committee of five be appointed to revise the Constitution of the State; that a committee of eleven be appointed to report what action was necessary in regard to the secession ordinance of 20th May, 1861; that a committee of eleven be appointed to report an ordinance for the abolition of slavery; that a committee of two from each Congressional district, as they existed, be appointed to divide the State into seven Congressional districts; that a committee of eleven be appointed to report what acts of the Convention, Legislature, and the courts, since May 20, 1861, shall be declared to be in force; that a committee of eleven be appointed to report what steps were necessary to obtain a general amnesty for participation in the late war.

The committees were accordingly appointed, and on the 4th the Committee on Secession reported an ordinance which, after some debate, was adopted in the following form:

Be it ordained by the delegates of the people of North Carolina, in Convention assembled, and it is hereby declared and ordained, That the ordinance of the Convention of the State of North Carolina, ratified on the 21st day of November, 1789, which adopted and ratified the Constitution of the United States

and also all acts and parts of acts of the General Assembly ratifying and adopting amendments to the said Constitution, are now, and at all times since the adoption and ratification thereof have been, in full force and effect, notwithstanding the supposed ordinance of the 20th of May, 1861, declaring the same to be repealed, rescinded, and abrogated; and the said supposed ordinance is now, and at all times hath been, null and void.

The vote of the Convention was unanimous on this ordinance.

On the 5th the Committee on the Abolition of Slavery reported the following ordinance:

Be it declared and ordained by the delegates of the people of the State of North Carolina, in Convention assembled, and it is hereby ordained, That slavery and involuntary servitude otherwise than for crimes whereof the parties shall have been duly convicted, shall be, and is hereby, forever prohibited within the State.

It was passed on the subsequent day by a unanimous vote of the Convention.

An election for members of Congress, Governor, and State Legislature, was ordered to be held on the second Thursday in November. The ordinance provided that no one should be eligible to office or qualified to vote who, being free in all respects, had not, before May 27th, taken and subscribed the oath of amnesty prescribed in the proclamation of President Lincoln with the purpose to suppress the insurrection, and restore the authority of the United States, and thenceforward had observed the same, or who had taken the oath prescribed in President Johnson's proclamation of May 29, 1865, or who was excepted from the amnesty.

An ordinance was also adopted dividing the State into seven Congressional districts, with a population as follows: 1st district, 118,000; 2d, 125,000; 3d, 119,000; 4th, 128,000; 5th 127,000; 6th, 124,000; 7th, 126,000.

An ordinance was presented in the Convention, which provided for repealing or reducing the State debt to its gold value, and paying that which existed before the war, and that which had been contracted during the war. The question created much discussion, but the action of the Convention was finally determined by the following despatch from President Johnson:

WASHINGTON CITY, October 18, 1865.

W. W. Holden, Provisional Governor:

Every dollar of the State debt created to aid the rebellion against the United States should be repudiated, finally and forever. The great mass of the people should not be taxed to pay a debt to aid in carrying on a rebellion which they, in fact, if left to themselves, were opposed to. Let those who have given their means for the obligations of the State look to that power they tried to establish in violation of law, constitution, and will of the people. They must meet their fate. It is their misfortune, and cannot be recognized by the people of any State professing themselves loyal to the Government of the United States and in the Union.

I repeat, that the loyal people of North Carolina should be exonerated from the payment of every dollar of indebtedness created to aid in carrying on the rebellion. I trust and hope that the people of North Carolina will wash their hands of every thing that partakes in the slightest degree of the rebellion, which has been so recently crushed by the strong

arm of the Government, in carrying out the obligations imposed by the Constitution of the Union.

ANDREW JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

The payment of the debt contracted during the war was not only repudiated, but an ordinance was adopted prohibiting any future Legislature from assuming or paying any debt contracted directly or indirectly for the prosecution of the war against the United States.

It was also provided by the Convention that the ordinance declaring null and void the ordinance of secession passed May 20, 1861, and the ordinance prohibiting slavery in the State, should be submitted to the people for ratification or rejection, at the time when the election for State officers was held.

The subject of legislation relative to the freedmen, and the measures necessary to conform the laws of the State to the abolition of slavery, were referred to the Legislature, and a commission created to report a code to that body. The same reference was given to an address of a colored convention asking that equal rights should be granted to them.

An ordinance was also passed directing the sheriffs and boards of magistrates to enroll and organize as many military companies in their respective districts as might be necessary to preserve law and order therein, and to act as an armed police until the regular organization of the State militia. The following extract from the debate on this ordinance explains the social position of the people at this time:

Mr. Ferebee, in advocating the bill, said that in his county the white citizens had all been deprived of arms, while the negroes were almost all of them armed by some means or another. It was a fact that nearly every negro was supplied with arms, and there was a very general feeling of insecurity on the part of the whites. There had been rumors of anticipated trouble in some of the counties at the commencement of next year. He did not know how well grounded the fears might be, but there certainly was much apprehension among the white citizens, especially among the female portion, of coming danger.

Gen. Dockery confirmed the statement made by Col. Ferebee, and stated that in his county the white residents had been disarmed, and were at present almost destitute of means to protect themselves against robbery and outrage. He had consulted with the General in command of this department, and found that he had no objection to the raising of such a police force as was contemplated by the bill. He had stated that no force taking the shape of an army could be allowed to be raised except under his command, as there could be but one head to the military in the State. But he did not object to the establishment of an armed police.

Mr. Barrow thought that the Convention was overlooking the facts of their present situation. They were still under martial law, and he did not see what authority any person would have to raise the contemplated armed force, unless they do it under the authority and with the cooperation of the officer in command of the district. In his own county no danger was apprehended, and a police was in existence, under the charge of a Federal officer. He was unwilling to approve of any act that would seem to come in conflict with the Federal authorities.

Gen. Dockery directed the recollection of the Convention to the action of Gov. Sharkey in Mississippi

in reestablishing the militia of that State, and to the fact that the President of the United States had approved and confirmed such action. He believed he would pursue the same course in relation to North Carolina should it become necessary to do so.

Judge Howard explained that the bill only provided for the raising of the contemplated police in counties where it was deemed necessary for the preservation of law and order, and that in case of any serious outbreak, it gave the command of the force to the United States officer. If Gen. Ruger abides by the opinions expressed by him to the committee, there was nothing in the ordinance which could come in conflict with his opinions or wishes.

Col. Ferebee read an extract from President Johnson's proclamation in relation to the Mississippi militia, wherein he says the people must be trusted with their own government, and if so trusted, he believed they would prove deserving of the confidence reposed in them.

A number of other ordinances of less general importance were adopted, when the Convention adjourned, to assemble again on the fourth Thursday in May, 1866.

After adjournment, the President and other members proceeded to Washington, on behalf of the Convention, to present their more important measures to President Johnson. On November 10th they appeared before the President, when Mr. Reade stated, among other things, that the first act of the Convention was to declare her uninterrupted connection with the Union, and that the ordinance of May, 1861, by which she was attempted to be severed, was null and void. This was done by a vote very nearly approaching unanimity, and thus the first issue in the late war was yielded. The next thing done was to prohibit slavery, and this was by a unanimous vote; and a committee of able lawyers was provided to prepare wholesome laws for the consideration of the Legislature; and thus the second issue in the late war was yielded. The Convention having yielded what was involved in the war, and being of the opinion that the State was, and always had been, in the Union, and that her relations had only been disturbed and not destroyed, respectfully asks the President to declare, on the part of the authorities of the United States, as the State has done on her part, that her governmental relations have been reconciled. The Convention instructed the Legislature to provide for the payment of the debts of the State; declared all debts contracted in aid of the rebellion to be illegal, and prohibited the payment of the same. Mr. Reade continued:

We have heard that, notwithstanding the State might yield, and as she understands it has yielded, all that was involved in the war, and notwithstanding our people were submissive, well disposed, and anxious for fraternal relations, her delegation in Congress would not be admitted unless they had qualifications not prescribed by the Constitution; that they would be required to take an oath which few men in the State can take, affirming not merely that they are right now, but that they have never been wrong. The exclusion of her delegation upon any such test as is suggested would be felt by our people universally, as such a deep wrong that it would put their strong devotion to the Government, and

their lively hope of perfect reconciliation, to the severest trial. They can understand the bitterness of strife and the aversion to treason; but they will be confounded at the repulsion of offered friendship and avowed loyalty. The Convention, therefore, respectfully asks Congress to repeal the test oath. I have thought it respectful, both to you and to Congress, that this request should pass through your hands, with the hope that your Excellency's magnanimity would add to it some reflection which would avail that body.

After further remarks by Mr. Reade, in which he spoke of the confidence reposed in the President by North Carolina, the latter responded as follows:

Hon. Mr. Reade:—I receive from you, with pleasure, a copy of the proceedings of the Convention of North Carolina. I reciprocate cordially the conciliatory spirit in which you have addressed me. The Convention of North Carolina has done much and well toward restoring that State to her proper national relations; but something yet remains to be done to render that restoration immediately practicable. An acceptance of her Congressional amendment abolishing slavery throughout the United States, by the Legislature of the State of North Carolina, is, in my judgment, practically important to the successful restoration which is so much desired by all. Without answering specifically the questions you have proposed to me, it will be sufficient to say that my action must depend upon events, and that Mr. Holden will be again instructed to continue the exercise of his functions as Provisional Governor until he shall have been expressly relieved by orders to that effect.

The ordinances referred to the people were ratified on the day of election, and Jonathan Worth was chosen Governor, by a majority of 6,730, over W. W. Holden, the Provisional Governor. The total vote at the election was 58,554. In 1860 the total vote for President was 98,230.

On November 27th the President sent the following despatch to the Provisional Governor:

WASHINGTON, D. C., November 27, 1865.
To the Hon. W. W. Holden, Provisional Governor of North Carolina:

Accept my thanks for the noble and efficient manner in which you have discharged your duty as Provisional Governor. You will be sustained by the Government. The results of the recent elections in North Carolina have greatly damaged the prospects of the State in the restoration of its government. Should action and the spirit of the Legislature be in the same direction, it will greatly increase the mischief already done, and might prove fatal. It is hoped the action and spirit manifested by the Legislature will be so directed as to repair their increase of difficulties, under which the State has already placed itself.

ANDREW JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

Meanwhile the Legislature which had been elected held a brief session, during which it ratified, with but six dissenting votes, the amendment to the Federal Constitution abolishing slavery, elected three judges of the Supreme Court, and John Pool and William A. Graham United States Senators, and adopted other measures suggested by the Provisional Governor. On December 15th the newly elected Governor was duly inaugurated. In his address he refrained from subjects upon which the Provisional Governor only was authorized to act, and said:

I regard it, however, as a fit occasion for me to declare that the people of North Carolina, impoverished by the late desolating war, and discouraged by the uncertainties of the future, ardently desire a restoration of the Union and of civil government. The animosities which produced and grew out of the war on our part are rapidly passing away. All good and wise men feel that the common good of our whole country required the suppression of the sectional criminations and recriminations from which have sprung our national calamities. I am sure that the great body of our people desire that national amity shall be restored. Such, I am assured and believe, is the general feeling among those we lately called our foes. Such is peculiarly the case among the brave men who perilled their lives in the respective armies lately engaged in mortal combat. The brave are always generous.

Admonished by the recent past, surely the virtue of this great nation will not again surrender itself to the guidance of turbulent sectional leaders.

I am sure all our people, if now admitted into full communion with the United States, upon the terms prescribed by the President (with all which terms we have fully complied), would perform all their constitutional obligations with as much fidelity as any people in the Union. Unfounded distrust will not beget kindness and confidence. We ought to be judged by our acts. To them I appeal for the verification of my assertion.

We honor the generous magnanimity and elevated statesmanship exhibited in the President's plan of reconstruction. It looks to the permanent good of the whole nation, and, in view of the appalling difficulties with which he was surrounded, is probably the wisest practicable plan which could be devised. We have promptly and almost unanimously complied with all its provisions by declaring our ordinance of secession null and void, by amending our Constitution abolishing slavery, repudiating our war debt, ratifying the amendment to the Constitution of the United States forever prohibiting slavery in the States, and by solemnly taking an oath renewing our allegiance to the United States. If all these acts are held insufficient to entitle us to confidence, we can scarcely hope to do anything which will be held satisfactory. I will vouch for North Carolina if not driven to despair by ungenerous distrust. She will grasp the hand of reconciliation, if offered, with generous, magnanimous confidence.

On December 23d Secretary Seward, by direction of President Johnson, addressed a letter to Provisional Governor Holden, of North Carolina, relieving him from his trust, and expressing the President's acknowledgment of the fidelity, the loyalty, and discretion which had marked his administration of affairs in that State. A copy of the letter was sent to the Governor elect of North Carolina, with the tender of the cooperation of the Government of the United States whenever it may be found necessary in effecting the early restoration and permanent prosperity and welfare of the State over which he has been called upon to preside. These official communications are similar, with the exception of names, to those addressed to the Governors elect and Provisional Governors of other Southern States with similar purpose.

On the same day, Provisional Governor Holden replied as follows:

RALFHEIM, N. C., December 23, 1865.

To the Hon. W. H. Seward, Secretary of State.

SIR: Your despatch of this date, relieving me of my duty as Provisional Governor of North Carolina, has been received. It gives me pleasure to be

relieved of the responsibilities and labors of the office. I will at once transfer the great seal, papers, and property of the State, now in my possession, to the Hon. Jonathan Worth, the Governor elect. Be pleased to convey to the President my sincere acknowledgments for the honor he has done me and the confidence reposed in me in calling me to this position, with the expression of the hope that his plan for reconstructing the insurgent States to their natural and appropriate place in the Union may be crowned with entire success.

With the highest regard, your obedient servant,
W. W. HOLDEN.

On December 30th Governor Worth issued an address to the people of the State, congratulating them on the restoration of the State Government, and stated that an extra session of the Legislature would be soon convened and measures adopted which were necessary to the complete reorganization of the State. By a statement of the Treasurer, the debt of the State contracted before the war, and not repudiated by the Convention, was \$9,749,500, to which must be added the interest due and unpaid, in round numbers \$3,000,000, making in all \$12,749,500. The State owns stocks in railroad companies and bonds of railroads and other corporations, most of which were productive before the war, equal to \$9,873,289. He estimates the losses of the State by the war at \$250,000,000, of which \$200,000,000 was for slaves. The present value of real and personal property he estimates at \$250,000,000. In consideration of the want of a circulating medium, caused by the sudden destruction of the Confederate and State Treasury notes, he recommended that the bonds and coupons now due and to become due in the present year be funded, and that no appropriation be made to pay interest at present. The resumption of the payment of interest at an early day was anticipated.

The freedmen of the State came under the charge of the Freedmen's Bureau, and during a part of the year considerable numbers were sustained by the Government. But the demand for labor secured employment to the great mass. At Newbern a colored Equal Rights League was formed, which issued an address at the close of the year, describing their objects as follows:

The object of the League is to secure by political and moral means, as far as may be, the repeal of all laws and parts of laws, State and national, that make discriminations on account of color. This is our object in all its length and breadth. We therefore aspire to the condition and privileges of freemen. Is not this a natural aspiration? Is it not dictated by self-respect? We ask an opportunity to show that we are worthy to be free, and propose to attain the condition and privileges of freemen by becoming intelligent, by industry, by virtue, by piety. If the object is noble and one worthy of freemen, the means proposed for attaining it are moral and peaceful. We disclaim the remotest intention of enforcing the claim by violence. Does any one suggest insurrection, we frown upon him, denounce him. The address closes: We do pledge ourselves to maintain good order. Our arms and our lives, if necessary, are at the service of the Government to quell and crush insurrection. Having done this, we shall demand of the lawful authority protection for our property, schools, presses, and churches.

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OBITUARIES, AMERICAN. 1864.—KING, DANIEL, M. D., omitted in CYCLOPÆDIA of 1864. (See KING, DANIEL.)

KING, THOMAS STARR, omitted in CYCLOPÆDIA of 1864. (See KING, T. S.)

KNIGHT, JONATHAN, M. D., omitted in CYCLOPÆDIA of 1864. (See KNIGHT, J.)

Jan. 1, 1865.—MARLATT, Rev. A. G., a clergyman of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and President of Irving Female College, Mechanicsburg, Pennsylvania, died at the college.

Jan. 1.—MCDONALD, ANGUS W., a colonel in the Confederate service, and for many years brigadier-general of Virginia militia, died in Richmond, Va. He was a native of New York, and was born in 1802. His father was a major in the United States Army, and died during the war of 1812, at Buffalo, N. Y. The son was appointed a cadet at West Point, and graduated in 1817, and on his graduation was appointed third lieutenant in the artillery corps. He was promoted to a second lieutenant in February, 1818, and in April of the same year to a first lieutenant. He resigned in January, 1819, and commenced the practice of law at Romney, Va. He had been for many years a brigadier-general of the militia of Virginia, and on the breaking out of the war received a commission as colonel of volunteers in the Confederate army. In June, 1864, he was captured by Gen. Hunter, near Lexington, Va., and was exchanged on the 14th of November.

Jan. 2.—MERSELES, Hon. JACOB M., ex-State Senator of New Jersey, died of paralysis at South Bergen, N. J. He was a member of the legislature for three years, sheriff of Hudson County for three terms, and was the pioneer in establishing various stage and city railroad lines in that section.

Jan. 4.—WRIGHT, Rev. AUSTIN H., M. D., Missionary of the American Board, died at Ooroomiah, Persia.

Jan. 5.—MILNOR, Mrs. ELEANOR, widow of Rev. James Milnor, D. D., died at Brooklyn, L. I., aged 86 years. She was an authoress, and well known for her active interest in the New York City Orphan Asylums and other local benevolent institutions.

Jan. 10.—WELD, LEWIS LEDYARD, Lieut.-Col. of the 41st U. S. Colored troops, died near Richmond, Va., aged 32 years. He was a native of Hartford, Conn., graduated at Yale College in 1854, studied law, and in 1857 was admitted to the bar. In 1858 he commenced the practice of his profession in Leavenworth, Kansas, and subsequently removed to Denver City. Upon the organization of the Territory of Colorado, he was made Secretary, and was for some time the Acting Governor, exerting a powerful influence for the maintenance of the national authority. In 1862 he resigned his

office, with a view to engage in the military service, and while waiting a suitable opportunity edited the Denver "Commonwealth." He served in Maryland, South Carolina, Florida, and in the Army of the James, before Richmond, where he died from an acute disease brought on by exposure.

Jan. 12.—EWEN, DANIEL, City Surveyor of New York for forty-eight years, died at his residence in that city, aged 69 years.

Jan. 13.—BARTLETT, WILLIAM PITT GEKESWOOD, an eminent mathematician connected with the Nautical Almanac Office in Cambridge, Mass., died in that place aged 27 years. He graduated at Harvard College in the class of 1858, after attaining a high standard of scholarship, and in 1859 was appointed one of the proctors of the college, which office he held until 1862. In the summer of 1860 he visited England and France, to attend the anniversary meetings of the great European Scientific Societies. He contributed largely to the "Mathematical Monthly," and was elected a member of the American Cabinet of Science.

Jan. 14.—FOWLER, Col. SAMUEL, a prominent member of the New Jersey Legislature, died at Trenton, N. J., of pneumonia.

Jan. 14.—KEMPSTALL, Hon. THOMAS, ex-member of Congress from New York, died at Rochester. He was a native of England, and a pioneer settler of Rochester, representing his State in Congress from 1839 to 1841.

Jan. 15.—HARPER, Hon. JOSEPH M., ex-member of Congress from New Hampshire, died at Canterbury in the 78th year of his age. He was a native of Limerick, Me., but studied medicine and commenced practice in Canterbury in 1819. In the war of 1812 Dr. Harper served for some time as a surgeon in the army. In 1826 and '27 he was a member of the New Hampshire House of Representatives and a member of the State Senate in 1829 and '30. The last year he was President of the upper branch of the Legislature, and by the resignation of Matthew Harvey, became acting Governor of New Hampshire from May till June in 1831. Soon afterwards Dr. Harper was four years a Representative in Congress. In 1843 he was elected President of the Mechanics' Bank in Concord, and filled the position till 1856.

Jan. 16.—BELL, Col. LEWIS, of the 4th New Hampshire volunteers, acting brigadier-general, died of wounds received at Fort Fisher the preceding day. He was born in Chester, N. H., in 1836, and was the youngest son of the late Governor Samuel Bell. He graduated at Brown University in 1853, and commenced the practice of law at Farmington, N. H. In 1860 he was appointed solicitor for Stafford County. In April, 1861, he was offered the captaincy of

a company of the 1st New Hampshire regiment of three months' men, and served during the campaign. Returning home he was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the 4th New Hampshire volunteers, and upon the resignation of Col. Whipple, in March, 1862, was made commander of the regiment. Col. Bell was for some time a member of Gen. T. W. Sherman's staff, and was inspector general of the Department of the South from November, 1861, to March, 1862. Previously to the Wilmington expedition he had been several times temporarily a brigade commander, and had served bravely at Pottomac and at the siege of Fort Wagner. At the attack on Fort Fisher he commanded a brigade of Gen. Ames' division, and was mortally wounded while leading his men in an assault upon one of the traverses of that work. He was a brother of Chief Justice Bell, of Manchester, N. H., of the late Dr. Luther V. Bell, of the McLean Lunatic Asylum, and of Dr. John Bell, U. S. A.

Jan. 17.—WHEATON, HON. LABAN, died at his residence in Norton, Mass., aged 68 years. He graduated at Brown University in 1817, and was the founder of the Wheaton Female Seminary.

Jan. 18.—LATIMER, JOHN R., a prominent citizen of Delaware, died at Wilmington. He was for nearly twenty years a successful merchant in Canton, China, and since his retirement from active mercantile life, has been prominent in unobtrusive acts of benevolence.

Jan. 20.—BUELL, WILLIAM, a canal contractor, died at his residence in Gates, Monroe Co., N. Y., aged 74 years. He was born in Canada, and removed to Rochester, N. Y., penniless, but with a determination to work, his first job being to saw a cord of wood in payment for his newspaper. He commenced business as a subcontractor on the Erie Canal, but soon contracted largely upon his own account. Among his heaviest undertakings were the Lockport Locks and the Rochester Aqueduct.

Jan. 21.—WHELOCK, Brevet Brig.-General CHARLES, Colonel 97th New York volunteers, died at Washington, D. C., from disease contracted in the service. He was a native and resident of Oneida County, N. Y., where he was engaged at the beginning of the war in a large and prosperous business, which he abandoned immediately after the fall of Fort Sumter, and devoted his whole time to raising men for the army, pledging himself to provide for their families. In the summer of 1861 he said to a friend: "I am worth, I think, in the neighborhood of \$10,000. Half of this I have already given or pledged to aid the war, and if my country wants the other half it can have it, and myself into the bargain." Becoming impatient with the slow progress of the war, he soon after commenced raising a regiment on his own hook, fed and housed several hundred men at his personal expense for many months, and after a series of embarrassments and disappointments that would have disheartened almost

any other man, completed its organization and marched it to the field. Entirely without military experience, and with but a very limited general education, he became one of the best volunteer officers in the service, and so signally distinguished himself that he was brevetted brigadier-general for bravery and good soldiership. He had seen much service, was engaged in many of the bloodiest battles in Virginia, was taken prisoner, if we mistake not, at the second battle of Bull Run, and tasted for many months the sweets of prison life at Richmond, but was subsequently exchanged, when he rejoined his old regiment and did more gallant service in behalf of the old flag.

Jan. 23.—BACON, DAVID FRANCIS, M. D., an author and son of the Rev. David Bacon, Missionary pioneer in Ohio and Michigan, died in New York, aged 51 years. He was born in Prospect, Conn., graduated at Yale College in the class of 1831, and at the Medical College in 1836, and shortly afterwards was sent out by the American Colonization Society as principal colonial physician in Liberia. After his return from Africa, he published three parts of a work entitled "Wanderings on the Seas and Shores of Africa," in which his observations on the west coast of that country are very minutely recorded (N. Y., 1843. 8vo). During most of his life he resided in New York, and at one time he was actively engaged in political affairs, as an earnest advocate of the election of Henry Clay to the Presidency. He was a frequent contributor to the periodicals of the day. In 1835 he published a work, evincing much research, entitled "Lives of the Apostles."

Jan. 27.—NOBLE, SAMUEL, the oldest man in Boston, died in that city, aged 99 years. He was a native of Durham, New Hampshire.

Jan. 28.—JACKSON, DR. ROBERT MONTGOMERY SMITH, Medical Inspector of the 23d army corps, and acting medical director of the Department of the Ohio, died at Chattanooga, Tenn. He was a native of Pennsylvania, and a resident of Cresson, Pa., at the commencement of the war. He was widely known throughout Pennsylvania, being distinguished for great force of character, decided opinion, and some eccentricity withal. He was a man of strong and generous feelings, and intense in his patriotism. As a scientific man he had few superiors in Pennsylvania. He was thoroughly versed in all departments of natural science, and as a geologist and botanist was specially distinguished. He was a member of the Pennsylvania Geological Commission, of which Professor Rogers was chief, and very much of the results of that survey are due to the skill and industry of Dr. Jackson. He was an enthusiastic mountaineer, and believed that in the pure air of the Alleghanies the enervated and listless inhabitants of cities and the lowlands would find health, strength, and energy. He published, some years ago, a work called "The Mountain," which is distinguished by a love of nature, and by a scientific handling of the topics, which

without being too technical, is of a character to elevate the human mind and teach the reader to look "from nature up to nature's God." Some of Dr. Jackson's views are bold and startling, but his fine command of language, his chaste and vigorous style, places the book among the most remarkable of its kind ever written. Dr. Jackson was a member of the American Philosophical Society, Academy of Natural Sciences, and other learned institutions.

Jan. 29.—SMITH, RESOARRECK M., State Treasurer of New Jersey, died at Hightstown, N. J.

Jan. 29.—FUNK, ISAAC, the great Illinois farmer, died at Bloomington, Illinois, aged 67 years. He went to that State forty years ago in poverty, but by industry and perseverance accumulated a large fortune, owning 40,000 acres of the best land in Illinois, and at the time of his death paying a tax upon nearly \$2,000,000. He was a member of the State Senate, and a speech delivered by him before that body two years since was widely circulated.

Jan. 29.—FUNK, HENRY B., a well-known philanthropist, died in Cincinnati, Ohio.

Feb. 1.—WEST, ROBERT ARTHUR, an editor, and head of the Bureau of Military Justice, died at Washington, D. C. He was a native of England, having emigrated to this country many years ago. His connection with the press commenced with an engagement on "The Commercial Advertiser," New York, during the editorship of the late William M. Stone. He afterwards became assistant editor, and subsequently editor, of that journal, holding the latter position until June, 1863, when he removed to Washington and took charge of "The Chronicle" of that city. About a year since he was appointed head of the Bureau of Military Justice in the office of the Judge-Advocate General. As an editor Mr. West was invariably well-informed, truthful, and courteous, always avoiding personality, and possessing an agreeable and facile pen. In politics he was a Whig and afterwards a Republican, and a thoroughly loyal man, an earnest supporter of the Government, and hater of slavery.

Feb. 3.—SWAIM, SAMUEL BUDD, D. D., an American Baptist clergyman, died in Boston, Mass., aged 55 years. He was a native of New Jersey, son of the Hon. Thomas Swaim, whose death a few years since was honorably mentioned in Baptist journals. When quite young he was sent to the Preparatory School of Columbian College, at Washington, D. C., where, in the spring of 1827, he became a subject of divine grace, and consecrated himself to the work of the Christian ministry. There he became endeared to all who knew him by the amiableness of his disposition and the geniality of his piety. Owing to the suspension of studies in that college, he entered Brown University, where he graduated in 1830, and subsequently went through the full course at Newton Theological Institution, graduating in 1833. Both at Providence and at Newton he was distin-

guished for correct deportment and superior scholarship, and few gave equal promise of efficiency in the sacred vocation.

After finishing his studies, his health was for some time so much impaired as to interfere with his plans of ministerial service. Yet he preached in various places, and had he felt himself equal to the demands of a pastorate upon his physical strength, he could have had a choice of eligible positions. With the hope of benefit from a change of climate, he resided and preached for a time in Ohio. With health partially restored, he returned to New England, and accepted the pastoral care of the First Baptist Church in Worcester. His labors in that city, continued through many years, were eminently blessed, and the prosperity of the denomination there is greatly owing to his ability and fidelity. At length his health gave way to such an extent as to induce him to retire from the field, and accept the smaller charge of the church at West Cambridge. Subsequently he served for a time the American Baptist Home Mission Society as District Secretary for New England, and during the past year he has preached at Lexington, Mass.

Feb. 5.—THOMAS, SIDNEY A., died at New Haven, Conn., aged 60 years. He had been a teacher of youth for many years, and was the author of a system of book-keeping, and other educational works. He was also one of the first teachers in New England to introduce the military dress and drill into schools. At the opening of the war, numbers of his pupils were employed by the State and Government in drilling the companies and regiments of volunteers before they left for the seat of war.

Feb. 6.—BARTLETT, WASHINGTON A., formerly an officer in the U. S. Navy, died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 49 years. He was father of the young lady whose marriage a few years ago to to Señor Oveido of Cuba, was known as the "Diamond Wedding." In 1861 he was actively engaged in fitting out a naval brigade, but subsequently left the service.

Feb. 6.—PEGRAM, JOHN, a major-general in the Confederate service, mortally wounded in the battle of Hatcher's Run, and died in Petersburg the following day. He was a son of the late Hon. John Pegram, M. C. from Virginia in 1818 and 1819, but was born in South Carolina, to which State his father had removed. He graduated at West Point in 1855, and at the opening of the war was first lieutenant of 2d dragoons, but resigned on the secession of his State, and was soon after appointed to the command of a Confederate volunteer regiment, and in 1862 promoted to be brigadier-general. He was in most of the severe battles of the Army of Virginia, and in 1864 was made major-general. His division had distinguished itself through the campaign of 1864-'65 for its persistent and desperate fighting, and its commander, Gen. John Pegram, was regarded by his superiors in command as one of the ablest division commanders in the army.

Feb. 6.—WINDER, JOHN H., a brigadier-general in the Confederate service, died at Florence, S. C., of apoplexy. He was a native of Maryland, the son of Gen. William H. Winder, of Baltimore, an officer in the war of 1812, and graduated at West Point about 1825. He served in the army with considerable distinction, took part in the Mexican war, and at the commencement of the rebellion was major and brevet lieutenant-colonel of the 8d artillery. He resigned, and entered the Confederate service, where he was soon made a brigadier-general, but was not employed in active service to any great extent. He commanded the post of Richmond, and had charge of the Union prisoners in Libby Prison and Belle Isle for some time, and was finally sent to Andersonville, Ga., in a similar capacity. When Sherman's expedition passed through Georgia, he left Andersonville and repaired first to Charleston, and afterwards to Florence, where he died.

Feb. 8.—TREMAINE, COL. LYMAN, of the 10th New York cavalry, died near Petersburg of wounds received at the battle of Hatcher's Run, February 6th. He was the son of the Hon. Lyman Tremaine of Albany, and was born in Greene County, N. Y., in June, 1843; entered Hobart College in the fall of 1860, and remained till the summer of 1862, when, unable longer to resist the calls of patriotism, he entered the army as adjutant of the 7th New York heavy artillery. He served with distinction in the defenses of Washington, and subsequently as assistant adjutant-general, with the rank of captain, on the staff of Gen. Davies of the cavalry in Kilpatrick's division of the Potomac army. In this position he distinguished himself by his bravery and the prompt and intelligent discharge of his duties. In December, 1864, he was commissioned lieutenant-colonel of the 10th New York cavalry, in the command of which regiment he was wounded at Hatcher's Run in the battle of February 6th, and died on the following Wednesday. Col. Tremaine was distinguished for an unusual degree of generosity, firmness, and courage, great ability and entire devotion to the cause of his country.

Feb. 9.—HOLMES, DR. EZEKIEL, editor of the "Maine Farmer," died at Winthrop, Me., aged 64 years. He graduated at Brown University in the class of 1821.

Feb. 11.—STEVENS, BENJAMIN, a prominent citizen of Boston, died at his residence aged 75 years. He was sergeant-at-arms from 1835 to 1859, consecutively, and a member of the lower house of the Legislature, both before and after his incumbency of that office. He was also an active and zealous freemason, and a constant attendant upon the meetings and festivals of that order.

Feb. 12.—DEAN, COL. of the 58th Colored troops, was killed in Arkansas. He was on an expedition from Helena across the country to St. Francis River.

Feb. 12.—ROBE, CHARLES R., author, editor, and publisher, died in New York city, aged

about 40 years. His father was a Prussian and his mother a native of Holland. For some years he was publisher of the City Directory. He was also conductor of "The Criterion," a short-lived literary journal, and subsequently took charge of "The Publishers' Circular." He was actively engaged on Appleton's "American Cyclopædia," and contributed to Harper's and other magazines. A few years since a number of his friends among the publishers presented him with the means of travelling in Europe for the benefit of his health.

Feb. 12.—SCHUYLER, PHILIP, grandson of Maj.-Gen. P. Schuyler, died at Pelham, Westchester County, N. Y., aged 77 years.

Feb. 13.—DANFORTH, REV. A. H., a Baptist clergyman and missionary, died at Milestown, Pa., aged 47 years. Immediately upon completing his educational course at Hamilton, in 1847, he went as missionary to Assam, India. There he labored for eleven years, when ill health compelled his return. For a time he indulged the hope of returning to the chosen field of his toil, but finding that the Providence of God indicated otherwise, he settled with the Baptist church at Milestown. During his pastorate of three years the church was greatly prospered, and the pastor enjoyed the highest respect and warmest regards of the entire community. Early last spring he went to the Army of the Potomac, under the auspices of the Christian Commission. His labors among the soldiers resulted in the conversion of several, but he labored to the point of exhaustion. He was prostrated by an attack of typhoid fever, from which he never fully recovered. Mr. Danforth was an able preacher, and showed in his intellectual efforts an acuteness of discrimination, a felicity of analysis, and a comprehensiveness of thought, which proved him to be endowed with ability of a high order.

Feb. 13.—HICKS, THOMAS H., U. S. Senator, and former Governor of Maryland, died at Washington, in his 76th year. He was born in Dorchester County, Maryland; frequently served in the Legislature of that State; was Governor from 1858 to 1862; and was elected a Senator in Congress upon the death of James A. Pearce, taking his seat during the third session of the Thirty-seventh Congress, and was reelected for the term ending in 1867, serving on the Committee upon Naval Affairs, and that on Claims. His firmness and adroit management were among the most efficient means of saving Maryland to the Union, when the secession mania began to sweep over the South. He refused to call a special meeting of the Legislature to consider an ordinance of secession, and by this most judicious act saved his State from the headlong measures that in the heat of the moment would probably have been taken. This gave time for second thought, and the Union element rallied. When the attack on the Massachusetts Sixth regiment was made in Baltimore, Governor Hicks issued a proclamation declaring that all his authority would

be exercised in favor of the Government. Before the Legislature assembled Baltimore was strongly garrisoned, and the State saved. In his public career he ever proved himself strong and steadfast against political pressure. He died suddenly of paralysis.

Feb. 16.—**DAVIES, Rev. THOMAS FREDERICK**, a Congregational clergyman and editor, died in Westport, Conn., aged 72 years. He was fitted for college by Rev. Dr. Ely of Huntington, graduated at Yale College in 1813, and for a year or two subsequently was engaged in teaching at New Haven, at the same time pursuing his theological studies under the direction of Dr. Dwight. He was licensed to preach in May, 1816, and in March, 1817, was ordained and installed as pastor of the Congregational church of Huntington, succeeding his former teacher. Dr. Ely being compelled by ill health to resign his pastoral office, Mr. Davies removed to New Haven in 1819, and became the editor of the "Christian Spectator." After having been thus engaged for several years, and subsequently connected with the "Religious Intelligencer," he accepted a call from the church in Green Farms, now Westport, where he remained from 1829 to 1839. During the next ten years he resided in New Haven, and the residue of his life he divided between his native place, New Haven, and Westport, Conn.

Feb. 17.—**BOND, GEORGE PHILLIPS**, Professor of Astronomy in Harvard College, died at Cambridge, Mass., aged 39 years. He was the son of Prof. William Cranch Bond, Director of the Observatory of Harvard University, and was born in Dorchester, Mass. He graduated at Harvard in 1845, and in February, 1859, was appointed Phillips Prof. of Astronomy and Director of the Observatory of Harvard College. He was a member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and stood in the highest rank of American astronomers. Among other papers he wrote one upon the construction of the rings of Saturn, in which their fluid nature was first established; another on the orbits of Hyperion, having participated in the discovery of Hyperion; others on the Nebula of Andromeda, on various comets, on stellar photography, &c. About a month previous to his death, the Royal Astronomical Society of London voted a gold medal to Mr. Bond for his great work on the Donati Comet.

Feb. 18.—**WALLACE, COL. JOSEPH**, died at Louisville, Ky. He was formerly a resident of Philadelphia, but for six years previous to his death had been connected with the editorial department of the "Louisville Journal."

Feb. 20.—**SHERMAN, WATTS**, an American banker, died in the Island of Madeira, whither he had gone for the restoration of his health, aged 53 years. He commenced his business career as a teller in the Ontario Bank at Canandaigua, New York. Subsequently he removed to Little Falls, Herkimer Co., where he became cashier of the Herkimer County Bank. He was then appointed cashier of the

Albany City Bank, and from thence removed to New York, where he established himself in the celebrated banking house now so widely known by the name of Duncan, Sherman & Co. Mr. Sherman was a man of the most rare qualifications for his position. His course was strictly governed by commercial integrity unswayed by any bias but the interests of his firm.

Feb. 22.—**CAMPBELL, Lieut.-Commander MARSHALL C.**, an officer of the U. S. naval service, and until a short time before his death instructor in seamanship and naval tactics in the Naval Academy, died in Baltimore, Md. He was born in Tennessee in 1834, but was admitted to the Naval Academy from Mississippi, where his parents then resided, in February, 1850. He was a young officer of fine attainments, and had spent nine years and seven months of the fifteen years he had been in the navy, afloat, his last cruise having closed in September, 1864. His assiduity in the performance of his duties had so far overtaken a somewhat feeble frame that he returned to Baltimore, now the residence of his widowed mother, only to die. Although from a seceding State, he was distinguished for his thorough attachment to the national cause.

Feb. 24.—**OGDEN, Hon. E. E. B. D.**, Justice of the Supreme Court of New Jersey, died at Elizabeth, N. J.

Feb. 25.—**FLEET, SAMUEL**, publisher and editor, died in New York city, aged 66 years. He was connected with one of the first agricultural journals published in New York, "The New York Farmer." He was afterwards connected with "The United States Farmer," and later still with "The American Artisan."

Feb.—**KELLOGG, Rev. R. O.**, formerly Professor in Lawrence University, Wisconsin, killed himself during an attack of insanity at the Insane Asylum, Madison, Wisconsin.

Feb.—**HINDMAN, THOMAS C.**, major-general in the Confederate army, was killed by Confederate soldiers in Texas.

March 1.—**WOEDS, Hon. JONATHAN L.**, an eminent lawyer of Lockport, N. Y., died at his residence there.

March 5.—**ALSOP, Hon. CHARLES RICHARD**, lawyer, and State Senator of Connecticut, died at Middletown, aged 62 years. He graduated at Yale College in 1821, studied law with Chancellor Kent and Daniel Lord, Esq., of New York, and commenced the practice of his profession, in Middletown. From 1843 to 1846 he was mayor of that city, and in 1855 he represented the 18th Senatorial District in the Connecticut Legislature. He was a member of the corporation of Yale College in 1855 and 1856.

March 10.—**WHITING, Major-Gen. WILLIAM H. C.**, an officer in the Confederate service, wounded at Fort Fisher, and taken prisoner, died at Governor's Island, N. Y., whither he had been removed. He was a native of New York, was born about 1825, and graduated at West Point in 1845, ranking very high in his class. He took part in the Mexican war, and

was promoted rapidly for an officer of engineers, having attained the rank of captain of engineers in 1861, when he went over to the Confederates, having resided for some years in Virginia. He was made a brigadier-general in 1862, and a major-general in 1863. In the autumn of 1864 he was put in command of Fort Fisher, and was in charge during both attacks.

March 11.—BRADBURY, EDWARD G., a well-known piano-forte manufacturer (of the firm W. B. & E. G. Bradbury), died in New York city, aged 15 years.

March 11.—STEINWAY, HENRY Jr., piano-forte manufacturer, of the celebrated firm of Steinway & Sons, died in New York, aged 84 years.

March 14.—MILLINER, ALEXANDER, a Revolutionary pensioner, died at Adams Basin, N. Y., aged 105 years. He was a native of Quebec.

March 15.—WILSON, Dr. THOMAS B., President of the Academy of Natural Sciences in Philadelphia, and an eminent ornithologist and naturalist, died at Newark, Delaware. He had for many years devoted himself to the promotion of zoological science, and his liberality and munificence in this direction were unbounded. The splendid collection of birds belonging to the Philadelphia Academy, which ranks as the third in importance in the world, was his gift, and the library of that institution was created mainly by his liberality.

March 16.—CRAIN, COL. WILLIAM C., a prominent Democratic politician, died in Herkimer, N. Y., aged 66 years. He was liberally educated, and studied medicine, but never entered upon the practice of his profession. He was a member of the State Legislature in 1832, 1845, and 1846, and during his last term was Speaker of the Assembly, which position he filled with dignity and ability. In 1840 he was elected sheriff of Herkimer County; was the Democratic candidate for the Senate in 1857, and also for Lieutenant-Governor in 1860. Was several times Presidential Elector upon the Democratic ticket, and frequently represented his party in State Conventions.

March 18.—CROSBY, WILLIAM B., a prominent merchant in New York city, died at his residence there, aged 80 years.

March 19.—JOHNSON, Rev. EVAN M., an Episcopal clergyman, died at his residence in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 73 years. He was a native of Newport, Rhode Island, graduated at Rhode Island College, now Brown University, in 1805, and was ordained to the ministry in Trinity Church, Newport, by Right Rev. A. V. Griswold, July 8, 1813. Removed to New York city in 1814, and became Assistant Rector of Grace Church, which position he held for one year, when he took charge of St. James Church, Newtown, L. I., as rector. In the year 1824 he settled in Brooklyn, and built St. John's Church, now situated on the corner of Johnson and Washington Streets, two years thereafter. This thickly built portion of the city was then used as a farm, owned by Mr. Johnson himself. Here he preached the free gospel until 1847,

when he retired and hired a little place in Marshall Street, near the Jackson Ferry, for the purpose of continuing his services for the benefit of the poor for a short time. The building proving inconvenient for the purpose, he established St. Michael's Church in High Street, of which he remained rector up to the day of his death. During the years of Mr. Johnson's ministrations he united nearly 4,000 couples in marriage, and christened nearly 10,000 children. He was, at the time of his decease, the oldest settled Episcopal clergyman in the State of New York.

March 19.—McLENNAN, JOHN, a comic artist, died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 35 years.

March 24.—BATES, Rev. LEWIS, a pioneer Methodist clergyman, died at Taunton, Mass., aged 85 years. He was born in Cohasset, Mass., March 20, 1780, and was a descendant in the seventh generation of John Rogers the Smithfield martyr. His childhood was spent in part in Springfield, Vt. He joined the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1801, and commenced preaching in 1802, but did not receive deacon's orders until 1806, and in 1808 was ordained a minister at New London, Conn. His subsequent labors as a preacher were in connection with the New England and Providence Conferences. In 1850 he entered upon the superannuated relation, and located his family at Taunton, Mass., where he remained till his death. He had been for sixty-one years a minister, and forty-six years of the period had been in active service, mostly as a pioneer in the organization or early training of Methodist churches.

March 25.—TERRY, Brig. Gen. WILLIAM R., an officer in the Confederate service, killed in the assault on Fort Stedman, near Petersburg. He was a native of Virginia, and had been educated in the Lexington (Va.) Military Academy.

March 28.—LITTLE, JACOB, a leading Wall Street speculator, died in New York city, aged 68 years. He was a native of Massachusetts, but commenced his business career in New York, where for many years past he has been well known as a "bear operator" among the business men of Wall Street. His financial abilities were great, and his vast successes and heavy losses, though causing constant fluctuations of fortune, were borne with equal self-possession. Throughout a long and active life, passed in a whirl of excitement, and in a business most dangerous in its influence, he was considered even by his enemies to be a man of spotless integrity. His mental powers were vast, and his decisions seemed the result of intuitive perception. Though for many years afflicted with poor health, his death was the result of a recent attack of softening of the brain.

March 30.—DANIEL, Hon. JOHN M., a Virginian editor, author, and diplomatist, died in Richmond, Va. He had attained to some notoriety as a newspaper writer in Richmond prior to 1854, and was appointed by President Pierce,

in that year, minister resident at the Court of Sardinia; but his ignorance of the Italian language, and his affectation, rendered him very unpopular as a minister, and in 1858 he resigned and returned to the United States. Soon after his return he became again connected with the Richmond press, and was noted for the violence of his language as a political controversialist, and his readiness to resort to the *duello* as a means of settling personal difficulties. He was very bitter toward John Brown in 1859, and insisted strenuously upon his execution. At the commencement of the war he avowed himself a secessionist from conviction, and advocated to the best of his ability the claims of John B. Floyd and Henry A. Wise upon the gratitude and support of the Confederacy. He was for a time on the staff of one of the corps commanders (Jackson, we believe) of the Army of Northern Virginia, but returned soon to Richmond and to the editorship of the "Richmond Examiner," in which, while zealously advocating the prosecution of the war, he was unremitting in his attacks on Mr. Davis, the President of the Confederacy. After the death of "Stonewall" Jackson he wrote a memoir of him which was republished in England.

March —.—**LORENTI**, Madame VIRGINIA WHITING, a distinguished opera singer, and prima donna in the Royal Opera House at Havana, died at Santiago de Cuba.

March 31.—**MILLS**, Brevet Major CHARLES JAMES, U. S. volunteers, was killed at the battle of Hatcher's Run, aged 24 years. He was a native of Boston, Mass., graduated at Harvard College in 1860, and subsequently entered the Lawrence Scientific School in Cambridge, when he left to accept the commission of lieutenant in the 2d Massachusetts volunteers. He joined the regiment in August, 1861, and was badly wounded in both legs at the battle of Antietam while acting as adjutant of the regiment. He never recovered from the lameness produced by these wounds, and being unable to join his regiment in six months, was mustered out of service. As soon as he was able to mount a horse he again sought a commission, and was appointed in October, 1863, the adjutant of the Massachusetts 56th volunteers. He went with his regiment to Virginia in March, 1864. As soon as the active movements of the campaign began, he was appointed by Brig.-Gen. Stoneman on the staff of his division, and subsequently served successively on the staffs of Maj.-Gen. Crittenden and Brig.-Gens. Ledlie and White. In August he was promoted to be captain and assistant adjutant-general of the 9th corps, on the staff of Gen. Wilcox. In October he was transferred to the 2d corps, on the staff of Maj.-Gen. Hancock. He was soon after promoted to be brevet-major "for gallant and meritorious conduct in the field," and remained in the 2d corps when he was killed.

April 1.—**WINTHROP**, Brevet Brig.-Gen. FREDERICK (colonel of the 5th New York vol-

unteers and captain 12th infantry U. S. army), killed at the battle of Five Forks, Va., while leading the 1st brigade, 2d division, 5th corps. He was born in New York in 1840, joined the 71st regiment New York State militia in its three months' service at the beginning of the war as a private, and fought at Bull Run. In October, 1861, he was appointed captain in the 12th U. S. infantry (regular army), and continued in service until the battles of the Wilderness in 1864, when he was appointed colonel of the 5th New York regiment, and shortly afterwards brevetted brigadier-general for gallantry in the field. He was a cousin of the late Major Theodore Winthrop and of Robert C. Winthrop, of Boston.

April 2.—**WILDER**, SAMSON VETLING STODDARD, an eminent philanthropist of New Jersey, died at Elizabeth, aged 85 years. He was a native of Bolton, Mass., and descended from a Huguenot family. He commenced his mercantile life in Boston, from which place in the interest of his business he went to Paris. In 1813 he went to London, where he soon formed the acquaintance of Rev. Roland Hill and other celebrities of that era. He very early enlisted in the Bible and Tract Societies, and in 1823, on the organization of the Tract Society, was prevailed upon after much solicitation to accept the presidency. He retired from the office in 1842, having presided over it for more than sixteen years. Removing to New York in 1830, he became a prominent banker in connection with the house of Hottinguer, in Paris, and later with the Bank of the United States. At the time he resigned his position over the Tract Society he was connected with a number of other organizations, all of which he retired from. He was the author of a number of religious tracts that obtained a large and worldwide notoriety.

April 3.—**HYDE**, Rev. LAVIUS, a Congregational clergyman and author, died at Vernon, Conn., aged 76 years. He was a native of Franklin, Conn., and when six years of age became for a time a member of the family of his brother, Rev. Alvan Hyde, D. D., of Lee, Mass., by whom, after the death of his father, in 1803, he was fitted for Williams College, from which he graduated in 1818. He studied theology at Andover, and in 1818 was ordained pastor of the church in Salisbury, Conn. In 1823 he was settled in Bolton, Conn., and subsequently at Ellington, Wayland, and Becket, Mass., returning again to Bolton. When threescore and ten years of age he retired from the pastoral office, passing the remainder of his days at Vernon, Conn. Mr. Hyde was a man of rare attainments. His reading was extensive and thorough, and through his fondness for books he had gathered a large and valuable library. He was the author of several books, among which was a biography of his brother, Rev. Dr. Hyde, published in 1834. He also edited a new edition of Dr. Nettleton's Village Hymns.

April 4.—**GRACIE**, ARCHIBALD, an eminent

New York merchant, died in that city, aged 69 years.

April 5.—**BARNUM, ZENAS**, formerly proprietor of Barnum's Hotel, Baltimore, Md., died in that city. He was a native of Pennsylvania, and by profession a civil engineer. After realizing a handsome fortune in the management of his hotel, he relinquished it to devote his time, as president, to the resuscitation of the Baltimore Central Railroad, a task that he soon effectually accomplished. He was also among the earliest to venture his money and time for the establishment of the magnetic telegraph, and was himself the first president of the present American Telegraph Company. He was president of the old "Magnetic Company" at the time of his death. In all improvements calculated for the public good, Mr. Barnum was ever among the foremost to encourage and aid both with his capital and business qualifications.

April 5.—**JANEWAY, COL. HUGH H.**, 1st New Jersey volunteer cavalry, killed at Fame's Cross-roads, near Jetersville, Va. He was born in Jersey City, N. J., in 1842, entered the 1st New Jersey cavalry at the commencement of the war as second lieutenant, and rose steadily through every grade to the highest, being appointed colonel when but twenty-two years of age, at the written request of every officer in the regiment. He had been in every important battle of the Army of the Potomac, and had been twelve times wounded. He was a young man of extraordinary promise, and in his last as in every previous battle, he led his men into the fight, asking them only to follow his example. He had just seized the colors of his regiment, and was in the act of carrying them forward, when a bullet entered his brain, and he died instantly.

April 5.—**TROTTER, HON. JONATHAN**, ex-Mayor of Brooklyn, died at his residence in New York, aged 68 years. He was born in New-castle-upon-Tyne, and emigrated to this country in 1818. Soon after he entered into the leather business in New York, where he continued until 1825, when he built an extensive manufactory in Brooklyn, and removed thither in 1829. He was soon after elected to the office of alderman, and subsequently became mayor, serving one term. He was the first president of the Atlantic Bank of Brooklyn, and was vice-president of the Leather Manufacturers' Bank of New York. Since 1837 he has lived in retirement.

April 6.—**READ, Brevet Brig.-Gen. S. T.**, Chief of Staff to Gen. Ord, shot by the rebel Gen. Dearing, in a hand to hand conflict at the High Bridge over the Appomattox, near Farmville, Va. Gen. Read was a native of Massachusetts, and had entered the service as captain of a company of unattached cavalry from that State in January, 1862. After considerable service in this capacity the several companies of cavalry having been organized into a battalion, he accepted a staff appointment, and distinguished himself at Gettysburg,

where he was severely wounded, and subsequently in the battles of Grant's campaign. When Gen. Ord took a command in connection with the Army of the James, he gave him a position as chief of staff, which he retained when Gen. Ord was assigned to the command of the Army of the James. He had recently received a brevet promotion for gallantry in the field.

April 6.—**MILES, PLINY**, post-office reformer and statistician, died at Malta, aged 54 years. He was a native of New York, was for some years a schoolmaster, contributed largely to American newspapers and magazines, and ultimately became widely known as a traveller. He was a strong advocate of cheap postal facilities. In 1854 he published an interesting volume of "Rambles in Iceland."

April 7.—**HALE, HON. JAMES T.**, an eminent Pennsylvania jurist, died of typhoid fever, at his residence in Bellefonte, Pa., aged 55 years. He was a native of Bradford County, Pa., received a common school education, studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1832. In 1851 he was appointed Presiding Judge of the Twentieth Judicial District of Pennsylvania, and in 1858 was elected a Representative from that State to the Thirty-sixth Congress, serving as a member of the Committee on Claims, and on Roads and Canals; re-elected to the Thirty-eighth Congress, and was Chairman of the Committee on Claims. He was a warm and consistent patriot.

April 9.—**POTTS, HON. STACY GARDNER**, an eminent lawyer and politician of New Jersey, died at Trenton, aged 65 years. He was a native of Harrisburg, Pa., but at nine years of age removed with his father to Trenton, N. J. After passing four years in the Friends' School of that city, he became so captivated with the opportunities of seeing books and newspapers in a printing-office, that he was permitted to enter it as an apprentice. Having access to a bookstore, and becoming a member of a debating club, he cultivated his taste for composition, and soon began to contribute in prose and poetry, to the newspaper of the town. In 1821 he was employed as editor of a weekly paper, the "Emporium," chiefly literary, and at the same time was a contributor to the Philadelphia "Monthly Magazine." In 1823 he entered upon the study of law, still continuing to devote six hours of every day to his duties as editor, which obliged him to do the greater part of his study in the night. In 1827 he was admitted to the bar, and in 1828 and 1829 was in the legislature. In 1831 he was appointed by the legislature to the lucrative office of Clerk of the Court of Chancery, which he held for ten years. In 1834 he was appointed (also by the legislature) an alderman, which gave him a seat as Judge in the Court of Quarter Sessions. At the close of his clerkship, his health requiring relaxation, he accompanied his brother—the late William S. Potts, D. D., of St. Louis—on a visit to Europe, from which he returned in 1841. In 1845 he was associated, by act of legislature, with ex

Governor Vroom, the present Chancellor Green, and the late Minister Dayton, on a commission to revise the laws of New Jersey, and besides performing his share of the revision, it devolved on him to arrange and systematize the result for publication. Upon the incorporation of the Lunatic Asylum of the State he was placed on the first board of managers, and was active in its affairs from 1847 till his resignation in 1852. In that year he was chosen a Justice of the Supreme Court, and at the close of the term of seven years retired from public life. In 1844 the honorary degree of Master of Arts was conferred on him by the College of New Jersey. Judge Potts was an active member of the Presbyterian Church, and was at different times connected with various boards and institutions of the Church at large. When a member of the General Assembly in 1851, he was made chairman of a special committee to arrange the complicated finances of the Church, and his report, published in full, elicited great admiration from its skill and perfectness. He devoted some of his later time to the composition of a work, entitled "The Christ of Revelation," designed to trace the Scriptural doctrine of the Redeemer from the prophecies to the life and teaching of the New Testament.

April 9.—SMITH, Brig.-Gen. THOMAS A., commanding the 2d division 2d army corps, was mortally wounded near Farmville, Va., by a shot from a sharpshooter on the 6th of April, and died at Petersburg. He was born in Ireland, but emigrated to this country when a boy, and settled at Wilmington, Del., where he engaged in the coachmaking business. At the opening of the war he recruited a company in Wilmington, and proceeded to Philadelphia and joined a three months' regiment then leaving for the Shenandoah valley. Returning home he was made major of the Delaware regiment then leaving for the seat of war, and rose gradually from that position to lieutenant-colonel and colonel, and soon was put in charge of a brigade, where he won a high reputation for his daring and skill. He was appointed to the rank of brigadier-general in the summer of 1864, for his gallant conduct at Cold Harbor.

April 11.—AARON, REV. SAMUEL, a Baptist clergyman, teacher, and author, died at Mount Holly, N. J., aged 65 years. He was a native of New Britain, Pa., and of Welsh-Irish extraction. Left an orphan at the early age of six years, he was placed under the care of an uncle, upon whose farm he worked for several years, spending a portion of the winter months in a district school. Inheriting a small patrimony from his father, when about sixteen years of age he entered the academy at Doylestown. At twenty, he connected himself with the Classical and Mathematical School at Burlington, N. J., as a student and assistant teacher, and subsequently, after his marriage, opened a day school at Bridge Point, and later became principal of an Academy at Doylestown. In 1829 he was ordained as a minister, and became

pastor of the Baptist church at New Britain. In 1833 he took charge of the Burlington High School, at the same time holding the pastorate of the church in that place. In 1841, accepting a call to the church at Norristown, Pa., he removed thither, and after preaching about three years, he resigned the pastorate, and removing to the suburbs, founded the "Treemount Seminary," which under his auspices became famous throughout Eastern Pennsylvania and New Jersey, not only for the number of its students, but for the thoroughness of the instruction afforded them. Becoming involved in the financial crisis of 1857, through endorsements for a friend, he gave up "Treemount" to his creditors, and removing to Mount Holly, accepted a call to the pastorate of the Baptist church—a position he retained till his death. In September of the same year, Mr. Aaron and his son Charles became the principals of the "Mount Holly Institute," continuing in the discharge of his duties up to the time of the brief illness which terminated his useful life. Mr. Aaron was twice tendered the presidency of the New York Central College. He was the author of many improvements in text-books.

April 11.—BOOTH, MRS. MARY H. C., an American poetess, died at New York city, aged 34 years. She was a native of Connecticut, and married early an editor of some note by the name of Booth, with whom she removed about fifteen years since to Milwaukee, Wis. Here she contributed occasionally to her husband's paper. After some years domestic trials invaded her home, and the sorrow which brooded over it from the misconduct of others, impaired her naturally frail constitution. By the advice of her friends she made the voyage to Europe, and amid the mountain air of Zurich, Switzerland, found the pulmonary disease which had threatened her life measurably checked. She resided in Zurich several years, corresponding with some American papers and periodicals, and in 1864 a little volume of her occasional poems and translations was published in Germany, though with a Milwaukee imprint also, under the title of "Wayside Blossoms." Finding that her disease was again assuming an aggravated form, and yearning to behold her native land once more, she returned in the autumn of 1864 to the United States, and took up her residence in New York. During the winter she suffered most intensely, but by the force of a strong will succeeded in revising her poems for a new edition before her death. Her poems evince talent of a very high order.

April 11.—SERGEANT, COL. WILLIAM, 210th Pennsylvania volunteers, and captain of the 12th infantry, U. S. A., was wounded on the 31st of March near Petersburg, and died on board the boat coming from City Point to Fortress Monroe. He was born in Philadelphia in 1830, and was the son of the late Hon. John Sergeant, and brother of Mrs. General Meade. He was educated for the bar, and had attained a high position, and represented his native city in

the legislature before the opening of the war. He volunteered early in the war, and soon after received an appointment as captain in the 12th U. S. infantry, in which position his gallantry in the peninsular and other campaigns, attracted the attention of his superiors. He was subsequently called to the command of the 210th Pennsylvania volunteers, and in the duties of his new post was as remarkable for his personal bravery as for the military talent which he had developed. He was gentle, open-hearted, and generous to a fault.

April 17.—**TYLER, CHARLES H.**, a brigadier-general in the rebel army, killed at West Point, Ga., in the battle at that point with Major-General Wilson's cavalry. He was a native of the South, and at the breaking out of the war a captain of dragoons in the U. S. army. His promotion was not rapid, and he had not apparently distinguished himself in the war.

April 21.—**COOK, GEN. WILLIAM**, Chief Engineer of the Camden and Amboy Railroad, and a leading citizen of New Jersey, died at Hoboken, N. J., in the 64th year of his age. He was a native of New Jersey, and a graduate of the U. S. Military Academy at West Point. Immediately upon graduating, he entered the Engineer corps of the army, and served for some years, being employed principally upon Government explorations and surveys. In 1830, he left the army to accept the position of Civil Engineer of the Camden and Amboy Railroad Company, in which position he remained until his death.

April 21.—**MURPHY, MATTHEW**, Col. 69th regiment N. Y. volunteers, died in New York, from wounds received at the battle of Hatcher's Run, Feb. 4, 1865. He was a native of Ireland, born Dec. 26, 1840, but had come to the United States in childhood. At the commencement of the war he was a teacher in Public School No. 24, and from patriotic impulses entered as a private in the 69th, but soon rose from the ranks by his merit, and on the return of the regiment to this city was elected its colonel, reorganized and filled up the regiment, and led it again to the field. He had taken part in most of the prominent battles, and had won the reputation of a brave and gallant officer.

April 22.—**McKEAN, WILLIAM W.**, U. S. N., a commodore in the naval service of the United States, died near Binghamton, N. Y., after a brief illness. He was born in Pennsylvania in 1801, being the son of Judge McKean and a nephew of Governor McKean. He entered the navy from Pennsylvania in November 1814, and had consequently been over fifty years in the service, twenty-five of them afloat. His last cruise was completed in June, 1862. In 1823-'24 he commanded a schooner in Porter's squadron, and was very active in suppressing piracy along the coast of Cuba, and among the islands of the West Indies. In 1860 he was sent on the special service of conveying the Japanese embassy home, and on his return was the first commander of the West Gulf blockading squad-

ron. He received his commission as commodore July 18, 1862. Like Rear-Admiral Foote, he was as eminent for his piety as for his skill and daring, and won the esteem of all who were under his command for his consistent and practical Christian character.

April 23.—**CREIGHTON, REV. WILLIAM, D. D.**, an American Episcopal clergyman, died at Tarrytown, N. Y., aged 73 years. He was a native of New York city, graduated at Columbia College, and during a great part of his earlier ministry was rector of St. Mark's Church. During the suspension of Bishop Onderdonk, he was elected Provisional Bishop of the Diocese of New York, but declined to accept the position, which was afterwards filled by the election of Dr. Wainwright. He presided in the Diocesan Convention for many years previous to this, and also presided in the Lower House of the General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church during its sessions of 1853, 1856, and 1859. At the time of his death, and for many years previously, he had been rector of Christ Church, Tarrytown.

April 24.—**GREENLEAF, REV. JONATHAN, D. D.**, an American Presbyterian clergyman, died in Brooklyn, N. Y., aged 80 years. He was a native of Newburyport, Mass., was licensed to preach in 1814, and commenced his first ministry in Wells, Me., where he continued until 1828, when he removed to Boston and became agent of the American Seamen's Friend Society. In 1833 he became corresponding secretary of the same society, which position he retained until 1841, when he resigned. Soon after he accepted the pastorate of the Franklin Avenue Presbyterian Church, Brooklyn (then known as the Wallabout Presbyterian Church), and continued in that position until his death.

April 26.—**BOOTH, JOHN WILKES**, the assassin of President Lincoln, died in Caroline County, Va., from a gunshot wound in the base of the brain, inflicted by Sergeant Boston Corbett. He was the third son of the celebrated but eccentric actor, Junius Brutus Booth, and was born in Harford County, Md., about thirty miles from Baltimore, in 1839. His early education was irregular and deficient in moral training, and in 1856 he adopted the stage as a profession. He attained some reputation as an actor, mainly in those parts requiring extravagant and violent displays of passion. His habits were dissipated in the last degree, but he possessed those traits which made him popular with his fellow-actors, who overlooked his vices in their liking for his traits of good fellowship. In person, he was a man of remarkable beauty, gracefulness, and physical strength. At the very commencement of the war he avowed himself a Secessionist, and had been throughout the war prone to the most violent language and action whenever the subject was discussed. Indeed, his conduct in this respect had latterly been so outrageous, that his elder brother, Edwin Booth, the tragedian, who was thoroughly loyal, felt constrained to forbid him his house.

In the spring of 1864 he virtually withdrew from the stage, and had appeared but once since that time, when he took part with his brothers in the performance of "Julius Cæsar," at the Winter Garden. He professed to have engaged in speculations in petroleum lands and oil; but there is reason to believe that this was mainly as a cover for the conspiracy for the capture or murder of the President, in which he had been involved for many months. He had repeatedly visited Canada during the year 1864 and the early months of 1865, and the evidence obtained on the trial of his fellow-conspirators indicated a scheme of abducting the President. The attempt to abduct Mr. Lincoln failed, and then Booth determined upon his murder. This he had attempted to accomplish on the day of the inauguration, but failing again, his fury, which grew by what it fed upon, led him to include in the massacre the principal members of the Cabinet, the Vice-President, and the Lieutenant-General. He addressed himself to the work of training his accomplices in Washington and its vicinity for their several parts. The murderous plot failed to kill any except the chief victim, though Mr. Seward and his son were saved from death almost by miracle. After firing the fatal shot at Mr. Lincoln, Booth leaped from the box to the stage, and his spur catching upon the flag which draped the front of the President's box, he fell upon the stage and fractured one of the bones of the leg, but springing up he flourished his bloody knife and shouting, "SIO SEMPER TYRANNIS," fled across the stage to a private entrance, where one of his accomplices was holding a horse for him. Accompanied by Harold, another accomplice, he passed rapidly across the Long Bridge into Virginia, and turning southward rode nearly thirty miles, to the residence of Dr. Mudd, where his broken limb was set. The doctor aided in concealing him, and finally conveyed him across a swamp from whence he escaped still farther southward, traversed the northern neck of Virginia, and crossing the Rappahannock at Swan Point, where he paid \$300 for a boat to take himself and his companion over, he made his way with great difficulty to Garrett's farm, near Bowling Green, about twenty miles below Fredericksburg. Colonel Baker, of the War Detective Police, had been following his trail indefatigably, and on the night of the 25th of April, a squad of his detectives under his brother, Lieut. Baker, had traced him to Garrett's farm, and by threats had compelled Garrett's sons to show them the barn in which he was concealed. They summoned him to surrender, but he refused obstinately, and they finally set fire to the barn. He then aimed at Lieut. Baker, and one of the detectives, Sergeant Boston Corbett, fired at him, and the ball took effect in the base of the brain, near the point where his bullet had wounded President Lincoln. He lived three hours, perfectly conscious, and in great agony, and died about 7 A. M. of the 26th of April, eleven days after his victim.

April 30.—LATTI, A. B., the inventor of steam fire-engines, died in Ludlow, Kentucky, aged 44 years.

April —.—MOORE, AUGUSTUS OLCOTT, publisher of works upon agricultural subjects, died at New York city, aged 43 years. He was a native of Columbus, Ga., and removed at an early age with his parents to Ohio, in which State, at the age of 19 years, he purchased and worked a farm. Subsequently he went into the banking business in Cincinnati, but after several years' experience, his love of art led him to leave mercantile life and devote his time and attention to painting, for which he had a decided talent. In 1853 he removed to New York and engaged in the publishing business, but the close confinement bringing on hemorrhage of the lungs, he relinquished it in 1859, and spent some time travelling in Europe, California, and Central America, frequently contributing articles for "The Agriculturist," illustrated by his own pencil. He returned from Europe in the fall of 1864.

April —.—SELDEN, GEORGE N., a philanthropist and leading citizen of Troy, N. Y., died in that city. He bequeathed the bulk of his large property to benevolent objects, among which was \$25,000 for the founding of an institution, to be known as the "Selden Institute," for the education, bringing up, and maintenance of female nurses.

April —.—WILLARD, DR. SYLVESTER D., Surgeon-General of the State of New York, died at Albany.

May 1.—DE HAVEN, Lieut. EDWIN J. U. S. N., died at Philadelphia. He was born in that city in 1819, and entered the navy in 1829, being but ten years of age. He had been nearly thirty-six years in the service, about one-half of it in the sea service, but owing to impaired vision had been placed on the retired list. His last cruise was completed in 1857. He was a man of fine scientific abilities, and was often detailed for special service. He commanded the first Arctic exploring expedition, of which Dr. Kane wrote so graphic an account. Lieut. De Haven was for several years employed in the National Observatory, under Maury, who was indebted to him for much of the scientific reputation he attained.

May 8.—ORAM, Miss ELIZABETH, a teacher and authoress, died in Georgetown, D. C., aged 75 years. She was for many years a successful teacher in New York city, and was extensively known as the author of many elementary educational works, a Magnetic Globe, for which she received a patent under the administration of Gen. Jackson in 1831, and of numerous fugitive essays in poetry and prose. She also published translations of several works from the German and French into English, and from English into German and French.

May 8.—REYNOLDS, JOHN, formerly Governor of Illinois, died at Belleville, Ill., aged 76 years. He was a native of Montgomery County, Pa., and was born of Irish parents, who had landed

from an emigrant ship at Philadelphia three years before. When a lad, his family removed to Illinois, and in 1805 he entered school in Kaskaskia, attending only in the winter season. By his perseverance he made rapid progress in his studies, and in 1835 was a Representative in Congress, and again from 1839 to 1843. He was Governor of Illinois from 1830 to 1834.

May 12.—WILLARD, JOSEPH, antiquarian, author, and Master in Chancery, died in Boston, Mass., aged 67 years. He was a native of Cambridge, Mass., and at ten years of age entered Phillips' Academy, where he remained two years. He then returned to Cambridge to a private classical and mercantile school, from which he entered Harvard College; graduated in the class of 1816; studied law with Charles Humphrey Atherton, of Amherst, N. H., and first settled in Waltham; then went to Lancaster, and finally to Boston about 1829. While in Lancaster he wrote his very valuable and exact history of that town, being one of the earliest pioneers in that department of our New England literature. He also wrote the life of his ancestor, Simon Willard, containing the genealogies of the family down to the fourth generation. He was chosen a member of the Massachusetts Historical Society 29th January, 1829, and made its corresponding secretary, which office he held until April, 1864, when on account of ill health he declined a reelection. In 1838 Governor Everett appointed him Master in Chancery under the Insolvency act of that year, and he held the same until the Masters in Chancery were superseded by the Commissioners of Insolvency. In 1839 he was appointed by the Supreme Judicial Court joint clerk of the Courts of Suffolk (Supreme and Common Pleas), with George C. Wilde. In 1856 these offices becoming elective, he was chosen clerk of the Superior Court (which replaced the Common Pleas) for five years, and again in 1861 for a like term. He was also for about the same period, and until his death, one of the trustees of the old Boston Library.

May 18.—ARPIN, PAUL, an editor and author, died in New York, aged 54 years. He was a native of France, and the oldest French journalist in the United States. He was a large contributor to the "American Cyclopædia;" was for a long time editor of "The New Orleans Bee," and was more recently editor of "The Courrier des Etats Unis."

May 21.—PINCKNEY, WILLIAM T., formerly a prominent politician of New York city, died of apoplexy. He represented the Seventh Ward in the Board of Education for more than twelve years, and when the first ten governors were appointed over the Almshouse, he was designated by the Governor of the State to occupy one of the chairs. After the completion of his term he was reappointed to fill a vacancy occurring in the Board, and subsequently was reelected to the position by the people. He was President of the Astor Fire Insurance

Company from its organization, retaining that position until his death.

May 28.—BIGELOW, TYLER, a lawyer and philanthropist, died at Watertown, Mass., aged 86 years. He was a native of Worcester, Mass.; was fitted for college at the High School in that town, graduated with a high rank of scholarship at Harvard College in 1801; studied law, and entered upon the practice of his profession in Leominster, and in 1805 at Watertown, where he resided until his death. He soon rose to a high position at the bar, but before reaching the prime of life was obliged to give up practice on account of deafness. By his last will Mr. B. left to Harvard College the sum of ten thousand dollars as a fund for the maintenance and support of indigent and meritorious students.

May 26.—McMURTRIE, HENRY, M. D., late Professor of Anatomy and Philosophy in the High School of Philadelphia, died in that city, aged 78 years. He was the author of some valuable text-books.

May —.—EMERSON, GEORGE H., a chemist and author, died in Greenfield, Mass., aged 27 years. He was a young man of great promise, and his researches had already contributed much to the progress of the science of Blowpipe Analysis. He was the author of an essay on "Crystals and Precipitates in Blowpipe Beads."

June 2.—NICHOLS, CHARLES, formerly U. S. Consul to Amsterdam, died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 75 years. He was a descendant of Sir Richard Nichols, the first colonial Governor in New York, and graduated at Yale College in the class of 1812. Early in life he removed to New York city and engaged in mercantile pursuits, being a member of the well-known firm of "Palmer & Nichols." He was appointed consul to Amsterdam, Holland, by President Tyler, and served also in that capacity during the administration of President Polk.

June 18.—CAMPBELL, COL. J. CLEVELAND, 23d U. S. C. T., died at Castleton, N. Y., from injuries received at the explosion of the mine at Petersburg, July 30, 1864. He was born in New York in July, 1836, and graduated successively at the Free Academy, Union College, and the University of Gottingen. Early in the war he entered as a private in the 44th N. Y. volunteers, was soon promoted to be a lieutenant on Gen. Palmer's staff, was next adjutant of the 152d N. Y. volunteers, then captain in Upton's 121st N. Y. volunteers, and after passing a most brilliant examination was commissioned lieutenant-colonel, and finally colonel of the 23d U. S. C. T. He led his regiment into the hottest of the fight at Petersburg, when the mine exploded, and left in and around that awful crater nearly 400 of his men, killed or wounded. His lung was confused and ruptured by a bursting shell, which eventually caused his death.

June 18.—DORT, HON. JAMES DUANE, an

American statesman, died at Salt Lake City, aged 65 years. He was a native of New York, but in early life removed to Wisconsin Territory, from whence he was sent a delegate to Congress, from 1839 to 1841, and was a Representative in Congress from that State from 1849 to 1858. He was also for many years U. S. Judge for Northern Michigan, and from 1841 to 1844 Governor of Wisconsin. In the fall of 1861 he was appointed Superintendent of Indian Affairs, and in 1863 was made Governor of Utah.

June 14.—PAGE, COL. JOHN HAM WILLIAMS, a lawyer and president of the Cape Cod Railroad Company, was drowned in Boston Harbor, aged 60 years. He fitted for college at Phillips' Academy, graduated at Harvard College in 1826, and studied law in the Law School at Cambridge and also at New Bedford, where he practiced his profession twelve years. He then removed to Boston to become treasurer of the Lawrence Machine Company. He was afterwards chosen president of the Cape Cod Railroad Company, which office he held at the time of his death. He was a representative in the State Legislature from New Bedford in 1844, 1845, and 1846; was a member of the Executive Council of Governor Clifford in 1853, and of Governor Washburn in 1854. He was several times affected with mental aberration, and while in this state he ended his life.

June 16.—RUGGLES, HON. CHARLES H., an eminent American jurist, died at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., aged about 75 years. He was a native of Litchfield Co., Connecticut, and was a member of the New York Assembly in 1820, and a Representative in Congress from that State from 1821 to 1823. After a successful career in the practice of his profession, he was appointed one of the eight Circuit Judges, under the Constitution of 1821, in which position he served with the entire approbation of the bar and the community for several years. When the Convention for revising the Constitution sat in 1846, he took his seat as a member from the county of Dutchess, and, by common consent, was placed at the head of the committee appointed to prepare the new judicial system to be established. He was made Judge of the Court of Appeals on its first organization, and in 1853 was presiding Judge. In 1855 Judge Ruggles retired from the bench on account of failing health.

June 17.—RUFFIN, EDMUND, a prominent Southern politician and agriculturist, died by his own hand, near Danville, Va., aged 80 years. He was a native of Virginia, and an active participant in the war, having made his boast of being the first to fire upon Fort Sumter. Previous to the war he devoted much attention to the subject of agriculture, was president of the Agricultural Society of Virginia, and for some years published "The Farmer's Register" at Petersburg. He was also the author of a popular volume on calcareous manures.

June 26.—GRUNDY, REV. R. C., D.D., a Presbyterian clergyman, died in Dayton, Ohio. He was a native of Kentucky, and a graduate of Princeton Theological Seminary. Early in his ministerial career he was settled at Maysville, Ky., where he labored zealously and effectively for many years. Subsequently he accepted a call from the Second Presbyterian Church at Memphis, Tenn. Here he labored until the war broke up the relations between himself and his church, being driven from the pastorate because of his attachment to the Union. He remained, however, in Memphis, preaching most of the time in a public hall, without compensation, until that city was occupied by the Union forces. Soon thereafter he was called to the pulpit of the Central Presbyterian Church in Dayton, where he remained until his death.

June 29.—BOLLES, ENOCH, a prominent citizen of Newark, N. J., died in that city, aged 86 years. He was a native of Connecticut, and in his early days followed the sea. The vessel in which he sailed was imprisoned in Charleston harbor by the embargo early in this century, and returning North, he engaged in the shoe business in Newark, and subsequently was for forty years principally engaged in real estate speculations, by which, through the growth of the city, he amassed a large fortune. He was for a long period on the town committee, and was a member of the first common council of the city in 1836, and also in 1837 and 1840.

June 29.—MCCLANAHAN, COL. JOHN R., of the Confederate army, and editor of the "Memphis Appeal," was killed by a fall from the window of the Gayoso House, Memphis. In 1860 he was a warm supporter of Mr. Douglas for the Presidency. He subsequently engaged in the war, and on the approach of the national troops removed his publishing office to Grenada, Miss., and thence in rapid succession to numerous other points. After the close of the war he returned to Memphis. He was considered a fine scholar and an able writer.

June 30.—ORCHARD, REV. ISAAC, city missionary and author, died in New York, in the 80th year of his age. He was a native of England, converted at the age of 13 years, and soon after attaining his majority entered the ministry, and eventually became the pastor of an Independent or Congregational church at Walworth, near London. In 1828 he was led to unite with the Baptist Church, and a few years subsequently emigrated with his family to America, landing in New York, during the visitation of the Asiatic cholera. After laboring for a short time as pastor of the Baptist church at West Troy, and afterwards as an instructor in an educational institution at Haddington, near Philadelphia, he took up his final residence in New York, in 1836, in connection with the City Tract Society, where he continued till his death. He was the author of several tracts and controversial works.

June.—FRY, JOSEPH REESE, a Philadelphia

banker, and music and art connoisseur, died in that city of dropsy. He was widely known for his connection with music, criticism, and the literature of the operatic stage. He was a son of William Fry, who for many years published "The National Gazette," a celebrated daily newspaper, which for a long time enjoyed a high reputation for its articles on foreign politics. In connection with this paper, Mr. J. R. Fry, like his brother William, acquired a penchant for literary and art pursuits, which adhered to him through life. He was an accomplished scholar, well versed in several languages, especially familiar with the history and literature of music, and wrote with facility and taste. He translated and adapted Bellini's great opera of Norma, from the Italian, for the celebrated Wood-English opera troupe, and with his brothers, William and Edward, superintended its production here in a style truly memorable. He was the author of the libretto of the opera of Leonora, of which his brother William composed the music, and also of the libretto of the opera of Notre Dame, which was produced under his direction at the Academy of Music in such splendid style. Mr. Fry was a man of truly remarkable energy in whatever he undertook, and the events of his life abound in illustrations of the success with which he achieved seemingly impossible things by mere force of character. The production of Norma and Notre Dame here under his auspices was in each case far beyond all rivalry, and marked the man as a phenomenon in his way. The Union League Brigade, raised for service in the field at the time of deep gloom, was largely indebted to his efforts for its existence. Throughout his life he was thoroughly identified with the growth and prosperity of the city of his birth.

June.—BUCKMINSTER, WILLIAM, the founder, editor, and publisher of the Massachusetts "Ploughman," died at Framingham, Mass., aged 83 years.

July 4.—DUNDAS, JAMES, a prominent citizen of Philadelphia, formerly president of the Pennsylvania Bank, died at Philadelphia, aged 77 years. He was a native of Alexandria, Va., and at the time of his death was president of the Pennsylvania Horticultural Society.

July 8.—MULLIGAN, BILLY, a notorious rough, was shot and killed by a policeman in San Francisco. In 1856 he was the leader of a gang of outlaws infesting that city, and together with others was expatriated by the Vigilance Committee. In a fit of delirium tremens he fired upon and killed two men, and was about to fire again when killed as above stated.

July 10.—TILLOU, FRANÇOIS R., an eminent jurist and ex-Recorder of New York, died at Tilletudlem, N. J., aged 70 years. He was a prominent city politician, and for a time Governor of the Almshouse.

July 13.—HESTON, REV. NEWTON, a Congregational clergyman, and pastor of the State Street Congregational church, Brooklyn, L. I.,

died in that city of apoplexy, aged 44 years. He was a native of Pennsylvania, was converted at the age of fifteen, united with the Methodist Church, and at nineteen was considered a preacher of great power. He subsequently (in 1862) became connected with the Congregationalists. As a pastor he was devoted to his work, and his faithful, self-denying efforts for the conversion of souls were abundantly blessed. He was the author of several books for children, some of which had a large circulation.

July 16.—JORDAN, AMBROSE L., an eminent lawyer of New-York city, died at his residence, aged 76 years. He entered upon the practice of his profession in 1812 at Cooperstown, N. Y. After a period of some years he removed to Hudson City, and remained there in business until 1838, when he took up his residence in New York. He was a member of the Assembly, a State Senator, Judge of the Court of Errors, and Attorney-General. In each of these positions he filled with honor his sphere of duty, discharging the responsibilities of his office with rare fidelity and skill.

July 16.—JUMEL, MADAME ELIZA B., a French widow, who married Aaron Burr in 1792, died at Washington Heights, New York city, in the 92d year of her age. She was born of an English mother, Mrs. Capet, in the cabin of a French frigate which was carrying troops to the West Indies from La Brest. The mother dying at her birth, she was placed by the captain in the custody of a Mrs. Thompson, at Newport, R. I. Soon after attaining the age of seventeen years, Miss Capet became acquainted with a British officer, Col. P. Croix; an elopement followed, upon which they took up their residence in New York city. Brought into the highest circles by her position, her beauty and attractive manners made her a favorite with some of the most prominent men of that time, among whom may be mentioned Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, and Gen. Knox. She was a woman of unbounded ambition, and it is no matter of wonder that her reputation suffered materially, by the scandal of those who witnessed her triumphs. Early in this century she married a French wine-merchant named Stephen Jumel, who became noted for his wealth and liberality. They went to Paris, purchased a magnificent establishment, and under the social patronage of Lafayette and his contemporaries, Madame Jumel became as noted in the *salons* of the French capital as in the parlors of the Western metropolis. But her life of prodigality made sad inroads upon her husband's fortune, he became dispirited, and, failing to arouse him to the necessary exertion, she broke up their establishment, returned to New York, and retiring to an estate of her own, devoted herself to the restoration of her husband's fortune, with such success that in 1828 he returned to this country, once more possessed of ample means. After his death business led her to seek legal advice of Aaron Burr, with whom in earlier

days she had been quite intimately acquainted, and who had reached by this time the age of 78 years. Soon after, he sought her hand in marriage, and after several decided rejections she was finally induced to give her consent. A few days after the wedding she placed a large sum in his hands, which was subsequently irretrievably lost in a Texan speculation, of which no mention was made to her; and upon her inquiries, his reply was such as to cause a coolness between them, which, aggravated by further speculations and losses, finally induced her to file a complaint against him, praying that he might have no further control or authority over her affairs. A separation ensued, though the marriage contract was never dissolved by law. Since then, Madame Jumel has resided in comparative retirement on Washington Heights.

July 17.—**BAILEY, HON. GEORGE W.**, Secretary of State of Vermont, died at his residence in Montpelier. He had held the above-mentioned office for four years, discharging the duties of his position with credit to himself and to the State.

July 18.—**BILLINGS, BENJAMIN L.**, an eminent lawyer of New York, died of apoplexy on the steamboat *Matteawan* while taking his family to Keyport, N. J. He was a practitioner of great ability and research.

July 18.—**HAYWARD, NATHANIEL**, an American inventor and manufacturer, died at Colchester, Conn., aged 57 years. He was a native of Easton, Conn., and resided there and at other places in the State until 1847, when he removed to Colchester. In 1837 he discovered the process of combining rubber gum with sulphur, which was the beginning of the successful manufacture of rubber cloth. This discovery he sold in 1838 to Charles Goodyear, of New Haven, who soon after secured a patent for it. In 1843 Mr. Hayward invented the process of preparing fire-proof or vulcanized rubber, and in that year he made the first rubber shoes that had been made from sheet-rubber, at Woburn. He soon after discovered a method for giving high polish to rubber shoes, and in 1847 established the Hayward Rubber Company at Colchester, which for several years employed five hundred hands in the manufacture of rubber boots and shoes, and is still one of the largest rubber shoe manufactories in the country. Latterly, he had taken a greater personal interest in the rubber mills at Stoneham, which have turned out large numbers of pontoons for army use, and other varieties of rubber manufacture. Mr. H. was always among the foremost in works of practical benevolence and local improvement, and has left a large estate and an excellent reputation as a moral and business man.

July 18.—**NICHOLAS, CAPT. JOHN S.**, U. S. N., died at Bound Brook, N. J., in the 65th year of his age. He was a native and citizen of Virginia, from which State he was appointed in June, 1815. He received his last commission in 1855, and saw two years of sea service under it, making nearly twenty years spent at sea out

of forty-nine in the navy. He was a classmate of the late Admiral Du Pont, and was last ordered to some special duty under the War Department.

July 22.—**CARROLL, HON. CHARLES H.**, a prominent lawyer and politician of Livingston County, N. Y., died at his residence in Groveland, in the 71st year of his age. He was a native of Maryland, and removed with his father to Livingston County in 1815, where he has resided since, except during a few years' absence in Missouri, occupied in the supervision of the large estate of the family. He studied law with John C. Spencer, in Canandaigua, but never practiced, although he served one or two terms as Judge of Livingston County. He was a member of Assembly in 1836, and represented his district in Congress from 1848 to 1847. He was the last male representative of his family. His elder brother, Henry, was secretary to Henry Clay while Commissioner at Ghent, and was killed in 1820, in Missouri. Dr. Daniel J. died in New York, and the younger of the three brothers, Wm. T., died while holding the office of Clerk of the Supreme Court of the United States.

Judge Carroll was a man of positive character. Although not brilliant, he was an intelligent and forcible debater, and wielded, for many years, a commanding political influence in his district. He was a life-long and devoted friend of Henry Clay, an ardent Whig until that party was merged into other organizations, when he passed over into the American party, and subsequently identified himself with the Democracy. But during the war, he was thoroughly for the Union, and was happy that he lived to see the rebellion subdued. He was of a genial disposition, but found his greatest pleasure in superintending his large estate, in developing its agricultural resources, and in improving the breed of horses and cattle. In this he rendered a great service to the section of country where he lived for half a century.

July 23.—**SPEDDEN, ROBERT**, ex-Lieut. U. S. N., died at New Orleans, aged 83 years. He entered the navy early in the present century, and left it in 1824. In 1814 he took a prominent part in the defence of New Orleans, losing an arm at the fight of Lake Borgne. In 1824 he resigned his commission, and settled permanently in New Orleans, where he occupied the highest social position, and held from time to time many offices of trust, such as port warden, harbor master, and coroner of the parish of New Orleans.

July 24.—**TAYLOR, REV. FITCH W.**, an Episcopal clergyman, and senior chaplain in the United States Navy, died in Boston, aged 64 years.

July 25.—**COOK, REV. EDWIN R. T.**, an Episcopal clergyman, rector of Wainwright Memorial Church, New York, died in that city, aged 40 years. He was an able, devoted, and efficient pastor, and his labors had been signally blessed to the prosperity of his church.

July 30.—INGRAM, ALEXANDER, M. D., a surgeon of the U. S. Army, was lost in the wreck of the steamship Brother Jonathan, off the coast of Oregon. Dr. Ingram was born in Scotland, during the temporary sojourn there of his parents—both American citizens. He entered the army of the United States in May, 1861, ranking sixth in a class of twenty members. In January, 1862, he was on duty with the 2d cavalry at Cantonment Holt, Washington. He served with credit to his corps and with eminent satisfaction to the regiment, and was with it through all its campaigns with the Army of the Potomac until January, 1863. He was then ordered to Washington, and assigned to the charge of St. Aloysius Hospital, and when that was broken up, was transferred, as surgeon in charge, to Judiciary Square Hospital. In September, 1864, he was ordered to California, and put on a board for the examination of applicants for appointment as assistant-surgeon of volunteers. After being relieved from this duty, he was appointed chief surgeon of the troops in Southern California. When Gen. Wright was ordered to the command of the Northern Division of the Pacific coast, the medical director of the department, knowing the eminent fitness of Dr. Ingram for the position, assigned him as the chief medical officer of Gen. Wright's command.

July 30.—NISBET, JAMES, an American editor and author, was lost in the wreck of the Brother Jonathan, off the coast of Oregon, aged about 65 years. He was by birth a Scotchman, and having been somewhat unsuccessful in his career as novelist and journalist in England and Australia, he removed to California not far from 1855. His first literary venture in this country was "The Annals of San Francisco," which, although pecuniarily a failure, led to his employment as news editor on "The Chronicle." Later, he accepted a like position on "The Bulletin," then edited by James King, who was subsequently assassinated during the disturbances prior to the reign of the Vigilance Committee. Upon the death of Mr. King, Mr. Nisbet became editor of that paper.

August 3.—BERGEN, PETER G., ex-Judge of Kings County Court, died in Brooklyn, L. I. He was a descendant of the early Dutch settlers of Long Island, and for a quarter of a century had been identified with the popular interests of the city of Brooklyn. He was at one time county judge, and besides other offices of honor and trust, was for twenty-two years a prominent and valued member of the Board of Education.

August 3.—McLOUGHLIN, Rev. F. T., a Roman Catholic clergyman, died in New York city, aged 29 years. He was born in the parish of Aglia, Upper Canada, and at an early age entered the College of St. Michael, Toronto. The office of the priesthood being evidently his vocation, Mr. McLoughlin came to the United States, and was received into the Seminary of St. Mary's, Baltimore, Md. His theological

studies having been completed, he was ordained priest by Bishop Loughlin, in the Cathedral of St. James, Brooklyn, for that diocese. Soon thereafter he was assigned to the parish of Flatbush, where he ministered with zeal and fidelity to the people committed to his care, until his health became visibly impaired, when he was translated to the Church of the Assumption, Brooklyn. Here he continued the studies of his office, and won, by his attention to the best interests of his people, the sincere admiration of all. Again was he assailed by disease, which the best medical skill could not overcome, and was obliged to cease his labors and retire to the country, where he could obtain that repose so essential to his complaint. At the time of his death he had just returned from a voyage to Europe, whither he had been for the benefit of his health.

August 11.—CAMPBELL, DUNCAN R., D. D., a Baptist clergyman, and for many years President of Georgetown College, Ky., died at Covington, Ky., aged about 63 years. He was a native of Scotland, and a graduate of one of the Scottish universities, but came to this country while yet a young man, and after spending some years in the pastorate, in which he was justly admired for his abilities as a preacher, he came to Georgetown, Ky., first as pastor of the Baptist Church in that flourishing town, and on Rev. Dr. Malcom's resignation of the presidency of the college in 1849, succeeded him in that office, which position he retained until his death. The college had been prosperous under his administration, until the commencement of the war, when the students very generally enlisted on one side or the other, and the classes were exceedingly small till the close of the war. Dr. Campbell was a man of fine culture, and extensive as well as thorough scholarship, both in belles-lettres and theology.

August 11.—SHERMAN, Hon. J. H., U. S. Consul to Prince Edward Island, died at his residence in Charlottetown, in the 68d year of his age. He was a native of Albany, N. Y., and early became interested in steam navigation. In 1880 he was master of the Hudson River steamer De Witt Clinton. Of late years he had resided in Vermont, and was appointed to the consulate from thence in 1861. The climate of Prince Edward Island acted unfavorably upon his lungs, and, after a long struggle against disease, congestion set in and proved fatal.

August 14.—MATTINGLY, JAMES F., manager of the American Telegraph for sixteen years, died in Baltimore, Md., of consumption.

Aug. 19.—DODD, Rev. EDWARD MILLS, missionary of the American Board at Constantinople, died of cholera at Marsovan, Turkey. He was born at Bloomfield, N. J., June 22, 1824. His father was an elder in the Presbyterian church at Bloomfield. After receiving a good school education he became a clerk in a store in his native place in 1839, and that year having become hopefully a Christian, felt that

it was his duty to prepare for the ministry, and commenced a course of preparatory study. He entered Princeton College in 1840, and graduated in 1844. After spending one year in teaching, and three in the Union Theological Seminary, New York, he was licensed to preach by the Newark Presbytery in 1848, having two years previously decided to become a missionary. He was ordained in June, 1848, at Newark, married the following October, and sailed from Boston for Smyrna in January, 1849. He was first assigned to a mission to the Jews at Salonica. After a little more than three years' service, the state of his health was such that he was constrained to return to the United States. Having recovered his health he again sailed for Smyrna in September, 1855, and for the next eight years labored as a missionary among the Armenians at Smyrna. In 1863 he was transferred from Smyrna to Marsovan with special reference to the superintendence of the girls' boarding-school to be opened there. The organization of this school was unavoidably delayed till the summer of 1865, and meantime Mr. Dodd was engaged in ordinary missionary labors, and in preparing the building, &c., for the school. It had been opened but two months when he was attacked with cholera, and died after only twelve hours' illness. Though a constant sufferer from feeble health, Mr. Dodd was a very active and useful missionary. He was an excellent Turkish and Hebrew scholar, and had contributed a large number of hymns of great merit to the Turkish hymn book.

Aug. 19.—SEWALL, KIAH B., an eminent lawyer of Mobile, died at Boston, aged 58 years. He was a native of Edgecomb, Maine, and a son of the late Rev. Samuel Sewall, of that State, widely known and honored as an example of piety and faithful service in the ministry. Mr. Sewall graduated at Bowdoin College in 1829, with high honor, his scholarship giving him the position of President of the Penicinnian Society, one of the chief literary associations of the college. After graduation he was selected as a tutor in the Gardiner Lyceum, where he remained two years; thence he removed to New York, and after teaching there two years, went to St. Louis and travelled over Missouri and Illinois. Returning to Portland, he engaged in speculation. In 1838 Mr. Sewall commenced the study of law in New York, to which he carried matured powers of mind and varied experience, which qualified him for the reception of the subtle principles of jurisprudence, and the discharge of the duties of a profession requiring keenness of perception, calmness of judgment, and readiness in the use of his faculties. Thus equipped for the practical duties of life, he entered upon the pursuit of his profession in Mobile with ardor and success. He soon acquired a high standing at the bar, and prominent official station; every thing was bright and encouraging before him, when the war broke out and dashed his fond hopes and well-founded expectations. Mr. Sewall,

from his New England education, from his ancestral antecedents, and from his firm Northern principles, could be no other than a Union man. For this he had been badgered by the Secessionists among whom he was living, and had been subjected to great pecuniary loss and peril to his life. Even after Mobile surrendered, the expression of loyalty to the United States Government was attended with inconvenience if not actual danger. But Mr. Sewall, nothing daunted by the threatening aspects around him, persevered to maintain the highest expression of devotion to the Union and its flag. At the meeting of loyal citizens on June 6th last, he was appointed chairman of a committee, and reported and advocated a series of resolutions expressive of devotion to the Constitution and laws of the United States, and of a desire on the part of the citizens of Mobile and Baldwin Counties for a reorganization of Government under that Constitution. Although these resolutions encountered severe opposition, they were carried by the earnest advocacy of Mr. Sewall and his associates. He did not cease in his efforts for the cause of the country and a peaceful submission to its laws, up to the time of his departure from the city in the early part of August; and it was his intention to return immediately, to give his effectual aid to the cause of a good, peaceful, and stable Government under the old Constitution. After more than four years of anxious solicitude and constant peril in Mobile, he was conducting his wife, with her children, to visit Portland, her native place, when he was seized, upon his passage up the Mississippi, with a severe cold, which terminated in his death in Boston, having the previous day reached that city, in a state of complete exhaustion.

Aug. 21.—HARDING, JESPER, Collector of Internal Revenue, and former editor and publisher of the Philadelphia "Inquirer," died at Philadelphia, aged 65 years. He was a native of that city, and was educated a printer in the office of the "United States Gazette." At twenty-eight years of age he commenced the publication of the "Inquirer," which, through his energy and industry, proved a decided success. In 1835 he commenced the publication of Bibles, and gradually extended his operations until he became the most extensive publisher in that line in the country. He was also largely engaged in the manufacture of paper at Trenton. The commercial disaster of 1857, which brought ruin upon so many, did not spare him; and during the administration of President Lincoln he became Collector of Internal Revenue for the First District of Pennsylvania. His health had been failing for a year previous to his death, and he had recently gone to Cape May in the hope of receiving some benefit, but was there stricken by paralysis.

Aug. 22.—MC CARTHY, Judge FLORENCE, of the New York Marine Court, died in New York city. As a jurist he was industrious, faithful, and honest, always carefully investi-

gating the cases submitted to him for adjudication.

Aug. 25.—**SWEAT, MOSES, M. D.**, an eminent physician and anatomist of Maine, died in North Parsonfield, Me., aged 77 years. He was widely known among the profession as one of the most skilful anatomists of his day, and many of his most difficult and successful operations are recorded in the leading surgical works. He was in the House of Representatives several terms, and was also a member of the State Senate.

Aug. 25.—**THOMAS, MOSES**, trade sale and real estate auctioneer, died in Philadelphia, at the age of about eighty-four years. Mr. Thomas was for many years engaged in the publishing business, but relinquished it for the sale of real estate, dry goods, etc., at auction nearly thirty years since. For the last sixteen or eighteen years he had also, in connection with his sons, held the semi-annual book-trade sales in Philadelphia. He was a man of rare integrity and superior business ability, and had won the confidence of the community by the upright and honorable manner in which he conducted his business.

Aug. 25.—**WHEATON, HENRY G.**, an eminent lawyer of New York, was killed by a railroad accident in New York city, aged 59 years. He entered the legal profession at an early age, in Albany, and by his assiduity and perseverance in a short time attained to a very high position at the bar. For many years he held the highest rank as a criminal lawyer in that city, and prosecuted, as District Attorney, some of the most important causes ever tried in that State. Thorough in his preparation, his acuteness, perseverance, and logical powers were always equal to the occasion. He was equally distinguished as a popular orator and a parliamentary debater, and for several years was a member of the Assembly from Albany. About ten years since he removed to New York city, and there also stood high as an advocate in the civil and municipal courts of the city.

Aug. 26.—**HOPKINS, G. R.**, chief engineer of the Cali and Buenaventura Railroad, died at Buenaventura. Mr. Hopkins, who held a high rank in his profession, offered his services some time since to the Government of Colombia, to construct the great wagon-road from Cali to Buenaventura, on the Pacific, through the fertile valley of the Cauca, and was employed by Gen. Mosquera as assistant engineer. He performed his duties with such credit to himself that he was soon promoted to the position of engineer-in-chief, and was progressing successfully with the work, but the humidity of the climate affected his health, which was never very robust, and he soon sank under the exposure incident to his professional duties.

Aug. 27.—**TUTHILL, FRANK, M. D.**, editor of the "San Francisco Bulletin," and former assistant editor of the "New York Times," died in Brooklyn, aged 48 years. He was a native of Suffolk County, L. I., graduated at Amherst

College, at the early age of eighteen years, studied medicine in New York, and, ere he had scarcely attained his majority, commenced the practice of his profession in the vicinity of his early home. After a period of seven years he removed to New York, and having great literary taste, soon after the "Times" was established he began to write for its columns, manifesting such marked ability and originality that he accepted an invitation to embrace journalism as a profession, and abandon the practice of medicine. He remained in that office until 1859, when he resigned his desk to go to San Francisco, upon an engagement with the "Bulletin," where his talents were soon so highly appreciated that he was taken into a partnership by its proprietors, with whom he was still associated at the time of his death. Dr. Tuthill held a seat in the Legislature of New York, as a representative from Suffolk County, in 1851, and again in 1859, from the city of Brooklyn. As a legislator his course was marked by intelligence, industry, fidelity, and an integrity which no man thought of questioning. So well satisfied were his constituents with his services, that he was renominated for the Legislature in 1859, but declined because of his engagement to go to the Pacific. In California, as already intimated, he speedily made his mark as an editor, a philanthropist, and a friend. Nearly a year ago he left San Francisco for Europe, to recuperate his failing health. A few weeks previous to his death he returned from a tour in Spain, France, Switzerland, and Italy, greatly benefited by the journey, and confident that he would return to California by steamer of the 16th September, to resume his professional duties with renewed energy and strength. The last work in which Dr. T. engaged was the completion of a history of California, finishing its preface and reading his last proof-sheets but a few days previous to his death.

Aug. 30.—**DRAPER, Brevet Brig.-Gen. A. G.**, U. S. volunteers, died from the effects of a wound received in Texas. Early in the war he recruited a company of volunteers for the 14th Massachusetts regiment, and was commissioned captain, July 5, 1861. In January, 1863, he was promoted major, and after being transferred to a colored regiment was promoted to a colonelcy. He was attached to the Twenty-fifth Corps, and for a month had charge of a brigade in Maj.-Gen. Paine's division, where his gallantry won for him the title of brevet brigadier-general. A few months previous to his death he left Virginia for Texas, with the Twenty-fifth Corps.

Aug. 30.—**JORDAN, SAMUEL**, paymaster U. S. Navy, died at Poland, Maine. He was a native of Maine, graduated with high honors in the class of 1861 at Bowdoin College, and immediately entered the navy, serving on the blockade along the coast, and latterly in the West Gulf Department, where he contracted the disease which ended a promising career.

Aug. 30.—**LIVERMORE, GEORGE**, historical and antiquarian writer and book-collector, died in Cambridge, Mass., aged 56 years.

Aug. —.—**CLAY, SMITH**, an aged negro, foster brother of the Confederate Gen. J. F. H. Claiborne, and a soldier in the war of 1812, died in Mississippi. In early youth he was the body servant of the late Gen. Ferdinand L. Claiborne, of Natchez. He served in the war of 1812, and had a narrow escape from the terrible massacre of Fort Mims. During the Murrell excitement in Mississippi, in 1836, when the central counties of Mississippi were under martial law, from an apprehended insurrection of the negroes, and many persons, white and colored, were summarily executed, Clay had charge of one hundred negroes in Madison County, the focus of the excitement, and by his prudence and discipline, and the universal confidence reposed in him, it was almost the only plantation in the county that escaped suspicion. There was no overseer on the place; for six weeks he permitted no one to leave or enter the premises, and he stood guard every night around the dwelling of his mistress. On his master's return from Congress he offered him his freedom and a farm; but he refused to accept them. The Governor of Mississippi (the late Hiram G. Runnels), who had been an eye-witness of his conduct, presented him a certificate, on parchment, of his fidelity.

Aug. —.—**IRVIN, DR. WILLIAM**, United States Consul at Amoy, China, and formerly a distinguished physician in Central Pennsylvania, died in Amoy, of cholera. He was appointed Consul in 1864, and devoted himself to the practice of his profession among the Chinese, but being unacclimated fell a victim to the disease which he had been successfully treating in others.

Aug. 31.—**LEFLORE GREENWOOD**, an Indian half-breed of the Choctaw tribe, died at his residence in Carroll County, Miss., aged 65 years. He was the oldest resident of the country, and, proud of his descent, used often to refer to the boast of his tribe, that it had never fought against, but always for the white man. It was chiefly through his influence that the fairest portion of Mississippi was ceded by the treaty of Dancing Rabbit Creek to the United States, thus giving up the State to the culture of civilization. When his tribe took up their march to the lands west of the Mississippi, Col. Leflore, as he was called, remained, and became a citizen of the State. He was a member of the State Senate, and his counsels upon the political questions of the day were always listened to with respect.

Aug. —.—**MCLEOD, REV. XAVIER DONALD**, a Roman Catholic clergyman and author, was killed upon a railroad in Indiana, aged 44 years. He was a native of New York, and the son of Dr. Alexander McLeod, a Presbyterian minister and author. He graduated at Columbia College, studied theology, and in 1845 took orders in the Episcopal Church. After a pastorate of a few years, he sailed for Europe in 1850, spend-

ing the two following years in travel and study, and returning to this country a Roman Catholic. He then gave himself for a number of years to literary pursuits, contributing to various magazines, and publishing "Pynnshurst, his Wanderings and Ways of Thinking" (New York, 1852), "Life of Sir Walter Scott" (1852), "The Bloodstone" (1853), and the "Life of Mary Queen of Scots" (1857). Mr. McLeod is also the author of "The Elder's House; or, the Three Converts;" "Chateau Lescure; or, the Last Marquis," and a "Life of Fernando Wood," the mayor of New York (1856). McLeod's "Fugitive Poems" are his most characteristic productions; some of them, "The Weeder" (Putnam's Monthly) and the "Saga of Viking Torquil" (Knickerbocker Magazine), have great merit. In 1857 he removed to St. Louis, Missouri, where he was for some time editorially connected with the "Leader" newspaper, then under the direction of Dr. J. V. Huntington. He subsequently became professor of Rhetoric and Belles Letters at Mount St. Mary's College, near Cincinnati. After the long and trying preparation necessary for the Catholic priesthood, Mr. McLeod was ordained, and spent the last few years of his life in a little cell in the basement of his church, from which he came forth at times for works of charity and love.

Aug. —.—**MCCHESNEY, COL. J. M.**, United States volunteer, died in Beaufort, N. C. He entered the army as a private in one of the Brooklyn regiments, and eventually gained the colonelcy of the Ninth New Jersey. Afterwards he was transferred to the First North Carolina volunteers, and had command of Fort Macon and the district. About the time of Gen. Johnston's surrender, being satisfied that the war was over, he resigned and went into business at Beaufort, but until the time of his death suffered from the effects of a severe wound received at the siege of Washington, North Carolina.

Aug. —.—**PARSONS, MONROE M.**, a General in the Confederate army, was killed in a fight between the Liberals and Imperialists, near Camargo, Mexico. He served under Sterling Price during the war. After the surrender of Kirby Smith, he went to Mexico with several of his men, and joined the forces of Juarez.

Sept. —.—**HOBSON, HON. ALBERT C.**, ex-Lieut.-Governor of Texas, died at Matagorda, in the 67th year of his age. He was the first Lieutenant-Governor, and President of the first Senate of Texas as a State of the Union. At the expiration of his term in 1847, he retired from public office.

Sept. 2.—**LONG, JOHN COLLINS**, a Commodore in the United States Navy, died at North Conway, N. H., aged 70 years. He was a native of Portsmouth, N. H., and joined the navy in 1811. He participated actively in the engagements of the war with Great Britain, and was on board of the Constitution when she fought the Java. His sea service amounted to 21 years

and three months. For over 13 years he was on shore duty, and for about 16 years he was unemployed. He has served his country as a naval officer for 53 years, during which time he has performed acts which have rendered his name famous. For his services at the Sandwich Islands, the people of those islands will ever cherish his memory with the warmest affection. He was assigned the duty of bringing Kossuth to this country in the steam-sloop *Saranac*, but would not allow that excited patriot to deliver revolutionary harangues at Marseilles, which gave Kossuth so much dissatisfaction that he left the *Saranac* at Gibraltar. Commodore Long left active service about five years ago, and resided at Exeter, N. H. His last command was of the *Pacific Squadron*. He was esteemed by all who knew him as a gallant and faithful officer.

Sept. 2.—RHEA, REV. SAMUEL A., missionary of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions to the Nestorians, died of cholera, between Tabreez and Ooroomiah, in the thirty-ninth year of his age. He was a native of Blountville, Tenn., and when fifteen years of age became hopefully pious and united with the Presbyterian Church of that town. He graduated at Knoxville University in 1847, and at the Union Theological Seminary, New York, in 1850. In April of that year he was licensed to preach the gospel by the Fourth Presbytery of New York, having previously determined to give himself to labors among the heathen. He was ordained at Blountville, February 2, 1851, and sailed for Boston early the following month for the Nestorian Mission. In November, 1851, he, in company with other missionaries, went to the new station at Gawar, among the Koordish Mountains. Here his labors were very arduous, and in 1858 his health was so much impaired that he returned to Ooroomiah, and subsequently to the United States. In July, 1860, he sailed again for his field of missionary labor, arriving at Ooroomiah in October, where he was stationed until his death. Mr. Rhea had been appointed by the Mission to the work of translating the Scriptures into the Azerbaijan-Turkish language, under the auspices of the American Bible Society, and was returning from Tabreez, whither he had been to obtain facilities for the work, when he died. As a scholar, he was studious, thorough, and accurate. He was a profound Hebrew scholar, spoke the modern Syriac with great accuracy and fluency, and his knowledge of the Tartar-Turkish was such as to enable him to preach in that language with great acceptance.

Sept. 4.—BOYLSTON, HON. R. B., a prominent politician of South Carolina, died at Winnsboro, S. C. He was a native of Charleston, but removed to Fairfield District, where he gained great distinction at the bar, and was for several years the representative of that district in the State Legislature, occupying in succession the positions of chairman of the Judiciary Committee and Speaker of the House of Representatives.

Sept. 6.—TAYLOR, HON. WILLIAM, M. D., prominent physician of New York State, and ex-member of Congress, died at Manlius, Onondaga Co., aged 72 years. He was a native of Connecticut, but removed with his parents when very young to Onondaga Co., where he was educated, and for many years settled in practice. He was at one time President of the New York State Medical Society, and having removed his residence to the city of New York, was a member of the Board of Supervisors. In 1832 he was elected to Congress, and was reelected in 1835 and 1837; served two years in the Assembly from New York city, and, after his return to Manlius, he represented Onondaga Co. in the General Assembly for two years. He subsequently retired to private life and devoted himself to the practice of his profession.

Sept. 7.—BAX, WILLIAM, M. D., an eminent physician of Albany, died at the age of 92 years. He was a descendant of the Huguenots, his ancestors being among those who fled first into Holland, and subsequently into Ireland, from whence they came to America, and settled in Maryland in 1720. The subject of this sketch was born in Albany, graduated at Princeton, N. J., and removed to New York in 1794, where he studied medicine with Dr. S. L. Mitchill, and entered upon the practice of his profession in Claverack, Columbia County. In 1810 he was induced to remove to Albany, and after a few years became a leading practitioner. Upon the completion of his half century of practice, the profession of Albany gave him a public dinner in honor of the occasion, and in appreciation of his long and faithful services as a citizen and a physician.

Sept. 7.—DOW, AUGUSTUS F., a prominent merchant of New York city, died in Fayetteville, Onondaga Co., N. Y., in the 52d year of his age. He was a native of Connecticut, and started in mercantile life in Hartford; subsequently he removed to New York, and for the past twelve years had been at the head of the Wall Street commission house of Dow, Young & Co. He had been an active member of the Republican party from its organization, and was nominated for Congress in the sixth district in 1858, but withdrew in favor of Hon. George Briggs. He was an ardent friend of the public school system, and served at one time as school commissioner.

Sept. 7.—ROBINS, JOHN, an old and prominent merchant of New York city, died at his residence, aged 86 years. In 1797, having just returned from a voyage to Port Royal, Martinique, he sought a situation as under clerk in a dry goods house, with the determination to learn the business, and after a service of eighteen months, took a small store and set up in business upon his own account. By industry and perseverance he succeeded to such an extent that he soon became well known as a merchant and banker. In the war of 1812 he entered the army as private in an artillery regiment. He was for many years a large stockholder and

director in the Phoenix Bank. At his death his property was estimated to be between three and four millions.

Sept. 8.—**CHOTEAU, PIERRE, Jr.**, an enterprising fur dealer, died at St. Louis, aged 77 years. He was the son of Pierre Choteau, one of the founders of that city, and was born there in 1789. The advantages for education were very limited at that time, but he improved them to the utmost, and when about fifteen years of age, commenced active life as clerk for his father and uncle, then largely engaged in the Indian fur trade. He also commenced early to do business upon his own account. Following the Indians from point to point as they receded, he at different times occupied the places where now are St. Joseph and Kansas, and then Bellevue, Council Bluffs, Fort Pierre, Fort Berthold, Fort Union, at the mouth of the Yellow Stone, and Fort Benton, or the head of navigation of the Missouri. He also followed the Indians as they receded up the Osage River, and up the Mississippi, from Keokuk to St. Paul, having trading posts all along the rivers. About the year 1806 or 1807 he went up to Dubuque, to trade with the Sac and Fox Indians, then inhabiting that country, ascending and descending the rivers in canoes. He was associated with several other heavy dealers in furs, among whom was John Jacob Astor, and they extended their trade as far south as the Cross Timbers of Texas, and as far northwest as the Blackfeet country, and, at one time, as far north as the falls of St. Anthony. The trade with Santa Fé was also in their hands. As a necessity he was drawn into extended operations, not only with Eastern cities, but in England and many parts of Europe. Mr. Choteau never had a taste for political life. He represented his county in the State Convention which made the first Constitution, but, with this exception, he invariably refused to take any part in politics.

Sept. 19.—**REVERE**, Brevet Brig.-Gen. WILLIAM H., died at Newbern, N. C. Gen. Revere entered the service as a first lieutenant in the New York Fire Zouaves, and subsequently became a captain in the organization known as "the Ellsworth Avengers." After being mustered out of the service he took up his residence in Baltimore, and was for some time a clerk in the Commissary Department in that city. Under the last call of President Lincoln for troops, he took an active part in recruiting the Tenth Maryland regiment, was elected colonel, and held that position until the completion of the term of service of the regiment. He was then appointed to the command of the One Hundred and Seventh United States Colored Troops, which was sent to North Carolina with the Twenty-fifth Army Corps. Gen. Revere was subsequently assigned to the command of the post at Moorehead City, continuing in that position to the time of his death.

Sept. 20.—**DOWNS**, Commander JOHN A., U. S. N., died at New Orleans. He was a na-

tive of Massachusetts, and son of the late Commodore Downes. Inheriting a taste for the sea, he entered the service in 1837, while yet quite young, and continued therein for twenty-seven years. During the war, he commanded the gunboat Huron and the monitor Nahant. He was recently occupied with special duty at Boston, from which he was detached to command the Grand Gulf squadron. He was a man of fine culture and unflinching patriotism.

Sept. 23.—**MARSHALL, CHARLES H.**, Commissioner of Pilots, and shipping merchant, died in New York, aged 74 years. He was a native of Easton, Washington Co., N. Y. At an early age he proceeded to Nantucket, and followed the sea until the War of 1812, when he taught school for a while, and afterwards again resumed the profession of a seaman, in which he rapidly rose to honor and wealth. Subsequently he removed to New York, and entered into the mercantile business. Here he soon became a prominent citizen, and his frankness and marked integrity of character won him a position of great influence. His love of country was at once a profound conviction and a ruling passion, and during the darkest days of the rebellion he spared no effort in doing his part toward supporting the Government.

Sept. 23.—**MURRAH, PENDLETON**, Confederate Governor of Texas, died at Monterey, Mexico, in self-imposed exile. He was a native of Alabama, and graduated at Brown University, Providence, R. I., in 1848. He was elected Governor of Texas in 1863.

Sept. 27.—**BATLIES**, Hon. WILLIAM, formerly a member of Congress, died at Taunton, Mass., aged 89 years. He was a native of Massachusetts, was educated a lawyer, and held many public offices, having been in the State Legislature in 1830 and 1831. He was a Representative in Congress from Massachusetts from 1813 to 1817, and from 1833 to 1835, serving as a member of the Committee on Revolutionary Claims.

Oct. 2.—**TALMAGE**, Rev. SAMUEL K., D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and author, died at Midway, Georgia. At the time of his death he was President of Oglethorpe University. He was a man of decided ability, and author of several interesting works.

Oct. 4.—**FULLESTON**, Rev. ROBERT Stewart, missionary of the O. S. Presbyterian Board, died at Laudour, India, aged 43 years. Mr. Fullerton sailed for India as a missionary in 1850, and was at first stationed at Futtehghurh, but at the end of nine months was called to Agra to take charge of two schools, one for boys and the other for girls, of East Indian birth. These schools were very successful, and while managing them he also officiated as pastor of the Presbyterian (English) Church at Agra, and continued to labor in this double capacity until the mutiny broke out in 1857, which scattered both the schools and the church, and destroyed the mission at Agra. He then returned to Futtehghurh, where he speedily ac-

quired so thorough a knowledge of the native language as to be able to preach in it with fluency and accuracy. As soon as circumstances would permit he reopened the Furruckabah high school, which had been closed by the war, and soon brought it into a prosperous condition. His health failing from his excessive labors, he removed in 1864 to Deyrah, to be nearer the hills, but was attacked there by a malignant disease which soon carried him off.

Oct. 5.—MOORE, EDWIN WARD, a Commodore in the Texan Navy, died in New York city, aged 54 years. He was a native of Alexandria, Virginia, and at fourteen years of age was transferred from the Alexandria Academy to the United States Navy, with a midshipman's commission, and, beginning with an extensive cruise in the sloop-of-war *Hornet*, he was much in active service down to the Texan war of independence of 1836. At this time, by regular promotion, he had become a first lieutenant, and, as an intelligent, active, and enterprising young officer, he was singled out by the Government of Texas to the chief command, as commodore of its naval establishment, which had yet to be created. Young Moore, resigning his commission in the United States service, gladly accepted his new appointment, and hastened to his new field of labor and adventure. This was in 1837. He was a commodore in the cause of a new republic which was without ships and without money. He contrived, however, partly from the credit of the republic and partly from his own resources, to purchase in New Orleans two small ships, which he fitted up and equipped as vessels-of-war. With these and a tender he set sail from New Orleans in the spring of 1843 for a trial of strength with the Mexican fleet awaiting him in the Gulf. This fleet consisted of eight or ten vessels, including two steamers, the *Guadaloupe* and *Montezuma*, built in England at an expense of a million of dollars. So great was the disparity between these opposing forces that, to save his ships from what he believed would be their certain destruction if they were overhauled by the enemy, President Houston repeatedly ordered Commodore Moore to seek shelter in the Bay of Galveston; but, disregarding these orders, or failing to receive them at New Orleans, Moore boldly put out to sea in search of the enemy. The Mexican fleet was at length sighted off the coast of Yucatan. A succession of hot engagements followed in the Bay of Campeachy, in which the Mexican squadron, invariably beaten, was finally routed and dispersed, with heavy losses in ships and men. In consideration of his services, the Congress of Texas—notwithstanding the removal of Moore by President Houston, and the veto of the bill for his reinstatement by President Anson Jones—passed the bill into a law, which included the liquidation of balances of money on account of the navy to the sum of over seventy thousand dollars, and the grant of a tract of land to the commodore of thousands of acres.

After the annexation of Texas, the commodore and his associate Texan naval officers applied to Congress to be reinstated in the United States Navy, with the rank they held from Texas. This proposition was defeated. A compromise was finally passed, in the shape of an appropriation to these officers, as officers of the Union on leave pay from the day of annexation to the passage of the bill. Of this appropriation (1855) the share accruing to Commodore Moore was some seventeen thousand dollars.

His time subsequently was largely occupied in experiments on new mechanical inventions.

Oct. 7.—CHAPIN, Hon. MOSES, an eminent lawyer of Rochester, New York, died in that city, aged 74 years. He was a native of Springfield, Mass., studied law, and removed to New York in 1813. He was the first Judge of Monroe County, which position he filled from 1825 to 1831. Since that time he has devoted himself to the practice of his profession.

Oct. 7.—SANDERS, Brevet Brig.-Gen. HORACE T. (Col. 19th Wis. vols.), an officer in the U. S. volunteer service, died in Washington, D. C., of hæmorrhage of the lungs. He entered the army early in the war, and on the 2d of June, 1862, was appointed commander of the 19th Wisconsin regiment of infantry. He acquitted himself with great gallantry in his command, and on the 12th of January, 1865, received the brevet rank of brigadier-general. His death was the result of exposure in the service.

Oct. 10.—EATON, JAMES S., author, and principal of the English department of Phillips Academy, at Andover, Mass., died at that place. He had been long and favorably known as a teacher, and was the author of some school-books.

Oct. 10.—RICORD, Mrs. ELIZABETH, a well-known authoress and teacher, died at Newark, N. J., aged 78 years. Her active life was spent mostly in Western New York. In 1828 she opened a young ladies' seminary in Genesee, which she continued for nearly twenty years. As a teacher she was highly gifted, and her personal and mental accomplishments, together with her winning methods, gave her great power over the young minds under her care. Her Christian influence also was so marked, that a large number of her pupils became subjects of Divine grace while connected with the seminary. The great revival of 1832 in Western New York commenced in Mrs. Ricord's seminary. Subsequently she taught some years in New York city. She was the author of a valuable book on mental philosophy and other important works.

Oct. 11.—CASTLEMAN, Rev. ROBERT, an Episcopal clergyman of Petersburg, Va., was murdered near Gaston, N. C., for his efforts in behalf of the freedmen.

Oct. 11.—DIX, JAMES A., principal editor of the "Boston Daily Journal" for a number of years, died in that city of consumption.

Oct. 11.—GIGER, Rev. GEORGE MUSGRAVE, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman, Professor

Emeritus of the Latin Language and Literature, New Jersey College, Princeton, died at Princeton, aged 43 years. He was a very thorough classical scholar, and had been for some years Professor of the Latin Language and Literature, and Secretary of the Society of Alumni of the college. He took great interest in the promotion of the prosperity of the college, and at his death left it a bequest of thirty thousand dollars, to be realized on the death of his uncle.

Oct. 12.—JONES, Rev. Lot, D. D., an Episcopal clergyman of New York, died suddenly in Philadelphia, from the effects of a fall, aged 69 years. For nearly thirty years he was pastor of the Church of the Epiphany, having commenced his labors when the congregation consisted of some half-dozen adults and a few children, and the services were held in a little unfinished room over an engine-house. He was much beloved for his unvarying sweetness and gentleness of character, and his devoted and unselfish Christian life. He had gone to Philadelphia as a deputy to an Episcopal Convention.

Oct. 17.—GREEN, JOHN, M. D., died in Worcester, Mass., aged 82 years. He was a native of Worcester, and was the fourth in the descent of a line of physicians, all eminent in the theory and practice of medicine. He graduated at Brown University in 1804, and received the degree of Doctor of Medicine from both Brown University and Harvard College in 1826. His professional training was careful and thorough, and he kept pace with the progress of medical science while he continued in practice, having accumulated a valuable professional library of about two thousand volumes. He had also a collection of seven thousand volumes, which he presented to the city of Worcester in 1859, as the basis of a public library, consisting of travels, voyages, history, and theology. Ten years ago feeble health and increasing age compelled him to relinquish the active duties of his profession. He was esteemed and respected by all who knew him.

Oct. 18.—GREEN, Hon. BYRAM, Judge of Wayne County Court, died at Sodus, Wayne Co., N. Y., aged 79 years. He was a native of New York, served five years in the Assembly of that State, and was a Representative in Congress from 1843 to 1845.

Oct. 19.—AGNEW, Rev. JOSIAH HOLMES, D. D., a Congregational clergyman, teacher, and editor, died at Peekskill, N. Y., aged 61 years. He was a native of Massachusetts, and had for many years devoted himself to literary and educational pursuits, being at one time editor of the "Eclectic Magazine," and afterwards for some years principal of a female seminary at Pittsfield, Mass. He subsequently engaged in some speculations in coal-mining, which proved unsuccessful. In 1860 he became Secretary of the Southern Aid Society, and in 1865 took charge of the "American Federal Monthly," a continuation of the old "Knickerbocker Magazine."

Oct. 19.—FORWARD, Hon. WILLIAM A., Judge of the Supreme Court of Florida, died at Palatka, Florida. He was a native of New York. In 1836 he was a Canadian rebel, and suffered imprisonment and banishment. In 1845 he accompanied Judge Bronson to Florida, when that gentleman was appointed United States Judge for the Northern District of the State, and had been a constant resident there from that period. He served several sessions in the Territorial and State Legislatures, and in 1852 was elected Judge of the Eastern Judicial Circuit, which position he held until 1857. In 1859 he was elected to the Supreme Bench.

Oct. 20.—HALL, Lieut.-Col. WILLIAM P., U. S. volunteers, died in New York city, of disease of the lungs, contracted in Southern prisons. Before he was of age he won the position from the ranks of sergeant-major in the regular army, and was conceded to have been the first to place the United States colors on the heights of Chapultepec. For this act of gallantry he was commissioned captain in the regular army, but for private reasons chose not to accept the appointment. When the celebrated snuff-box, left by Andrew Jackson as a legacy to the bravest soldier in battle, was offered a few years since for a claimant by Andrew Jackson Donelson, the adopted son of the legate, the claims of Col. Hall were urged by many old soldiers who had witnessed his bravery on the battlefield of Mexico. The New York Common Council, however, who had the difficult task of awarding the gift in their hands, decided in favor of another, on the alleged ground that Col. Hall belonged to the regular army, and was on that account barred from the list of competitors. Early in the late war Col. Hall took the field, and was seriously wounded on more than one occasion. He was made prisoner by the Confederates when serving as major of the 9th New York or Ira Harris cavalry, and was held by them for seven months. Col. Hall was much esteemed by all who knew him, and possessed a liberal degree of culture, often contributing interesting articles to periodical literature.

Oct. 22.—BERRY, ABRAHAM J., M. D., an eminent physician and surgeon, died in Williamsburg, L. I., aged 66 years. He was a native of New York, educated carefully as a physician, and early in life obtained a prominent position in his profession. When the Asiatic cholera desolated New York, in 1832, he was one of the few who remained at his post, laboring day and night among the sick. His courage and zeal on that occasion called forth many expressions of admiration and respect from his fellow-townsmen, and the city authorities publicly acknowledged his eminent services by a vote of thanks. Latterly Dr. Berry had devoted his time to dealing in real estate in Williamsburg, a considerable portion of that part of Brooklyn having belonged to his family for more than a century. He identified himself with the interests of Williamsburg, became its mayor

when it was made a city, and, in connection with Mr. Law, established the present ferries. When the war broke out, Dr. Berry, in 1861, although over sixty years of age, fired by that enthusiasm which ran through the country like an electric shock, left his home to act as surgeon of the 38th New York regiment. When Gen. George B. McClellan took up his march for Harrison's Landing, the patients in charge of the doctor—over three hundred in number—were forgotten at their hospital, near the White House. The army had departed before he could commence to move, but he not only carried the sick and convalescent safely through six days' battles to the James River, but his train numbered over eight hundred sick and wounded men when he reached the Landing. His death was the result of a fever contracted at that period.

Oct. 22.—DWIGHT, WILLIAM THEODORE, a Congregational clergyman and author, born in Greenfield, Conn., June 15, 1795, died in Andover, Mass., Oct. 22, 1865. He was the seventh son and child of President Timothy and Mary (Woolsey) Dwight. The year of his birth, his distinguished father was inaugurated President of Yale College, and moved his family to New Haven. After spending some months in a classical school at South Farms, Litchfield, Conn., and also at Fairfield, young Dwight was admitted, at the early age of twelve, to the Freshman class in Yale College. Owing to his youth, it was not thought advisable that he should at once go on with his class, and two years were passed in general studies. He graduated in 1813, having maintained throughout a highly honorable position in his class. From 1817 to 1819 he served as tutor in the college. In 1818 his father's celebrated Theological Discourses were published, with a Memoir, in five vols. A large part of the labor of preparing this edition for the press was performed by Mr. Dwight. In the fall of 1819 he entered on the study of law, in the office of Charles Chauncey, Esq., of Philadelphia, Penn., and in the spring of 1821 he was admitted to the bar. His powers were admirably adapted to the profession thus chosen, and he pursued it with interest and success. Laying a broad and deep foundation by careful study of the principles of law, and acquiring, with the aid of a remarkably retentive memory, a large share of the learning of his profession, at the close of nearly ten years of practice he found success waiting on his endeavors, and the path to eminence in his calling fairly open. At this time, however, his convictions of duty underwent an entire change, consequent, as he believed, upon the renewal of his character through the truths of the Gospel. Though never questioning the compatibility of an earnest devotion to the duties of the legal profession with a thoroughly religious character, he found that the chief affection and interest of his mind centred in another work. Uniting with the Fifth Presbyterian Church, then under the pastoral care of Rev. Dr. Skinn-

ner, he devoted himself to the work of preparation for the Christian ministry. Under his father's training and in editing his Sermons, Mr. Dwight had already made large attainments in the study of Divinity, and in a few months he was approved as a minister by a presbytery in New York city. After receiving several calls to settle, he finally accepted that of the Third Congregational Church in Portland, Me., and was ordained and installed June 6, 1832. After a ministry of nearly thirty-two years to that people, in consequence of declining health he resigned his charge in May 1864, and removed to Andover, Mass., where he died in October, 1865. For many years previous to his decease Dr. Dwight had been widely known as one of the most prominent and influential of the Congregational clergy. His intellectual vigor, especially a rare power of unravelling an intricate theme, of disentangling the main question from a mass of irrelevant matter, combined with his forensic experience, and a manner marked by ease, dignity, and decision, made him a leading member of deliberative bodies and an admirable presiding officer. Besides very frequent service as Moderator of Ecclesiastical Councils, some of them of much importance in the history of the Congregational Denomination, as *e. g.* the Council held in New York city, in connection with Rev. Dr. Cheever's Church, Dr. Dwight was a member of the Board of Overseers of Bowdoin College, a Corporate Member of the A. B. C. F. M., President of the Portland Benevolent Society, President of the Maine Missionary Society, President of the Congregational Library Association, President of the Board of Visitors of Andover Theological Seminary, and President of the Albany Convention of Congregational Churches. As a preacher, he excelled in the treatment of the most commanding themes. He dwelt chiefly on the central facts and disclosures of the Scriptures, the character of God, the soul, redemption, heaven, hell. He spoke of what to him were the great realities. The strength and clearness of his mind were accompanied by an equal power of sensibility. Under the influence of deep thought and emotion, he often rose to a high degree of noble eloquence. His countenance was open and expressive, his manner always earnest, often highly impressive, and not seldom naturally and spontaneously dramatic. He possessed remarkable power in extemporaneous address when questions involving great ethical principles and human interests were under discussion. He had a profound and instinctive abhorrence of all that was false, or unjust, or low. His resignation of his charge called forth many expressions of respect and affection from the community in which his ministerial life had chiefly been passed. One of the most noticeable of these was an address drawn up by Hon. William Willis, and signed by many of the leading citizens of Portland, of various professions, callings, and religious denominations, replete with testimony to the pub-

the esteem in which Dr. Dwight was held, not only as a faithful pastor and preacher, but as a citizen and patriot. He received the degree of D. D., from Bowdoin College, Me., in 1846. His published works were, a "Memoir of Rev. Sereno E. Dwight, D. D.," 1851, "An Oration before the Association of Alumni of Yale College," "An Address before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Bowdoin College," 1849, and numerous other orations, addresses, discourses, and review articles, all of them characterized by sound logic, profound thought, and a chaste and elegant style.

Oct. 23.—MISSROON, Commodore JOHN S., U. S. N., died at the Boston Navy Yard, aged about 55 years. He was a native of South Carolina, and entered the service in 1824. At the Boston yard he filled the position of Ordnance Officer, and in the last report of the Chief of the Bureau of Ordnance especial commendation is bestowed on Commodore Missroon.

Oct. 24.—JOHNSON, WILLIAM P., brother of President Johnson, and United States Collector at Velasco, Texas, died at Columbia, on the Brazos River, from an accidental gunshot wound. While taking a gun from a small boat in which his party had crossed the river, the ball entered the hand and came out at the elbow, shattering the bone, and making amputation necessary; but the surgeons of that region, who were rebels, refused to render him any assistance, because of his relationship with the President.

• Oct. 26.—MINER, Hon. CHARLES, an editor, and formerly member of Congress, died at Wilkesbarre, Pa., aged 65 years. He was a native of Norwich, Conn., and when nineteen years old emigrated to Wyoming Valley, where with his older brother, a practical printer, he started the Luzerne "Federalist." This was superseded by the "Gleaner" with Miner as the principal editor. Through its columns he gave for several months the celebrated essays of morals and wit, of fact and fancy, and delicate humor, entitled, "From the Desk of Poor Robert, the Scribe." These gave him such popularity that he was invited to become assistant editor of the "Political and Commercial Register," in Philadelphia. He accepted, but soon went to West Chester, where, with his brother, he established the "Village Record." He here wrote over the signature of "John Harwood," and made the paper very popular. In 1825 he was elected twice to Congress as a colleague of James Buchanan. He took great interest in the subject of slavery, to which he was opposed. He awakened the country to the silk-growing business, and drew up and introduced the first resolutions on the subject, and wrote the able report which was introduced by General Stephen Van Rensselaer, as chairman of the Committee on Agriculture. About 1832 he relinquished the business in West Chester, and returned to the Wyoming Valley. He was the author of a "History of Wyoming."

Oct. 29.—HARDING, J. BARCLAY, collector of national revenue in the First District of

Pennsylvania, died in Philadelphia, of congestion of the brain. He was publisher of "The Evening Telegraph," and an active supporter of President Johnson's administration.

Oct. —.—HAWKINS, Col. WILLIAM S., an officer in the Confederate army, and a poet of some ability, died in Nashville, Tennessee. In 1861 he entered the rebel army as major of Gordon's battalion, was for a while on the staff of General Wheeler, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and was afterwards promoted to a colonelcy and served in the Army of Tennessee until taken prisoner and sent North, where he remained until released on the return of peace.

Oct. 29.—McGORRIK, Rev. BERNARD, a Roman Catholic clergyman, for many years missionary priest at the West, died at his residence in Williamsburg, L. I., aged 47 years. He was a native of Ireland, and at an early age showed preference for the priesthood as the chosen profession of his after life. Having acquired the rudiments of education in Ireland, he was sent, when yet quite young, to Paris, in order to finish his education and study theology. At this college he graduated with much distinction. Early in 1842 he came to this country, and for several months was engaged as Professor of French at St. John's College, Fordham. While there he endeared himself to his colleagues and the students both by his talents and his devotion. He was not, however, long permitted to remain at the college, as missionary priests were much needed in the far West. He was sent for by Bishop Quarters, of the West, and entering with all the ardor of youth upon his new field of labor in the Western wilds, remained as a missionary priest in that section of the country for nearly eighteen years, often enduring the greatest hardships and exposure in the duties of the ministry. While there he built fifteen or sixteen churches. But as he grew older, exposure began to tell upon him, and it became evident that the seeds of disease had been sown in his heretofore robust constitution, and, a change of life becoming necessary, he at length reluctantly parted from his flock in the West, removing to Brooklyn, about five years ago, where he built the present Church of St. Vincent de Paul, which has a congregation of seven thousand persons, and was its pastor at the time of his decease. Mr. McGorriak was a man of fine scientific attainments, and spoke and wrote the French language with fluency and accuracy.

Oct. 30.—FITCH, ASA, a well-known manufacturer and millionaire of Fitchville, Conn., died in that village. He was for many years a leading citizen of the town.

Nov. 2.—REYNOLDS, Lieut.-Col. JOHN G., U. S. volunteers, and captain of marines, died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 64 years. At the age of seventeen he entered the Military Academy at West Point, but left the institution during the third year of his course. In May, 1824, he entered the Marine Corps as second lieutenant. Eleven years after, as first lieutenant, he served

with distinction in the Florida war. In 1848 he accompanied Commodore Kearny in the "Constellation" in his cruise around the world. On his return from this cruise, Lieutenant Reynolds with his battalion of marines was ordered to duty with the army of General Scott, and participated in the campaign from Vera Cruz to Mexico. While engaged in this campaign he was promoted (March, 1847) to be captain, having served twenty-three years as a lieutenant. He also received the brevet promotion of major (September 18, 1847) "for gallant and meritorious conduct in the storming of Chapultepec and the capture of the city of Mexico." The Mexican war over, Captain Reynolds was first on duty at the recruiting rendezvous at New York; next in the Pacific Squadron; then at New York again; then at the Marine Barracks at Warrington, Florida; then on the frigate *St. Lawrence*; then at the Marine Barracks at Portsmouth, N. H.

When the civil war broke out, Captain Reynolds was promoted to be major, and as such commanded the battalion of marines which were engaged at Bull Run July 21, 1861. For his conduct on this occasion he was promoted lieutenant-colonel, and soon after entered again on active duty. He commanded another battalion of the corps in the secret service operations, which resulted in breaking up the contraband traffic between Maryland and the Southern army, and in destroying large stores intended for that army which were at Port Tobacco. With the same battalion he took part in the expedition to Port Royal. Col. Reynolds was some time later ordered to Morris Island, and relieved Major (now Colonel Commandant) Jacob Zeilin of the command of the battalion of marines, holding a position and manning a battery on that island. Col. Reynolds asked to be relieved on account of age and health in 1864, and the request being granted he was placed on the retired list with Colonels Delancy and Ward Marston. He was ordered to duty first at the Marine Barracks, Charlestown, Mass., and subsequently to the command of the Brooklyn station, where he died. Col. Reynolds was one of the most prominent officers in the Marine Corps.

Nov. 8.—ARNOLD, GEORGE ("McArone"), an editor and poet, died at Strawberry Farms, N. J. He was widely known as the author of the "McArone" papers and several biographical works, and by various contributions to "Vanity Fair," the "Leader," and other journals. He was also the author of several poems of remarkable sweetness. During the late war he did honorable service in the cause of the country, and for a long time performed military duty at one of the forts on Staten Island.

Nov. 4.—COOKE, JOHN P., an eminent musical composer and leader of orchestral bands, died in New York, aged 45 years. He was a native of Chester, in Cheshire, England. He inherited the musical and theatrical ability of

his father, who was a musician and an actor of good repute. The first thirty years of his life were passed in England, where he occupied the position of leader of the orchestra at Astley's theatre, London, under the management of Batty. At different times he acted as conductor at the Adelphi and the Strand houses, and in 1850, having come to this country at the pressing instance of Burton, assumed the leadership of the orchestra at the old Chambers Street theatre. It was there he composed and arranged the music for the *Winter's Tale*, the *Midsummer Night's Dream*, and other Shakspearian productions. When engaged at the Old Broadway theatre he wrote the melodies which added so much to the great success of the drama of the *Sea of Ice*. He also furnished many other compositions, which have been considered worthy the reputation of more pretentious musicians.

Nov. 8.—CALHOUN, HON. WILLIAM B., a lawyer, and formerly member of Congress, died in Springfield, Mass., aged 69 years. He was a native of Boston, Mass., graduated at Yale College in 1814, studied law, and by his talents and integrity of character soon won his way into public favor. In 1825 he was sent to the State Legislature, and continued a representative for ten years, being Speaker during the last two years. From 1835 to 1843 he represented the Congressional District of Hampden and Hampshire Counties in Congress; was President of the State Senate in 1846 and 1847; Secretary of State from 1848 to 1851; Bank Commissioner from 1853 to 1855; Presidential Elector in 1844; and Mayor of Springfield in 1859. In 1861 he was again a representative for Springfield in the State Legislature. This was the last of his public service. Increasing ill health compelled him, at the close of that year, to seek repose in complete retirement from political duties. Mr. Calhoun was a powerful and earnest writer for the press. His style was pure, vigorous, and effective. For many years he was an occasional editorial writer for the Springfield "Republican," and for a long period was quite a voluminous contributor to its columns.

Nov. 9.—BALLANTINE, REV. HENRY, missionary of the A. B. C. F. M. to Ahmednuggur, India, died at sea, four days and a half from Liverpool, while upon his return to the United States, aged 52 years. He was a native of Schodack, N. Y., graduated at the University of Ohio and at Andover, Mass., and was ordained at Columbus in 1835. In May of the same year he sailed from Boston for Western India, and has since labored among the Mahrattas with great fidelity and success. He was returning to his native land in the hope of recovering from the effect of his severe and protracted toil at Ahmednuggur.

Nov. 9.—EASTMAN, CAPT. ROBERT LANGDON, U. S. A., died at Washington, D. C., at the residence of his father, Col. S. Eastman, U. S. A., aged about 25 years. He graduated in May, 1861 at West Point. His class, in conse-

quence of the breaking out of the war, and the need of officers, being examined in advance of the usual time, he was ordered at once to the field, and was in the battle of Bull Run: from that time he was on duty with the Army of the Potomac, until severe disease, contracted in the service of his country, so prostrated his physical powers, that he was no longer capable of active service. After the battle of Malvern Hill he was ordered to West Point, and there, though constantly suffering from illness, he faithfully and skilfully performed the double duty of Assistant Professor of Drawing and Ethics, until it was impossible for him to continue his efforts to be useful. He was a native of the State of Maryland, but never hesitated about his duty to his flag and to his country. The remembrance of his modesty, his worth, and his talents, will be cherished by those to whom these qualities so much endeared him. He was a brave officer, and his short career in the army was useful to his country, and honorable to himself and to his family. He had been promoted to the captaincy of the Sixth regiment of Regular Infantry, and, at the time of his death, was attached to Gen. Augur's staff.

Nov. 11.—McCORMICK, JAMES, one of the oldest men in the United States, died in Newburg, N. Y., in his 115th year. He was a native of the county of Cavan, Ireland, and his age was accurately fixed by the fact, that in the Irish Rebellion of 1798, when ages were a matter of importance, he was 47 years old. He was a rebel in that war, and was wounded. In his youth he was not especially remarkable save for health and strength. On one occasion he lifted a stone weighing seven hundred pounds, and upon another, walked fifty-two miles in one day, returning the same distance the next day. He was not married until he was forty-five years old, and subsequently had a family of fourteen children. In 1846 he came to this country. His habits were temperate, and all of his senses continued perfect except that of sight, which was fast failing at the time of his death.

Nov. 13.—MORRISON, WILLIAM W., major and commissary of subsistence in the Confederate army, died in North Carolina. He was formerly a clerk in the Construction and Equipment Bureau of the Navy Department at Washington. He subsequently had charge of the Impressment Bureau of the rebel Commissary Department in North Carolina, and at one time was the chief dependence of Lee for subsistence.

Nov. 13.—PARSONS, WEARE DRAKE, a merchant and editor, died suddenly in New York city, aged 59 years. He was a native of Maine. Early in life he went to New Orleans, where he was for some time engaged in mercantile pursuits. He also had business connections in Texas. Subsequently, and about twelve years since, he took up his residence in New York, and finally started the "Daily News," with Gideon J. Tucker as editor, and Jacob Thompson

and other men of ability as contributors. Later, he transferred the establishment to its present proprietors, since which time Mr. Parsons, up to the date of his demise, had not engaged in any active occupation. He had many friends, was a Freemason, and always bore the reputation of being an honorable man. A member of the Mozart Hall branch of the Democracy, from the hour of its organization, he held the position of a member of its General Committee, but never was an incumbent of any political office. He enjoyed excellent and robust health until the attack of paralysis which struck him down at his own threshold, and from the effects of which he died after lingering a few days.

Nov. 14.—LANE, WASHINGTON, editor of the "Public Ledger" for twenty-five years, died in Philadelphia, aged 52 years. Although holding a very important position, his retiring nature caused him to be little known beyond his appropriate sphere. He was, however, admirably fitted for the duties of his profession, and was particularly noted for his industry and integrity of character.

Nov. 15.—ADAMS, Capt. JULIUS W., U. S. A., died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 25 years. He was born in Massachusetts, of Revolutionary stock. Selecting the profession of arms from his earliest youth, he was appointed from Kentucky to the Military Academy at West Point at the age of seventeen, and graduated in 1861, with the privilege of selecting either the ordnance, artillery, infantry, cavalry or dragoon arm of the service. He selected the infantry, and was commissioned a second lieutenant. He was retained as an Assistant Instructor in Tactics until June, 1862, when he joined his regiment in the Army of the Potomac. He was severely wounded at the battle of Gaines' Mills, and left in the hands of the enemy at Savage Station in the retreat of the "Seven Days;" neglected by the Confederate surgeons, and left in an open shed exposed to the weather to dress his own wounds, he was finally paroled for exchange; but he contracted disease from his exposure, from the effects of which he never entirely recovered. Upon the recovery from his wounds, he rejoined his regiment, and participated in the campaigns which followed under Generals Hooker, Burnside, and Meade, and although but a captain, commanded his regiment, the old 4th U. S. Infantry, in the battles of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Gettysburg, but the last campaign under Gen. Grant proved too much for his enfeebled body, and despite his efforts to bear up, he was, a short time after the battle of Cold Harbor, prostrated by pneumonia and compelled to quit the field. From this attack he never fully recovered, and gradually sank until relieved by death.

Nov. 16.—STEPHENSON, GEORGE, one of the survivors of the Kane Expedition, died in New York city, aged 38 years. He was a native of Dublin, Ireland, and early took to the sea. While in the Arctic expedition he contracted a disease of the heart, and since that period had

suffered more or less from it. The Government, in recognition of his services, gave him a position in the custom-house as night inspector, in which capacity he remained up to the time of his death.

Nov. 16.—**WALSH, THOMAS J.**, founder and President of the National Typographical Union, died in New York city. He was a native of Albany. For over a quarter of a century Mr. Walsh has been intimately connected with the typographical fraternity of the United States, and in nearly every city in the Union his influence in ameliorating the condition of journey-men printers has been felt and recognized. Mr. Walsh was one of the founders of the National Typographical Union, and for many years occupied the most responsible official positions connected therewith. He unhesitatingly sacrificed time and money in his advocacy of the interests of his fellow-workmen; and his advice and influence, as connected with their advancement in a social and pecuniary point of view, were equally sought after and generally followed. His views on the labor-reform question were broad and comprehensive, and he was recognized as one of the leaders of that movement in New York.

Nov. 17.—**IVES, THOMAS POYNTON**, Lieut.-Commander in the U. S. Navy, died in Havre, France. He was a native of Providence, R. I., and the son of one of the merchant princes of that city. Remarkable for his devotion to the flag of the Union at the very outbreak of the war, he laid aside all private enterprises; and abandoning the comforts and pleasures which wealth and a high position in society afforded, he hastened to offer his services to the Government, and entered the navy as an acting volunteer lieutenant, at the same time presenting his yacht to the Navy Department, and refusing to receive any compensation whatever for his services as an officer of the navy. He bore an active part in the earlier operations against the Hatteras forts and at Roanoke Island; was then transferred to the Potomac flotilla, and, subsequently, assigned to ordnance duty at the Washington ordnance yard. While there, the premonitory symptoms of the fatal disease which finally terminated his life, began to develop themselves, but he still continued to perform his duties with singular self-denial and scrupulous fidelity, until the advice of his physicians and friends could no longer be disregarded. With extreme reluctance he therefore tendered his resignation as an officer of the navy, which the Department refused to accept, and he then asked for and obtained a leave of absence to visit Europe, in the vain hope of obtaining permanent relief. In his death the service lost a young and accomplished but zealous officer, and the country a true patriot.

Nov. 18.—**TERRY, Hon. SETH**, an eminent citizen and lawyer of Connecticut, Judge of the Superior Court, etc., died at his residence in Hartford, aged 85 years. He was a native of

Enfield, Conn., removed to Hartford in 1803 or 1804, and was admitted to the bar of that county in 1804, being at the time of his death its senior member. As a lawyer, Judge Terry was accurate, keen, methodical, and reliable. His attention, for many years past, has been confined to the office business of his profession, drafting, conveyancing, and the care of estates. He faithfully fulfilled many private trusts, and was a favorite draughtsman of wills, deeds, and contracts arising from the domestic relations. In court, Judge Terry's position was always respectable, and he filled the offices of Judge of Probate and of City Recorder with credit, and retired from their duties, declining to be re-appointed. Mentally, he was logical, acute, and active, with an overflowing humor always available. He was of incorruptible integrity, of great decision, conscientious, zealous, just, and benevolent. He was a member of many of the great charitable corporations of the land, and a friend of the poor of the community. The Orphan Asylum and the Beneficent Society have each lost, by his death, one of their most practical friends and advisers. Mr. Terry had a keen eye for the humorous, and his retentive memory and quaint manner rendered his wit very pleasing. His religious views were clearly defined, and were of the old school New England stamp. Early in life he was noted for his devotion to doctrinal truths, and he was decidedly opposed to what he thought was heresy. But as he advanced in years the sincere Christian triumphed over the theologian, and his piety and zeal grew more and more warm and active as he approached the end of life.

Nov. 19.—**VOORHIES, JOHN S.**, an eminent law bookseller and publisher of New York, died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 57 years. He had been for forty years engaged in business, and was widely known and esteemed by the profession. He compiled and published "Voorhies' Code of Procedure," "Abbott's Digest," "Cleaveland's Banking Laws," "Greenleaf's Overruled Cases," "Burrill's Circumstantial Evidence," "Voluntary Arraignments," etc., and many other standard law books.

Nov. 23.—**HAND, EDWARD**, superintendent of the banking department of the State of New York, died at Albany, N. Y. He was a man of rigid integrity and probity, possessing capacity of a high order and the most thorough fitness for the position which he filled. He had been connected with the department since 1849, when it was attached to the Controller's office, and, on its organization as a distinct bureau of the State government, he received the appointment of deputy superintendent, which position he held until August, 1865, when his long and faithful services to the State in a subordinate capacity were justly recognized by the executive in his appointment as superintendent to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Mr. Van Dyck.

Nov. 23.—**RUSSEY, Col. RENE E. DE**, United States Engineer Corps, died in San Francisco,

Cal., aged 74 years. His parents belonged to the French nobility, and formerly resided in Hayti, where they possessed large landed estates, the value of which was fearfully depreciated in 1791, causing the family to emigrate to this country and settle in New York city, where the subject of this notice was born. In 1807 he entered West Point, and graduated with merit in 1812, being at the time of his death, perhaps, the oldest living graduate of that institution. On graduating, De Russey was promoted a second lieutenant of engineers, and on the 6th of July following was advanced to a first lieutenant. In September, 1814, he was brevetted a captain "for gallant conduct at the battle of Plattsburg, New York." More than this, Gen. Macomb, then commanding the army operating on the Canada frontier, promoted him to be his chief engineer, and he participated in that capacity at the age of about twenty-two during the campaign on Lake Champlain. February 9, 1815, he received his full promotion of captain. It was nine years after before he received another advancement, and that was only by brevet, being that of major for ten years' faithful service in the same grade. He was made a full major December 22, 1830. His brevet as lieutenant-colonel was won, as his majority had been, by ten years' faithful service. His term of service as superintendent of the Military Academy began in 1833 and continued for five years. In December, 1838, he was made a lieutenant-colonel of engineers, and from that time until the breaking out of the late war he was a member of the Board of Engineers in charge of the construction of our coast defences. He was in charge for a long time of the defences of the harbor of New York city, where he became widely known, and was held in high estimation. When the war broke out he was in charge of Fortress Monroe, and the construction of the works on the Rip Raps in Hampton Roads. While still engaged in this work he was promoted colonel March 3, 1860, and ordered to command of the defences of the Pacific coast, which position he held to the time of his death. Col. De Russey's two sons, Gustavus and John, were graduates of West Point.

Nov. 25.—BARNES, REV. WILLIAM, a Methodist clergyman, died in Philadelphia, from an apoplectic attack. He was born near Cookstown, Tyrone County, Ireland, about 1795. His father was a Presbyterian, his mother a Methodist, though nominally connected with the Anglican Church. He had the advantages of excellent schools in his native county, but while still in his minority emigrated with some of his relatives to the United States and settled in Baltimore, where he followed for a time the profession of an ornamental painter, in which he was very skilful. At the age of 19 he united with the Light Street M. E. Church in Baltimore. Having become satisfied that it was his duty to preach, he placed himself under the direction of Rev. George Roszel, then presiding

elder of the Baltimore District, and in 1817 was licensed to preach. The first eight years of his ministry were spent in the bounds of the Baltimore Conference; at its division he was placed in the Pittsburg Conference, from whence he was soon transferred to the Philadelphia Conference, in the bounds of which he passed the remainder of his ministry, closing it in charge of the M. E. Church at Bristol, Pa. During his long connection with this Conference he filled with great success several of the best appointments in its limits, fourteen years being passed in the service of some of the largest churches in Philadelphia, two years at Wilmington, Delaware, two at Dover, Delaware, two at Harrisburg, and two at Easton, Pennsylvania. That he was called twice for periods of two years to several of his Philadelphia charges, shows the estimation in which the people held him. His ministry was very successful, large accessions being made to the churches during his pastorate. He had made respectable attainments in the classics, and was very thoroughly versed in theological science. He bore a high reputation as a preacher, both for the eloquence of his delivery and the attractiveness of his style and language. He was attacked with vertigo in the streets of Philadelphia, while visiting that city on business; the attack soon passed into an apoplectic form, and he died the day following. He left a volume of sermons ready for the press, as well as several other manuscripts on controversial and other topics, some of them in verse.

Nov. 26.—BINGHAM, REV. ABEL, for thirty-three years a Baptist missionary among the Seneca and Ojibwa Indians, died at Grand Rapids, Michigan. He was born at Enfield, N. H., May 9, 1786; ordained as a Baptist minister at Wheatland, New York, September 3, 1838, having been appointed in July previous, as missionary to the Ojibwas. He resigned his connection with the mission in October 1855, and removed to Michigan. He had had a son and daughter also engaged in the missionary work.

Nov. 28.—HARRINGTON, HON. SAMUEL MAXWELL, LL. D., Chancellor of the State of Delaware, died in Philadelphia, in the 63d year of his age. He was a native of Dover, Delaware; graduated at Washington College, Maryland, in 1823, with the first honors of his class, and immediately entered upon the study of the law. In 1830 he was appointed Secretary of State, to succeed Hon. John M. Clayton. At this time he displayed such legal ability that at the early age of twenty-eight he was appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of his native State, and held the position until the change in the State Constitution which abolished his court and merged it into the Superior Court. Of such value to the State were his legal abilities deemed that he was induced to accept the position of associate justice on the latter bench. He continued as such for many years, and in 1855 was again appointed chief justice, and

subsequently, in 1857, was elevated to the chancellorship, the highest attainable judicial position, the duties of which he continued to discharge up to the time of his death. In 1849 he was at the head of the commission appointed to revise and codify the laws of the State, and for the able manner in which he fulfilled his important task received a vote of thanks from the Delaware Legislature. In 1854 he received the honorary degree of LL. D., and has been for some years President of the Delaware Railroad Company. Through all the long years of the war he was a steadfast and influential supporter of the Government, and did much to strengthen the administration of President Lincoln, whose warm personal advocate he was.

Nov. 29.—VAN AMBURGH, ISAAO A., the well-known lion-tamer, died in Philadelphia, aged about 50 years. He was a native of Fishkill, N. Y., and early in life became connected with a travelling menagerie, where he had an opportunity of becoming practically acquainted with the habits and dispositions of the brute creation. Finding that the fiercest species in time became familiar with their keepers, and that they were susceptible to the influence of training, it occurred to him that a striking performance might be produced by entering a den of lions, tigers, etc., properly subdued, and forming them in a series of groups or tableaux. Ambitious, fearless, and energetic, he soon had a collection of performing animals ready for the proposed exhibition, which was most successfully given. He made his first appearance in New York at the Richmond Hill Theatre in the fall of 1833, and his performances being then entirely novel in character, created a great excitement. Later, during the same season, he appeared at the Bowery Theatre, under the management of T. S. Hamblin, in a melodrama written for him by Miss Medina, entitled "The Lion Lord; or, The Forest Monarch," in which he introduced a royal Bengal tiger, apparently loose, upon the stage. From 1834 until 1838, Van Amburgh performed every winter at the old Zoological Institute in the Bowery, where there was an extensive menagerie. In the summer of 1838 he visited Europe for the first time, making his debut in England at Astley's. Shortly afterwards he was engaged by Bunn for Drury Lane, where his success was of an unprecedented character. Bunn, in his "History of the English Stage," says: "It is impossible to conceive a greater degree of excitement and interest than that which attended Mr. Van Amburgh's exhibition up to the close of the year 1838, unless it be that which followed it through the early part of 1839 while he remained with me." Afterwards, in partnership with a company of Americans, Van Amburgh travelled through England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, with a menagerie, returning to the United States in 1845, where he has since remained, except during several temporary visits to Europe. The deceased was not far from fifty years of age,

and few public men were more extensively known. Mr. Van Amburgh had not performed for a long time previous to his death, and several years since he surrendered the active management of the firm to the hands of Mr. Hyatt Frost, one of his partners.

Nov. 30.—CONWAY, WILLIAM, a sailor in the United States Navy for forty years, died in the United States Naval Hospital, Brooklyn, L. I., aged 68 years. He was a native of Camden, Maine. In April, 1861, he was stationed at the Warrenton (Pensacola) naval station, Florida, and when ordered to lower the United States flag on the secession of the State, replied, that he "could not do it." Upon a repetition of the order, he replied, "I have served under that flag for forty years, and I won't do it." Shortly after Mr. Conway was sent North, where he remained until his death.

Nov. —SYME, HON. JOHN W., an editor, died in Petersburg, Va., aged 54 years. He was a native of Virginia, and was for twenty years the proprietor and editor of the "Intelligencer," which he conducted with great success until the Whig party, of which it was an able and influential representative, became weakened and dispersed by the defeats and divisions which befell it during the administrations of Pierce and Buchanan. In 1856 he removed to Raleigh, North Carolina, where he purchased the "Register," the Whig organ in that State. There he remained until the fall of 1863, when he returned to Petersburg, where he continued the publication of the "Register." In the mean time the old "Intelligencer" had passed through several hands, and finally ceased, practically, to exist. Mr. Syme continued the publication of the "Register" until August, 1864, when he was compelled to suspend it on account of the difficulty of procuring material. While editor of the "Intelligencer," he at one time represented Petersburg in the General Assembly.

Dec. 4.—HILL, JOHN H., formerly Clerk of Sussex County, N. J., and for more than fifty years publisher of the Sussex "Register," died at Newton, N. J., aged 75 years.

Dec. 7.—BARCLAY, J. O'CONNOR, surgeon in the U. S. Navy, died on board the flag-ship *Susquehanna*, off the coast of Brazil, aged about 48 years. He was a native of Louisiana, but was appointed to the navy from Pennsylvania, of which State he had become a citizen. He entered the navy as assistant-surgeon October 17, 1839, and was commissioned surgeon April 4, 1854, and had passed more than twenty-six years in the service, of which nearly fifteen had been afloat. Dr. Barclay was a man of great professional skill, and his scientific and literary attainments were of the highest order.

Dec. 8.—BURNELL, HON. MADISON, a prominent citizen of Chautauqua County, N. Y., died suddenly at Jamestown. He had represented his county in the Legislature with great ability.

Dec. 8.—WITHERS, HON. T. J., a Judge of the

Supreme Court of South Carolina, and one of the ablest jurists of the South, died at Sumterville, S. C.

Dec. 12.—**HELMSMULLER, FREDERICK B.**, musical composer and orchestral conductor, died in New York city, aged 47 years. His musical productions evinced a high order of talent.

Dec. 12.—**HUNTINGTON, DR. ELISHA**, formerly Lieutenant-Governor of Massachusetts, and many years Mayor of Lowell, died there, aged 69 years.

Dec. 13.—**ROVERE, SIGNOR AUGUSTINO**, buffo opera singer, died in New York city, nearly 60 years of age. He was a distinguished member of the Maretzek opera troupe, and had won much fame in the musical world.

Dec. 14.—**BARSTOW, COL. WILLIAM A.**, an ex-Governor of Wisconsin, died at Leavenworth, Kansas, aged 54 years. He was Governor of his State from January, 1854, to January, 1856. When the civil war commenced, he called upon Gen. Fremont, then commander of the Western Department, and offered to raise a cavalry regiment in Wisconsin. After raising it he was made colonel, and the regiment served with credit in the Southwest; but owing to the failing health of Col. Barstow, during most of his military term he was sitting on courts-martial at St. Louis. He was a man of strong mental characteristics, of indomitable energy, and unswerving fidelity to his friends.

Dec. 14.—**DUCACHET, REV. HENRY W., D. D.**, an American Episcopal clergyman, died at Philadelphia, aged 79 years. He was a native of Charleston, S. C., was educated in Philadelphia, and for some years practised medicine in New York, but in 1825 was ordained an Episcopal clergyman, and assumed the charge of a parish in Salem, Mass. He afterwards resided in Norfolk, Virginia, and in 1834 was instituted Rector of St. Stephen's Church in Philadelphia, the duties of which position he fulfilled up to the time of his death, though his declining years led to the appointment, some time since, of an assistant rector. He had several times represented the Diocese of Pennsylvania in the General Convention, and was for many years Secretary of the Diocesan Convention. He also occupied the position of Rector of the Burd Orphan Asylum, an institution which owes its origin to his untiring exertions.

Dr. Ducachet was a man of high scholarly attainments, and of a most genial temperament, and was beloved and respected by a very wide circle of friends. A few weeks previous to his death, his only child, a surgeon in the army, died in Washington, an event which doubtless hastened the father's decease. He had retired to his study for the purpose of writing, as was his habit in the evening, and early in the morning was found therein lying dead upon the floor.

Dec. 16.—**BOYD, REV. A. H. H., D. D.**, an eminent Presbyterian clergyman, died at Winchester, Va. He was a native of Winchester, but was sent to Scotland to receive his college

and theological education. On his return he was ordained by the presbytery of Winchester, and passed his life in the pastorate of the Presbyterian church in that section. A man of commanding presence and genial manners, and of considerable intellectual power, he exerted a powerful influence in his native State. He was connected with the New School Presbyterian body, but at the session of the General Assembly at Cleveland in 1859, the discussion of the slavery question was long and angry, and Dr. Boyd, with a number of other commissioners from the slaveholding States, seceded from the Assembly, and soon after organized the "United Synod of the Presbyterian Church," composed of those Presbyteries in the slaveholding States which had belonged to the New School General Assembly, but which were dissatisfied with its course on the subject of slavery. Of this Synod Dr. Boyd was, we believe, the first Moderator. At the beginning of the war he took decided ground in favor of secession; but his disposition was so gentle and amiable, that he was far less bitter in his hostility to the North than most of the clergy of that section. He maintained the organization of the United Synod till his death.

Dec. 18.—**O'FALLON, COL. JOHN**, an eminent citizen of St. Louis, and founder of the Polytechnic Institute, now the scientific department of St. Louis University, died in St. Louis. He was a man of large wealth and great benevolence, and had devoted himself with zeal to the welfare and improvement of the city which he had made his residence.

Dec. 19.—**JONES, CHARLES DAVIS**, lieutenant in the U. S. Navy, died at Boston, aged about 25 years. He entered the service at Annapolis, Md., in 1859, and throughout his short life bore his part with honor to himself and to the navy.

Dec. 20.—**AMES, HON. SAMUEL**, for ten years Chief Justice of the Rhode Island Supreme Court, died suddenly at Providence, R. I. He had recently resigned his office on account of ill health.

Dec. 20.—**STILES, COL. WILLIAM H.**, of the rebel army, formerly Chargé d'Affaires at Vienna, died at Savannah, Ga. He was a native of that city, where he began life as a lawyer in 1831. In 1833 he was elected Solicitor General of the eastern district, which office he filled with ability until the beginning of 1836, when he resigned it, and soon after he retired from practice altogether. He afterwards removed to Cass (now Bartow) County, where he was living at the beginning of the recent struggle. While residing there he was elected a Representative in Congress, in which body he served for the term of two years. On the accession of Mr. Polk to the Presidency, Mr. Stiles was appointed Chargé d'Affaires at the Austrian court. During his residence at Vienna he found time to collate valuable materials for a history of that country, and which he published soon after his return home in 1849. Soon after the commencement of the

rebellion, Colonel Stiles raised a regiment, from the command of which he retired after his health had been much impaired by exposure in the service.

Dec. 24.—CUTTER, GEORGE W., a poet, died at Washington, D. C. He was a native of Massachusetts, but early in life removed to the West, practising law with some success in Kentucky until 1846. When the Mexican war commenced, he raised a company of infantry, which subsequently formed part of the 2d Kentucky regiment, commanded by Col. McKee, who, with Col. Henry Clay, jr., met a tragic death at Buena Vista. During the Taylor and Fillmore administrations Mr. Cutter held a clerkship in the Treasury Department, and in the days of Know Nothingism he was known at Washington as an orator. Among his poems most admired are "*E Pluribus Unum*," and the "*Song of Steam*."

Dec. 28.—LEE, MRS. HANNAH F., widow of George Gardner Lee, of Boston, Mass., died in that city, aged 85 years. She was the author of "*Three Experiments of Living*," and other popular works.

Dec. 28.—WILLIAMS, MRS. MARY, died at the White House, N. J., aged 106 years. She had never been sick until a few weeks previous to her death.

Dec. 29.—KURTZ, REV. BENJAMIN, D. D., LL. D., a Lutheran clergyman, editor and author, died at Baltimore, Md., aged 71 years. He was a native of Harrisburg, Penn., received a thorough collegiate and theological education, and was ordained and settled in Hagerstown, Md., in 1815, where he filled the office of pastor with great acceptability for sixteen years. He was then called to the editorship of the "*Lutheran Observer*," the organ of his denomination. He exhibited great ability as an editor, and though occasionally engaged in controversy, conducted his discussions in an amiable and Christian spirit. His connection with the "*Observer*" continued for more than thirty years. He was also the author of several books on religious topics.

Dec. 29.—PEASE, Capt. W. C., commanding the Revenue cutter Kewanee, died of typhoid fever, on the Charleston, S. C. station. He was an efficient officer, and had won the respect and esteem of all with whom he was in any-wise associated.

OBITUARIES, CANADIAN.—*Jan. 11.*—FERLAND, L'ABBÉ, M. J. B. A. Ferland's reputation rests upon his literary productions, although he was at the same time a distinguished ornament of the Roman Catholic Church in Canada. While his productions have not been very numerous, they are held in great estimation, not only on account of their importance as contributions to historical literature, but for the reason of their being written whilst in the full pursuit of his arduous professional duties. He was descended from the family of Freland, formerly of Poitou, in Vendée, France, in the 17th century; a member of which emigrated to Can-

ada and settled on the Island of Orleans, near Quebec. Here the name was changed to its present style; and the father of the historian was married to a daughter of M. Lebrun de Duplessis, one of the four advocates who remained in Quebec after the conquest. M. Ferland was born at Montreal on the 25th of December, 1805. In 1813 his mother went to reside at Kingston with her son, and there he pursued his early studies. In 1816 he entered the college of Nicolet, where he remained until 1823, when he was admitted to holy orders; served for one year as under-secretary to Monseigneur Plessis, and afterwards became professor of arts, rhetoric, and philosophy, at Nicolet. In 1828 he was admitted to the priesthood; was vicar, and served at Rivière du Loup and St. Roch, Quebec; and acted as first chaplain of the marine hospital during the cholera of 1834. He was appointed curé of St. Isidore; and subsequently was given that of St. Foy, and in 1837 that of Ste. Anne de Beaupre. In 1841 he was appointed superintendent of students at Nicolet, and became superior of that institution in 1847. A year later he was called upon to reside at the archiepiscopal palace, Quebec. In 1855 he proceeded to France, for the purpose of gathering materials for an early history of Canada. In this expedition he was eminently successful; and on his return, published "*Observations on the History of Canada*," by l'Abbé Brasseur, and subsequently, "*Notes on the Registers of Notre Dame de Quebec*;" "*A Voyage to Labrador*;" lately the first volume of "*Courses of History of Canada from 1534 to 1633*;" and a "*Journal of a Voyage to the coast of Gaspé*," with other narratives. M. Ferland was a gentleman of much goodness of heart and amiability of manners, and was very generally esteemed.

He had been for a number of years Roman Catholic chaplain to her Majesty's forces in the garrison of Quebec.

April 15.—GALE, Hon. Mr. Justice, was the son of a Mr. Gale, who, born in Hampshire, England, came to America in 1770 as Assistant Paymaster to the Forces. The late Mr. Justice Gale was born at St. Augustine, East Florida, in 1783. He was educated at Quebec, while his father was Secretary, and came to study law at Montreal under the late Chief Justice Sewell in 1802, having the late Chief Justice Rolland and, we believe, Mr. Papineau as fellow-students. Mr. Gale was admitted to the bar in 1808, and ere long secured a large practice. In 1815 he was appointed a magistrate in the Indian territories, and accompanied Lord Selkirk when he went to the Northwest. Later, when Lord Dalhousie was attacked for his Canadian administration, he went home as bearer of memorials from the English-speaking Lower Canadians in the townships and elsewhere, defending his Lordship's conduct. In 1829 he became chairman of the Quarter Sessions, and in 1834 was raised to the bench to replace Mr. Justice Uniacke, who preferred to

resign the seat on the bench to which he had just been appointed rather than come back to Montreal during the cholera then raging there. Judge Gale retired from the bench in 1849, forced into retirement by continued ill-health and the gradual coming on of the infirmities of old age. He had married in 1839 a Miss Hawley, of St. Armand West. Born of parents who had both suffered for their loyal adherence to the British crown during the American Revolution, and educated in their views, Mr. Gale was, as long as he moved in politics, a staunch conservative and defender of British connection and British supremacy. He wrote a series of letters to the "Montreal Herald" (in those days the organ of the stoutest conservatism), over the signature of "Nerva," which produced a strong impression on the public mind at the time. And in espousing the cause of Lord Dalhousie and upholding the old constitution (under the title Constitutionalists taken by the conservatives of that day) against the advocates of democracy or responsible government, he was but consistently pursuing the course on which he at first set out. While upon the bench, he maintained in an elaborate and very able judgment the right of the crown to establish martial law in 1837, refusing to theorize about what abstract rights man had or ought to have, declaring simply and firmly what the law, as he read it, established the prerogative of the sovereign to be in a colony. Both as lawyer and judge he won the respect of his *confrères* alike by his ability and learning. Of late years his heart was most deeply interested in the freedom of the slave. He could not speak with patience of any compromise with slavery, and waxed indignant in denunciation of all who in any way aided, abetted, or even countenanced it. When the Anderson case was before the Upper Canada courts, he was one of the most active among those who aroused agitation. When the Prince of Wales visited the country, he got up a congratulatory address from the colored people of Canada, which however was not received, as the Prince was desired by the Duke of Newcastle not to recognize differences of race and creed wherever it could be helped. He was a man of high principle, and ever bore an unblemished moral character. Yet once in his early career at the bar he was forced by the then customs of society to go out in a duel. His antagonist was Sir James Stuart, who had quarrelled with him in court. Mr. Gale was severely wounded.

June 27.—McCord, Hon. J. S., one of the Justices of the Superior Court of Lower Canada. The deceased judge was born near Dublin, on the 18th day of June, 1801. His father, who had friends in Canada, emigrated in 1806, and settled there. He studied law in the offices first of the late Chief Justice Rolland, and subsequently in that of the late Mr. Justice Gale, and was called to the bar in 1822 or 1823. He continued to practise his profession until the outbreak of the rebellion in 1837, when he en-

tered the volunteer service, raising a cavalry corps, and becoming commandant of a brigade of cavalry, and for a time also of the whole militia force in Montreal. On the reorganization of the courts by the Special Council, he became a District Judge and Judge of the Court of Requests, and subsequently Judge of the Circuit Court. Later, on the reorganization of the Judiciary in 1857, he became a Judge of the Superior Court. He had thus been on the bench for twenty-three or twenty-four years, and in that time had done judicial duty in every portion of the old district of Montreal, embracing about half the population of Lower Canada. Although not standing foremost among the jurists who have won celebrity among the members of the bench and bar, he has yet proved an eminently useful and painstaking judge, whose decisions have uniformly stood the test of appeal more successfully than those of most other men upon the bench. Few or none of them have, indeed, been altogether set aside. Besides his soldiering for several years, he was for years a zealous student of natural history, and one of the founders of the Montreal Natural History Society. He was known as a student of meteorology, and contributed many important papers on that interesting branch of study. But the work into which he threw most of his heart and soul during his later years—next after his judicial duties, if not equally even with them—was the promotion of the interests of the religious community to which he belonged. A zealous, true-hearted member of the Church of England, he was also a warm friend and admirer of the metropolitan Bishop of Canada, and an ardent fellow-laborer with him in every thing which could promote the interests or welfare of the Church. He was successively vice-chancellor and chancellor of the University of Bishops' College, Lennoxville, which office he held at the time of his death. Owing to the illness and overtasking of several of the judges, the Beauharnois circuit had been on several occasions neglected, and the matter was brought up in Parliament by the representatives of that district. When urged by the Attorney-General to take the duty there for one term, and the difficulties of the Government pointed out to him—the blame, in fact, cast upon them by Parliament for neglect—he replied, "I will go, if it kills me." He held his last term there, and returned home ill. He was never fit for work afterwards.

Oct. —.—McLEAN, Hon. ex-Chief Justice, was born at St. Andrews, near Cornwall, U. C., in April, 1791. He was the son of the Hon. Neal McLean, M. L. C., and his mother was a daughter of an U. E. loyalist, Col. Macdonald. The son was educated at the Cornwall Grammar School, under Dr. Strachan, now Bishop of Toronto. He studied law in the office of Attorney-General Firth, at York, as Toronto was then called; but before he had been called to the bar he went through the American war as captain in the incorporated militia. While

assisting the aide-de-camp of Gen. Brock, after that brave commander had received his death-wound, he was wounded himself in the hip. Afterwards, in the engagement at York, he saved the colors of the York militia. He was taken prisoner at the battle of Lundy's Lane, and was sent to Greenbush, opposite Albany, New York, where he was detained till the peace. On the breaking out of the rebellion in Upper Canada, his old military instincts came back upon him, and he took an active part against the men who had assembled at Montgomery's tavern, near Toronto. After his return from his imprisonment at Greenbush, Mr. McLean was admitted to the bar; and soon after he was employed in a professional capacity in the difficulties that arose out of the contentions between the Northwest and the Hudson Bay Companies.

Mr. McLean represented Stormont and Cornwall, for several years, in the Legislative Assembly of Upper Canada, of which he was twice elected Speaker. He was appointed Judge of the Court of King's Bench, in the early part of 1837; but he continued to feel an interest in politics long after, and when the union of Upper and Lower Canada was proposed, he used whatever personal influence he possessed with members of the Legislature or otherwise in opposition to that measure. On the appointment of Mr. Justice Draper to the Chief Justiceship of the Common Pleas, Mr. McLean, fancying injustice had been done to him, resigned the Judgeship he had so long held. Mr. Macdonald had afterwards an opportunity of making what even Mr. McLean considered full amends, by appointing him Chief Justice of Upper Canada. This promotion was so wholly unexpected by the object of it, that at first he could scarcely believe the intelligence. Before he resigned the Chief Justiceship of the Court of Queen's Bench, his strength had given way. Mr. Sandfield Macdonald, when Attorney General, proposed that he should take the Presidency of the Court of Error and Appeal, a comparatively easy berth, which had been filled by Sir John Beverley Robinson before his death. Mr. McLean's integrity as a Judge was never questioned; he was much respected by the Bar; and his liberal hospitalities while on circuit will be long remembered.

Nov. 25.—PARKER, Chief-Justice. The deceased Chief Justice was the eldest son of Robert Parker, Esq., formerly Controller of H. M. Customs at the port of St. John, N. B. He commenced his studies in the office of Ward Chipman, Esq., afterwards Chief Justice of New Brunswick. Before entering upon the duties of the legal profession, Mr. Robert Parker, at the instance of his father, took charge of the Customs Department in Miramichi, on the occasion of a vacancy caused by the death of the previous incumbent. About the year 1816 he was called to the bar, and commenced his professional business in St. John. In 1819 he

married Susan, daughter of Lieut.-Col. Morris Robinson, formerly Barrack-Master General at Gibraltar. Mr. Parker was appointed to the vacant office of Recorder, which he held for four or five years, resigning it in 1829-'30. In 1826 he was elected to the Legislature, as one of the members for the county of St. John, and held the seat for some years, not, however, without contests with opposing candidates. He became Solicitor-General in 1828, and as Attorney-General, *pro tempore*, he had the management of the celebrated proceedings taken against John Baker for hoisting the flag of the United States on the territory in possession of Great Britain, but claimed by the United States, pending the settlement of the Northeastern Boundary question effected by the Ashburton Treaty. In 1834 a vacancy occurred in the bench of the Supreme Court by the death of Mr. Justice John Murray Bliss, and he was then elevated to the bench. How Judge Parker discharged the duties which now devolved upon him it is needless to say. Judge Parker's accession to the office of Chief Justice was so recent, that his discharge of the duties of that office, for a brief period, does not call for special remark. As a member of society, the heart of the deceased Chief Justice was in every good work. As President of the Bible Society, for a very long period, he loved to mark the growth and expansion of that truly noble Society, whose object is to publish the Word of God, "without note or comment," in all the languages of the world, and to supply a copy to every human being. He watched, as with parental fondness, the growth of the Society in New Brunswick, discharging the delicate duties which devolved upon him with the utmost assiduity and success.

OBITUARIES—EUROPEAN.—Sept. 1.—CASTELLANI, Chevalier FORTUNATO PIO, a celebrated Italian artist and designer in jewelry, died at Rome. His name had become noted throughout Europe, by the classic taste which he displayed in adapting the designs of ancient Etruscan artists to the exigencies of modern jewelry. His studio was always crowded by foreigners, and his classic necklaces, ear-rings, and bracelets, were carried to all parts of Europe as trophies of Roman taste.

Jan. 2.—THOMSON, RICHARD, an English antiquarian, and for more than thirty years librarian of the London Institute, died at his apartments there, aged 70 years. He was the author of a number of published works, among which were, "A Faithful Account of the Processions and Ceremonies observed in the Coronations of the Kings and Queens of England" (1820); "The Book of Life, a Bibliographical Melody dedicated to the Roxburghe Club" (1820); "The Chronicles of London Bridge" (1827); "Illustrations of British History" (1828); "Tales of an Antiquary" (1828); "Historical Essay on Magna Charta" (1829); "Legends of London" (1832); and a catalogue of the library.

Jan. 8.—DOBSON, JOHN, an English architect

of much celebrity, died at Newcastle, aged 77 years. He was born at Chirton, near North Shields, and early evincing some artistic talent, was carefully educated for the profession to which he devoted his life. Soon after attaining his majority he travelled in England and France, studying church architecture, and immediately after his return entered upon his work. As his reputation began to extend beyond the limits of his own country, he was called upon to design houses, churches, and castles, in other parts of England. The churches built from Mr. Dobson's plans were numerous, and among them may be mentioned that of St. Thomas, Newcastle; the Scottish church at North Shields, in 1818; Gesmond church, at Monkwearmouth; Lynn church, at Warrington, Cheshire; St. Stephen's, South Shields; St. Mary's, Jarrow, and St. Mary's, Rye Hill; besides schools built, cemeteries laid out, etc. The restoration of Lambton Castle for the Earl of Durham affords an instance of his inventive genius; the graving-dock, at St. Peter's shipyard, his talent as engineer, and the Central Railway-station at New Castle, his taste and skill as a designer. Mr. Dobson was also employed extensively by the Government on the Custom-houses at Glasgow, Newcastle, and Liverpool. The Royal Arcade, Newcastle, was from his designs, and he also executed several important hydraulic works. The result of his many years of industry and devotion to his department of art, will long afford a pleasing study for the profession in which he had attained the front rank.

Jan. 9.—SZEMERE, BERTALAN, a Hungarian statesman and author, died at Paris, aged 58 years. He was a native of Borsod County, received his early education at Miskolcz and Kázmárk, and took a course of philosophical and legal studies at Patak and Presburg. In 1836-'7 he travelled over a large portion of Europe, and subsequently held various public offices in his native country. He was appointed Minister of the Interior in the Batthyányi cabinet, being also elected representative of Borsod in the national assembly of Pesth, officiated for some months as commissary of the revolutionary government in Upper Hungary, and on the declaration of independence in Debreczin, was chosen by Kossuth President of the new ministry, with the portfolio of the Interior. He opposed the transfer of dictatorial power to Görgey, and after the surrender of the latter, escaped to Constantinople, and thence went to Paris, where he resided until his death. In exile he published, besides some minor writings, *L. Batthyányi, A. Görgei, und L. Kossuth*, and "Hungary from 1848 to 1860."

Jan. 9.—DOD, ROBERT PHIPPS, compiler of the "Parliamentary Companion," and "Peerage and Baronetage," died at Nant Issa-hall, near Oswestry, Shropshire, from the effects of an accident while shooting.

Jan. 10.—ILCHESTER, WILLIAM THOMAS HORNER FOX-STRAWGWAYS, fourth Earl of, died at

Melbury-house, Dorset, aged 69 years. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, and before quitting the University entered the diplomatic service. In 1816 he was attached to the embassy at St. Petersburg; at Constantinople, 1820; and at Naples, 1822. In 1824 he was appointed attaché at the Hague; in 1825 secretary of legation at Florence; in 1828 held the same office at Naples; in 1832 was secretary of embassy at Vienna; in 1835 was under-Secretary of State at the Foreign Office; and envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at Frankfurt-on-the-Main, from August, 1840, to 1849, when he retired upon a pension. He was a man of highly cultivated mind, and displayed a great fondness for horticultural pursuits.

Jan. 10.—CAMERON, REV. CHARLES RICHARD, rector of Swaby, died at Swaby, Lincolnshire, aged 85 years. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, and was the author of several sermons and pamphlets, among which are "Lectures on Confirmations;" "A Sermon on the Death of Nelson;" "Sayings and Doings of Popery;" "A Letter to Mr. Whitmore on the Corn Laws;" "A Pamphlet on the Sabbath Question, addressed to Archbishop Whately;" "Parochial Sermons;" "On the Antichrist of St. John;" "On the Revolutions of 1848;" and a "Poem on the New Moral World against Socialism."

Jan. 15.—HOARE, VENERABLE CHARLES JAMES, Archdeacon of Surrey, died at Goldstone, aged 83 years. He was privately educated, and was admitted a pensioner of St. John's College, Cambridge, from which he graduated with high honors in 1803. In 1806 he was elected a Fellow of his College, and the following year was presented to the Vicarage of Blandford Forum, in Dorsetshire, and in 1821 to the Vicarage of Godstone. In 1829 he was promoted to the Archdeaconry of Winchester; and in 1831 to a canonry in that cathedral. In 1847 he was translated to the Archdeaconry of Surrey, which he resigned in 1860, on account of failing health, consequent upon his great age. Among his many publications may be mentioned: "Seven Charges as Archdeacon of Winchester, with Notes;" "The Course of Divine Judgments; eight Lectures, principally in reference to the Present Times, and the impending Pestilence" (1832); "Memoir, with Remains of the Rev. Charles John Paterson;" "Tendency of Principles in Tracts for the Times" (1841); "Baptism, or the Ministration of Public Baptism of Infants, to be read in the Church, Scripturally illustrated and explained;" "Holy Scriptures and Essays," besides many other sermons and theological essays.

Jan. 15.—RITCHIE, LITCH, an English editor and novelist, formerly one of the editors of "Chambers' Cyclopædia," died at Edinburgh, aged 64 years. He was a native of Greenock, and early entered a banking-house in his native town, but subsequently went to London, where he became an author by profession, editing in succession, "The Englishman's Magazine," "The

Era," and "The Indian News." He also edited the "Library of Romance," and wrote the letter-press for "Turner's Annual Tour" and "Heath's Picturesque Annual," to collect materials for which he made annual journeys over the Continent of Europe. He edited twelve volumes of these works, and published in the mean time novels entitled "The Magician" and "Schinderhannes, the Robber of the Rhine." Besides several other novels, he published in 1857 "Weary-foot Common," and the following year, "Winter Evening Sketches and Essays."

Jan. 18.—NEILSON, JAMES BEAUMONT, civil engineer, died at Queenshill, aged 72 years. He was a native of Shettleston, near Glasgow, and was brought up as a working mechanic, though not without some educational advantages. Some accidental circumstances led him in the course of his studies and experiments to direct his attention to the process of smelting iron, and after much perseverance he ultimately satisfied himself that a vastly increased and improved action of the artificial blast employed in furnaces could be obtained by heating the air in its passage from the blowing cylinder into the furnace, and thus resulted the hot-blast, a process which completely revolutionized the iron trade.

Jan. 21.—HUMPHREYS, WILLIAM, a skilful line engraver, died at Geneva, Switzerland, aged 71 years. He was formerly from Philadelphia, from whence he went to London, where he engraved many fine pictures, including "Sancho and the Duchess," by Leslie, and "Young Lambton," by Lawrence.

Jan. 22.—BONIFACE, J. (X. B. Saintine), author of *Picciola*, died at Paris, aged 66 years. He was exceedingly successful as a writer, and his name is enduringly connected with several most popular pieces, especially *L'Ours et la Pacha* and *Riches d'Amour*. At the time of his death he was Honorary President of the Société des Gens de Lettres.

Jan. 23.—CHARRAS, JEAN BAPTISTE ADOLPHE, a French republican soldier, statesman, and author, died an exile in Belgium, aged 55 years. He was a native of Pfalsburg, in the department of the Meurthe, took part in the Revolution of 1830, was promoted in 1833 to the rank of lieutenant, and for writing a series of articles in the "National" on military affairs which gave umbrage to the Government, was sent to Algeria. Here he distinguished himself on the battle-fields as well as in the training of native troops and the colonization of the country. After the Revolution of 1848, he became under-Secretary of State and representative for the department of Puy de Dôme. He was one of the chief pillars of the Republican Government, and a victim of the *coup d'état* of December 2, 1851. In January, 1852, he was transported to Belgium, but two years after was expelled from thence at the request of Napoleon, whom he had denounced on many occasions. Since December, 1857, however, he has been permitted to reside

there. He was the author of *Histoire de la Campagne de 1815*, published in 1857, and *Les Trois Maréchaux de France* (1858). The former work is not allowed to enter France.

Jan. 31.—WHITE, ROBERT MEADOWS, D. D., Professor of Anglo-Saxon in Magdalen College, Oxford, Rector of Slimbridge, near Stonehouse, Gloucestershire, and an author of some note, died at the rectory, aged 67 years. He graduated at Magdalen College in 1819, was ordained deacon in 1821, priest in 1822, and in 1832 became college tutor, holding the office for several years. In 1834 he was elected Rawlinson Professor of Anglo-Saxon, and was vice-president of his college in 1838. At that time he enjoyed the character of domestic historian and antiquary of his college, besides being the chief authority in the English language. With all his other literary labor, he assumed the editing of the poem "Ormulum," preserved in the Bodleian Library, a work which he had in hand nearly twenty years; and in order to do full justice to that portion containing Danish expressions, and gain a knowledge of the Danish language, he visited Denmark in 1837. Dr. White was a correspondent of most of the English philologists, Dr. Bosworth, Benjamin Thorpe, Mr. Garnett, and others.

Jan. 31.—FALCONER, HUGH, M. D., an eminent British naturalist, and President of the Royal Society, London, died at his residence in Park Crescent, aged 55 years. He was educated at King's College, Aberdeen, and in 1826 went to Edinburgh, where he entered upon and completed his medical studies. Subsequently he entered the East India Company's service as assistant-surgeon, where his acquisitions in the study of botany won for him the superintendence of the botanical gardens at Serampore, and latterly at Calcutta. In this occupation (with the exception of the usual furlough to Europe) he passed twenty years of his useful and valuable life, returning to England with shattered health about two years ago, to pursue the same career with unabated ardor. In the domain of Indian botany he may be said to have created the teas of Assam, the first successful attempt to transfer the tea-plant of China to a foreign region. But perhaps the most striking of Dr. Falconer's discoveries were those in the department of palæontology, where he might be considered almost equal to the Cuviers, the Owens, and the Lyells. From the lowest range of the Himalayas he made, arranged, described, and carried to England the largest collection of fossilized organic remains which was ever made. In this pursuit he travelled extensively, and but a few months previous to his death he inspected the caves of Gibraltar, in which he found the fossilized bones of man with those of mastodons, elephants, etc. Dr. Falconer was a thorough master of geology, botany, and zoology, was well versed in ethnology and archæology, and was both a classical and oriental scholar. Among his published works are "Fauna Antiqua Sivalonis, being the

Fossil Zoology of the Sewalik Hills in the North of India," and a "Descriptive Catalogue of the Fossil Remains of Vertebrata in the Museum of Bengal." He was also a large contributor to the Geological and Philosophical Transactions.

Jan. —.—BOUILLET, M., French lexicographer and author, died in Paris, aged 66 years. During the greater part of his life he was professor of literature in the University of Paris. In 1840 he was named Principal of the College Bourbon (now Lycée Bonaparte), and held that post until some disturbance by the students, which he ineffectually tried to quiet, caused him to be removed. In 1850, however, he received compensation in being named honorary member of the Council of the University, Inspector of the Academy of Paris, and subsequently Inspector General of Public Instruction. So far back as 1826 he published his "Dictionnaire Classique de l'Antiquité Sacrée et Profane," on the plan of Lemprière. His "Historical and Geographical Dictionary" appeared in 1842, in one volume stout 8vo, and containing more than two thousand pages, double columns, closely but legibly printed. This was at once accepted as the best book of the kind that had appeared in France, and it may be doubted if a more concise and satisfactory work of reference exists in any language. In Paris Bouillet's book was recommended by the University, and adopted by men of letters and men of the world; and at the present moment it may be found in almost every counting-house and on almost every writing-desk in that city. Though it had been approved by the Archbishop of Paris, it was attacked in the Ultramontane "Univers;" and, to his great surprise and regret, M. Bouillet found that his inoffensive book was included in the Index Expurgatorius. He made a journey to Rome for the purpose of remonstrating or explaining, and succeeded not only in removing the interdict, but in getting the approval of the Holy See. It is understood that the "Dictionnaire" has gone through eighteen editions. The "Dictionnaire des Sciences, des Lettres, et des Arts," has also gone through several editions.

Jan. —.—ROMANI, Signor FELIX, an Italian librettist, died at Geneva, Switzerland, aged 75 years. He was a native of Genoa, and was one of the few whose poetry has obtained celebrity apart from the musical associations with which it was connected. His most successful productions were the librettos of the operas *Norma* and *L'Elisir d'Amore*.

Feb. 1.—GRANGER, RICHARD DUGARD, F. R. S., an eminent medical author and lecturer, died at Highgate, London, aged 63 years. He was formerly Lecturer on Physics and Structural Anatomy at St. Thomas's Hospital. He was the author of "Elements of General Anatomy, containing an Outline of the Organization of the Human Body" (1829); "Observations on the Structure and Functions of the Spinal Cord" (London, 1837); "Observations on the Cultivation of Organic Science," and "Sanitary

Report on Epidemic Cholera, as it prevailed in London, in 1848-'49."

Feb. 12.—NORTHUMBERLAND, ALGERNON PERCY, fourth Duke of, K. G., and an Admiral in the Royal Navy, born December 15, 1792; died at Alnwick Castle, Northumberland, February 12, 1865. He was descended through the female line from the ancient family of Percys, was educated at Eton College, entered the naval service in 1805, and in 1809, as midshipman of the *Hydra*, commanded a gunboat in coöperation with the Spanish patriots on the coast of Andalusia. As acting captain of the *Caledonia*, he took part in a partial action with the French fleet off Toulon in 1813, and was present at the taking of Genoa, in 1814. He became commander in March, 1814; captain in August, 1815; rear-admiral on the reserved list in November, 1850; vice-admiral July, 1857; and admiral in October, 1862. In 1816, during the lifetime of the second duke, his father, he was called to the House of Lords, by the title of Baron Prudhoe, of Prudhoe Castle. But he had no taste for public life, and he employed his energies in travelling in the East, where he found abundant opportunities to gratify his taste for the higher pursuits of archæology and for researches into the early history of nations. Several Coptic manuscripts, as well as sculptures and coins of various countries, were collected by him during his travels, and the national collections of Egyptian antiquities in the British and other Museums are greatly indebted to his liberality. In recognition of his contributions to the advancement of literature and the interests of art, the University of Oxford conferred on him in 1841 the honorary degree of D. C. L. He was a Fellow of the Royal Society, of the Society of Antiquarians of London, of the Royal Geographical Society, and the Royal Astronomical Society. He was also a member of the Royal Society of Antiquaries of Copenhagen, a Director of the British Museum, and President of the Royal United Service Institution. In 1847 he succeeded his brother in the titles and possessions of his ancestors, and from that time devoted liberally of his abundant resources to the interests of church and charitable institutions, as well as to those of science and literature. Particularly was he interested in the welfare of the sailor, and in 1856 was completed at his expense the Sailors' Home, at North Shields. On the formation of the Derby cabinet in 1852, the late Duke became the first Lord of the Admiralty, and remained in the Cabinet until the breaking up of the Government in December of that year. On taking office he was made Privy Councillor, and, in the same year, a Knight of the Garter. In 1857 a handsome quarto volume was produced under his auspices, for private distribution, containing a series of architectural illustrations of the antiquities of the county of Northumberland, with descriptive letter-press and tables of the descent of the Percy family. An illustrated

edition of his valuable Egyptian Museum, by an able Egyptologist, was in forwardness at the time of his decease. He acquired in 1856, at Rome, the famous Camuccini collection, the most valuable gallery which, for many years, has been permitted to leave Italy, consisting of seventy-four paintings, and which are described by Waagen in the supplement to his "Galleries of Art in Great Britain." Having no issue, the Duke is succeeded by his cousin the Earl of Beverley.

Feb. —.—PACHA, PIR MEHEMET, a negro Turkish admiral, died at Eyoub, Turkey.

March 17. —MATHIEU, M. (de la Drôme), a French meteorologist and author, died at Romain, France, aged 57 years. He was in early life an ardent politician, and professed the more advanced doctrines of democracy. Some time previous to the Revolution of 1848, he, in conjunction with a few friends of like views, formed at Romain an association to which he gave the name of the *Athénée de Belles Lettres*, but the ideas promulgated there proving incompatible with the existing institutions, his conferences were prohibited and the lecture-room shut up. He then founded a journal in which he advocated the socialist doctrines which formed the staple of his teaching in the Athenæum. When the Republic was proclaimed, the Department of the Drôme elected M. Mathieu to the National Assembly, and he was reelected in 1849. On the night of the *coup d'état* he was arrested. Banished from France, he first took up his residence in Belgium, and subsequently in Chambéry, where he gave up politics and devoted himself to science. He invented a musket revolver, and extracted a gas from resin with which he made some experiments at Marseilles. The latter portion of his life he turned his attention to the study of meteorology, and the publication of his almanacs. These had an immense circulation, some of the predictions concerning the weather being so strikingly verified that among the lower classes he was considered a prophet.

March 20. —TROYON, CONSTANTINE, a distinguished French artist, died in Paris, aged 52 years. He was a native of Sevres, studied under Riocreux, exhibited for the first time in 1833, and worked uninterruptedly until worn down by fatigue and over-exertion. He was the rival of Landseer and Rosa Bonheur. His "Bœufs au Labour," "Return from the Farm," and "Starting for Market," will hand down his name to posterity as an animal painter of the first order of merit. He left a large fortune.

March 24. —KISS, Prof. KARL AUGUST, a German sculptor, died in Berlin, aged 68 years. He was a native of Silesia, and at the age of twenty became a pupil of Rauch at the Academy of Berlin. The group of the Amazon and the Tiger first brought him into notice. Among his other principal works are a statue of Frederic the Great, two of Frederic William III., and St. Michael overthrowing the Dragon.

March —.—SCHOTT, Dr. H., Director of the Botanical and Geological Garden at Schönbrunn, near Vienna, died there. He travelled extensively in the Brazils early in this century, and had published many sterling works upon those branches of science which he cultivated.

April 1. —PASTA, Madame GIUDITTA, an eminent opera-singer, died at her villa near Lake Como, Italy, aged 66 years. A Jewess by birth, her first musical education was derived from the *maître de chapelle* of Como Cathedral. At the age of fifteen she became a pupil at the Milan Conservatory of Music, and five or six years later she came out at the Venice and Milan Operas. In 1821 she appeared on the Paris stage, and in the following year she sang at Verona to the members of the Congress. From 1824 to 1830 is generally considered to have been the most brilliant period of her career. Managers fought and masters composed for her. Bellini composed "Norma" and the "Sonnambula" that she might sing in them, and for her Pacini wrote his "Niobe." Her face was not prepossessing, neither could her voice be compared to that of many other celebrated singers of that time and of the present day; but the sense of the beautiful was so strong within her, so tenacious was her determination to attain to a high position in her art, that it conquered every thing; and in spite of failures in Italy and France, which embittered the commencement of her career, she succeeded in placing herself at the head of that band of illustrious artists which it is hard to believe will ever be surpassed or even equalled. The extent of her voice was remarkable. In her prime she is said to have had the full range of two and a half octaves. It must be nearly thirty years since she left the stage, but she once afterwards quitted her Como retreat to sing at St. Petersburg, for a very large remuneration.

April 11. —WITHERINGTON, W. F., an English painter of much note, died in London, aged 79 years. In 1805 he became a student of the Royal Academy, and in 1811 exhibited at the British Institution a picture of "Tintern Abbey." He became an A. R. A., and in 1830 and in the following year exhibited the "Corn-Field." Among his best pictures are some which have figure subjects; of these "The Hop-Garden," which forms part of the Sheepshank's gifts, now at South Kensington, is perhaps the best. Among other paintings of note are "The Stepping Stones," "John Gilpin," "Sancho Panza," and "Don Quixote." In 1840 he was made R. A.

April 14. —GRESSLY, ARMAND, a celebrated Swiss geologist, died near Berne, in the 52d year of his age. Born near Laufen, he began to roam about in the mountains and valleys of the Jura almost as soon as he could stand on his feet. At Strasburg, where he went to study medicine, he was present at the meeting of the Geological Congress, and began to love this science, to which he afterward entirely devoted

himself, and in which he soon distinguished himself so much as to be undisputedly the first authority in geological questions of the Jura Mountains. His work on the Solothurn Jura, published by him and his friends Desor and Agassiz, at once established him as such. Unselfish to a point which became imprudent, he practised his science for the sake of science alone. Buried among the clay and stones of the mountains, hammering, digging, and scratching for days together, he cared for nothing else, and was entirely oblivious of any claims of society on him. Gressly's geological studies for the piercing of the Hauenstein gave evidence of a truly admirable penetration and sagacity; with the greatest accuracy he pointed out the depth of the different beds and strata. If his advice had been followed in every particular and his warning been listened to, the terrible catastrophe in the Hauenstein tunnel, which cost so many lives, would not have happened. His services in the building of the Jura Railway were equally great. Some years later he accompanied his friend Desor to the Mediterranean, for the purpose of scientific examinations, and another friend and well-known natural philosopher, Prof. Karl Vogt, in his voyage to Iceland, Norway, etc.

April 16.—**LUCAS, SAMUEL**, editor of the London "Morning Star," died in London, aged 54 years. He was a native of Brighton, a man of fine abilities and earnest convictions, and thoroughly identified with the Liberal party in England. Well versed in the knowledge of public affairs, his party possessed in him an able and untiring champion, while at the same time his catholic spirit and amiable temper rendered him more than popular with all who knew him. He was identified with all the social reforms of his time. He founded the Manchester Public Schools Association, after the plan of the United States and Canadian systems—not without opposition. He was an active member of the Anti-Corn-Law League. He helped to repeal the narrow-minded restrictions on the publishing of English newspapers, and took an active part in the formation and direction of the Constitutional Defence Association, which had its origin in the attempt of the House of Lords to control the taxation of the country, and its reward in the ultimate triumph of the Commons. He was also one of the originators of the Emancipation Society. During the late war between the North and South, he was a warm supporter of our Government, upholding it with earnest vigor through much opposition. Mr. Lucas was a brother-in-law of Mr. Bright, and an intimate friend of Mr. Cobden.

April 24.—**MITCHELL, JOHN MITCHELL**, Knight of the Order of Leopold, and Belgian Consul-General for Scotland, died near Edinburgh, aged 70 years. He received a good education at the Polmont School, and was afterwards sent to the University of Edinburgh. For nearly fifty years he was in business as a

merchant of Leith, and was for a great part of the time Belgian Consul-General; but these duties, discharged in the most energetic manner, still left him time, which he devoted to literature and archaeology. He was deeply versed in archaeological science, and had an accurate and comprehensive knowledge of natural history, mineralogy, and kindred sciences, and was also familiar with most of the languages of the Continent. He contributed many interesting papers to the Antiquarian and other societies with which he was connected, besides preparing several works for the press, among which was a quarto volume, published in 1863, giving illustrations of the Runic literature of Scandinavia, with translations in Danish and English of the inscriptions found in the mound at Mesehowe, Orkney, which was opened in 1861. He was also the author of an elaborate work on "The Herring; its Natural History and National Importance."

April 24.—**RUSSIA, NICHOLAS ALEXANDROVITCH, CZAREWITCH** of, eldest son of the Emperor Alexander II., and the Empress Maria, and heir-apparent to the imperial throne, died at Nice, France, aged 21 years. He was a young man of fine scholarship, but having a delicate constitution, unlike his father and grandfather, he displayed no predilection for a military life; but, as a matter of course, he was officially connected with the army, holding a high rank, not only in the Russian army, but in the Prussian also. The betrothal of the Grand Duke to the Princess Dagmar, second daughter of the King and Queen of Denmark, took place in October last, at Copenhagen, and was afterwards ratified by a decree of the Emperor of Russia, in accordance with a law established by Alexander I. The Grand Duke had long suffered with what was believed to be a rheumatic affection, and for this a short residence in the south of Europe was proposed by his physicians; but the expected relief was not obtained, and he survived only a few weeks.

April 25.—**KMETZ, Gen. GEORGE** (Ismail Pacha), an officer of the Imperial Turkish, and the late Hungarian armies, died suddenly in London, aged 51 years. He was a native of Hungary, and the son of a Protestant clergyman; was educated at the Protestant College at Eperies, and the Protestant Lyceum of Presburg, where he contended for a scholarship in a German university, and was successful. In consequence, however, of an error on the part of the clerk of the committee with whom the decision rested, the reward was bestowed on another person of the same name. This disappointment drove him to the army, where his rapid advancement proved his faithfulness to duty. On the breaking out of hostilities between Austria and Hungary, he received the command of a battalion in the Hungarian army, and won himself great honor. Subsequently he was made general, and appointed to the command of a detached division, with which he routed the Austrians at Csorna. When the

Turks were threatened with war by Austria and Prussia, because of their hospitality to the Hungarian exiles, Gen. Kmety attached himself to the Turkish service. In 1851 he returned to England, and having no means at his command, studied music, in order to qualify himself for giving lessons. But the outbreak of the Eastern war led him back to his true vocation. He again offered his services to the Turks, and was placed in command of a division during the blockade of Kara, under the name of Madjar Ismail Pacha, inflicting on the Russians one of the most sanguine defeats they sustained during the whole war. For his gallant services in this campaign he was named lieutenant-general, and decorated. The massacres of Syria next called him into the field. He was placed in command of a division, and arrived just in time to put a stop to further disorders. Soon after, he retired to England, with a liberal pension.

April 27.—PHILLIMORE, JOHN GEORGE, an English legal and historical writer of great ability, died at his residence at Shipplake House, Oxfordshire, aged 55 years. He was educated at Westminster and Christ Church, Oxford, and called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn in 1832. In 1851 he was made Queen's counsel, and from 1862 to 1857 represented Leominster in Parliament. He was the author of several legal and political works, among which may be named "Legal Reform," "A History of the Law of Evidence," "An Introduction to the Study and History of Roman Law," "Lectures on Jurisprudence and Canon Law," "Principles and Maxims of Jurisprudence," and "Private Law among the Romans." In 1863 he produced the first volume of "The History of England during the Reign of George III.," which is unfortunately left incomplete by his death.

April 28.—CUNARD, SIR SAMUEL, Bart., died in Prince's Gardens, aged 77 years. He was for many years the head of the firm of Cunard & Co., to whose enterprise and ability the present rapid steam communication between England and this country is mainly owing. In recognition of these services he was made a baronet in 1859.

April 28.—WILLIAMS, WILLIAM, M. P., a leading liberal politician and writer, died at his residence, Park Square, Regent's Park, aged 76 years. He was descended from a good yeoman's family, and his education was necessarily obtained under great difficulties. These difficulties were so much felt by him in after-life, that he took a special interest in drawing the attention of the legislature to the cause of education among the middle classes. In 1846 he brought this subject before the House of Commons, upon which a commission of inquiry was issued, and in 1848 he made further efforts by publishing a letter to Lord John Russell, First Lord of the Treasury, on the report of the "commissioners who had been appointed to inquire into the state of education in Wales,"

followed in December by a letter on its then defective state. Having commenced business as a clerk in a warehouse in London, he rose by his own efforts to a high position, and subsequently set up an establishment upon his own account, where he made in time a comfortable fortune. About the year 1820 he became interested in politics, and not long after was a member of the common council for his ward. In 1835 he was returned to that assembly for the city of Coventry. In 1847 he retired from business and spent some time travelling through the United States. In July, 1850, a vacancy occurred for the borough of Lambeth, and Mr. Williams was returned; he was also reelected in 1852 and in 1857, representing that borough until his death.

April 30.—OLLENDORFF, H. G., Ph. D., grammarian and linguist, died in Paris, aged 60 years. He was a German Jew, of unprepossessing appearance. His method of teaching French and German was both popular and successful. His books had an immense sale both in Europe and this country, and, as he was his own publisher, his income was very large.

April —.—STÜLLER, M., a celebrated architect in Prussia, died at Berlin, aged 64 years. He was a native of Berlin, and a pupil of Sinkel, with whom he remained until he had attained his 30th year. Having obtained the patronage of the King of Prussia, he undertook and executed, between the years 1840 and 1850, an immense number of important constructions. Besides a vast number of private residences, he built the Council Chamber of Perleberg, the new Winter Palace of St. Petersburg, the Bourse of Berlin, and that of Frankfurt, and the new Berlin Museum, which ranks first among his works. He built several churches, added new apartments to the palace at Potsdam, finished the gardens of Sans Souci, erected the palace of the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin in Berlin, and yet found time to make an immense number of designs for goldsmiths' work and porcelain. In 1835, in conjunction with M. Stack, he published a volume entitled "Designs for Cabinet Work."

April —.—PICCOLAS, NICHOLAS, a Greek litterateur, died at Paris, aged 72 years. He was a native of Thessaly, and commenced his studies at Bucharest, whence he, early in life, removed to the University of Paris. Here, in 1823, he became acquainted with the late Earl of Guilford, under whose auspices he occupied the chair of philosophy at Corfu. Afterwards he studied medicine at Bologna, where he took his doctor's degree, and removed to Paris, in which city he continued to reside until his death. He translated Descartes' *Méthode pour bien conduire la Raison*, also *Paul et Virginie*, and other works of St. Pierre. He added a supplement to the *Anthologia Græca*, and very recently published *L'Histoire des Animaux d'Aristotle*, a work which was the labor of a life. To these must be added a critical edition of Longus, and several other classical works.

May 4.—**CHRISTY, HENRY, F. R. G. S., F. G. S.**, etc., an English antiquarian, naturalist, and palæontologist, died at La Palisse Allier, France, aged 54 years. He was a native of Woodbine, Kingston-upon-Thames. His early years were devoted to business as a partner in a manufacturing interest, and afterwards he succeeded his father as director of the London Joint Stock Bank. Having a decidedly antiquarian taste, he devoted much time to travel, for the purpose of observing the primitive customs of the more remote tribes of men, collecting arms, implements, dresses, and other relics, with great perseverance and industry. His explorations extended throughout Mexico, a portion of the United States, Canada, British Columbia, the East, Algeria, and the north of Africa, Spain, Italy, France, and the Scandinavian kingdoms, and during his travels he established close and intimate relations with the scientific men of the countries which he visited. He made liberal contributions to the British Museum and other like institutions, and was ever ready to advance the interests of these departments of science. Of late years his attention had been more particularly directed to the discoveries tending to prove the antiquity of man, and he explored, at a considerable sacrifice of money and time, the rock shelters that line the banks of the Vézère, in Dordogne; the results of which discoveries were to be embodied in a work of considerable extent. Mr. Christy's life was consecrated to works of beneficence. The starving poor of Ireland, the Arabs of Algeria, the negroes of Africa, the Indians of the British North American colonies, the oppressed in Syria, and more recently the unfortunate Danes, have reason to bless him as a benefactor. He was a Fellow of most of the metropolitan scientific societies.

May 12.—**TREVELLYAN, RALEIGH**, an English scholar and author, died at Netherwilton Hall, Northumberland, aged 83 years. He was educated at Eton, and St. John's College, Cambridge, where he graduated M. A. in 1807. In 1810 he was admitted to the bar of Lincoln's Inn; but on inheriting the family estates at the death of his brother, he relinquished the active duties of his profession. In politics he was a staunch Conservative, as his published works indicate, viz.: "Parliamentary and Legal Questions" (1832), and "Radical Sketches of Times and Men, Political and Legal." He was also the author of "Poems and Essays" (1819); "A Poetical Sketch of the Ten Commandments, with other Poems;" "The Christian Inheritance, a Sermon," and "Domestic Forms of Prayer for Night and Morning."

May 19.—**BIGG, JOHN STANYAN**, an English author, died at Ulverston, aged 86 years. He spent some years in Ireland, during which he edited the "Downshire Protestant;" since which he has resided in Ulverston, engaged in editorial and literary work. He was better known in this country by his "Night and the Soul," a poem, which was republished here.

May 30.—**KENNEDY, Sir JAMES SHAW, K. O. B.**, an eminent British officer, died at Bath, England, aged 70 years. He was educated at the Royal Military College, entered the army in 1805, as ensign in the 43d regiment, served in the siege of Copenhagen and battle of Kioge, was severely wounded at the action of Almeida, and won much distinction at the siege of Ciudad Rodrigo, and later, at the storming of Badajoz, the action of Salamanca, and the occupation of Madrid. He also shared in the glories of Waterloo, and, after the war was over, commanded at Calais, during the three years of the army of occupation, the establishment formed to keep up the communication between the army and England. He served nine years as assistant adjutant-general at Manchester, assisted in organizing the constabulary force in Ireland, and after attaining the rank of major-general in 1846, was named by the Duke of Wellington to several very important commands. Sir James was made general in 1862. His "Notes on the Battle of Waterloo, and Plan for the Defence of Canada," with a brief memoir of his life and services, was published in 1865.

June 1.—**GREY, Right Hon. Sir CHARLES EDWARD, G. C. H.**, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Bengal, died at Tunbridge Wells, aged 79 years. He was educated at University College, Oxford, where he graduated in 1806. In 1811 he was called to the bar by the Society of Lincoln's Inn. In 1820 he was knighted on being appointed a judge of the Supreme Court of Madras, and in 1825 was transferred to the Chief Justiceship of the Supreme Court of Bengal. In 1835 he was appointed Commissioner for the affairs of Lower Canada, and on his return was made a Privy Councillor and received the Hanoverian Order. He was Governor of Barbadoes, St. Vincent, Trinidad, and Lucia, from 1841 to 1846, when he was appointed Governor of Jamaica. For a period of about four years he represented the borough of Tyne-mouth in the House of Commons.

June 2.—**KENNEDY, W. DENHOLM**, landscape and figure painter, died at his residence, Soho-square, London, aged 51 years. He was a native of Dumfries, Scotland; received his early education in drawing at the Edinburgh School of Art, and at the London Academy, where he won some honors, and in 1820 travelled in Rome. The list of his works is very long, but among the most important may be mentioned, "The Italian Goat-herd," "Gil Blas," "The last of all the Bards was he," and the "Wardens." His representations of Italian scenes won him great credit for their beauty and perfectness.

June 8.—**PAXTON, Sir JOSEPH, M. P.**, an English architect, died at Rock Hill, Sydenham, aged 61 years. He was a native of Woburn, where he was educated at the Free School, became a gardener, and subsequently director of the gardens and grounds at Chatsworth, owned by the Duke of Devonshire, and manager of his Derbyshire estates. The grand conserva-

tory at Chatsworth was entirely the production of Mr. Paxton, and was in fact the parent of the far more famous Crystal Palace; and the costly and beautiful gardens and terraces, fountains, and water-works of these grounds, served as models for the nobler gardens, terraces, and fountains of the Crystal Palace. After the completion of the latter great achievement, Mr. Paxton seemed inclined to pursue the profession of an architect, but his only work of consequence was a costly mansion for the Baron James Rothschild. He also devised a plan for girdling London with a magnificent arcade, resembling the transept of the old Crystal Palace, in which were to be included lines of railway worked on the atmospheric principle. In 1854 he was elected Member of Parliament for Coventry, and continued to represent that borough until his decease. He was the author of a "Practical Treatise on the culture of the Dahlia" (1838), and a "Cottage Calendar." He also edited "Paxton's Flower Garden," "Horticultural Register," and "Botanical Magazine."

June 11.—WRAXHALL, FREDERIC CHARLES LASCELLES, an English author and translator, died in London, aged 37 years. He was a native of Boulogne, educated at St. Mary's Hall, Oxford, studied modern languages on the Continent, and in 1855 was appointed assistant commissary of the field train in the Turkish contingent, with the rank of captain. He had been a frequent contributor to periodical literature since 1850, had charge of the "Naval and Military Herald" in 1858, and from January, 1860, to March, 1861, was editor of the "Welcome Guest." Among his translations may be mentioned Victor Hugo's *Les Misérables*. He was the author of a "Hand-book to the Armies of Europe" (1855); "Wild Oats" (1857); "Armies of the Great Powers" (1859); "Only a Woman" (1862); "Life on the Sea"; "The Backwoodsman; or, Life on the Indian Frontier"; and "Golden Hair," a tale of the Pilgrim Fathers.

June 13.—SOUTHEY, HENRY HERBERT, M. D., a medical author, and brother of the poet, died in London, aged 81 years. He graduated at Edinburgh in 1806; became a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians in 1812; was an honorary D. C. L. of Oxford, and Fellow of the Royal Society. His chief reputation was in cases of lunacy, and he was for many years examiner of lunatics under the Court of Chancery. He was physician in ordinary to George IV., and physician to the London Hospital. He was author of a variety of medical works, the chief of which was one "On Pulmonary Consumption."

June 18.—COOKE, GEORGE WINGROVE, an English author, and Copyhold and Enclosure Commissioner, died in London, aged 52 years. He was educated at Oxford, and early became known as an author by his "Memoirs of Lord Bolingbroke," his "History of Party," and his "Life of the First Lord Shaftesbury," works

evinced much laborious research. In January, 1835, Mr. Cooke was called to the bar of the Middle Temple, and shortly after achieved for himself an enviable position in his profession by several able treatises, as well as some valuable tracts upon different branches of law reform—among which may be mentioned "The Law of Defamation," "Law of Copyhold Enfranchisement," and the "Law of Agricultural Tenancies and Leases." Mr. Cooke was for a number of years largely employed, under the Tithe Commutation Commission, in adjusting disputes relative to moduses and claims to exemption, during the long period that all tithes throughout the kingdom were undergoing the process of extinction, a work involving an immense amount of labor. He was also the author of "Conquest and Colonization of Africa," "Inside Sebastopol," and "China and Lower Bengal," works embodying his observations during his vacation rambles. He received his appointment of Copyhold and Enclosure Commissioner in 1861.

June 20.—LUBBOCK, Sir JOHN W., Bart., F. R. S., astronomer and physicist, died at Farnborough, Kent, aged 62 years. He was a native of London, and graduated at Eton, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1825. Though the head of a London banking firm, he devoted much attention to scientific pursuits. He was Treasurer of the Royal Society for many years, and also was Vice-Chancellor of the University of London. In 1834 the Royal Society awarded to him one of their royal medals for his papers on the Tides. In 1836 he delivered the Bakerian Lecture "On the Tides at the Port of London," and the Astronomical Society in 1848 gave him a testimonial for his researches on the theory of perturbations. On the death of his father in 1840 he succeeded to the baronetcy. In 1852 he served the office of sheriff of Kent, and the same year was appointed a deputy-lieutenant of that county. The following are among his published works: *Account of the Traité sur le flux et reflux de la Mer* of Daniel Bernoulli; and a Treatise on the Attraction of Ellipsoids (London, 1830); "On the Theory of the Moon and on the Perturbations of the Planets" (London, 1833); "Mathematical Tracts" (Lond., 1834); "A Treatise on Probability" (Lond., 1835); "On the Determination of the Distance of a Comet from the Earth, and the Elements of its Orbit" (Lond., 1835); "An Elementary Treatise on the Computation of Eclipses and Occultations" (Lond., 1835); "Remarks on the Classification of Human Knowledge" (Lond., 1838); "On the Heat of Vapors, and on Astronomical Refractions" (Lond., 1840); "On the Clearing of the London Bankers" (Lond., 1860); "The Stars in Six Maps, on the Gonomic Projection" (Lond., 1860); besides numerous papers on different subjects in the Philosophical Transactions and other scientific periodicals.

June 20.—THORNTON, RICHARD, an English merchant and philanthropist, died at Surrey,

aged 88 years. He was a native of Lonsdale, educated at Christ's Hospital, London, and early in life entered the mercantile business in Southwark. In 1798 he became a member of Lloyd's, where his fine business talents insured him great success. His risks were large, but Fortune seemed ever upon his side, and his benevolence kept pace with his good fortune. He built and endowed almshouses, provided at a cost of £40,000 schools for the free education and support of the poor children of his native place, gave large benefactions to other worthy objects, and in his will donated immense sums to hospitals, asylums, and other charitable purposes.

June 25.—FERGUSON, ROBERT, M. D., Physician Extraordinary to the Queen, and an eminent medical writer, died at Winkfield, near Windsor, England, aged 65 years. He studied at Heidelberg and Edinburgh, and after graduating from the latter University in 1823, settled in London, where he soon established himself in a lucrative profession, devoting most of his attention to the diseases of women and children. He attended the Queen in every confinement, and his consultation practice extended to nearly all the highest families in the kingdom. He was a bold and original practitioner, but at the same time a most laborious student, and a very voluminous writer. His chief published works are his "Essay on Puerperal Fever," and his edition of "Gooch's Works." The greater part of his writings were contributed anonymously to the "Quarterly Review."

June 28.—TAYLOR, ISAAC, an eminent English author, and inventor of a machine for printing patterns upon calico, died at Stanford Rivers, aged 77 years. He was a native of Lavenham, in Suffolk, was trained as an artist, but early in life adopted literature as his profession. His family were remarkable for their literary talent; his mother, brother, and sisters having all written works which have attained a wide popularity. In 1818 he became a contributor to the "Eclectic Review," but his first independent literary venture was a small volume entitled "Elements of Thought," published in 1822. This was succeeded by a translation of the "Characters of Theophrastus," with original illustrations, etched by the author; by the History of the "Transmission of Ancient Books to Modern Times;" the "Process of Historical Proof;" the "Memoirs and Correspondence of Jane Taylor;" and by a new translation of "Herodotus." In 1829 the "Natural History of Enthusiasm" was published anonymously, and rapidly ran through eight or nine editions. This was followed by "Fanaticism," "Spiritual Despotism," "Saturday Evening," and "The Physical Theory of Another Life." In 1838 he published "Home Education," and, in connection with the Rev. Robert Traill, took part in bringing out a new translation of "Josephus." The latter work was accompanied with numerous illustrations, engraved by some most ingenious and elaborate machinery, the invention

of which had been the amusement of Mr. Taylor's leisure hours. The engraving machine was patented in England, Ireland, and America. After an interval of seven years, he published essays on the lives of Loyola and of Wesley; a volume entitled "Restoration of Belief;" two volumes of essays, "Logic and Theology;" and "Ultimate Civilization;" "The Spirit of the Hebrew Poetry;" and a series of autobiographical papers published last year in "Good Words." One of the most complicated and beautiful pieces of mechanism now at work in Manchester, is Mr. Taylor's machine for engraving patterns upon rollers for calico printing.

June —.—MALMSTRÖM, Prof. ELIS, a Swedish poet, died at Stockholm, aged 49 years. As a student he was awarded the great prize by the Swedish Academy, for a collection of elegies, which he published in 1840, under the title of "Angelica." His poems are alike distinguished by their correctness and purity of form, as by their depth of thought. Besides Prof. Malmström's miscellaneous poems, which have gone through three editions, he has published an epic poem, "Ariadne," which is, perhaps, the most popular of his works, and several valuable historical essays and reviews.

July 28.—PRITCHARD, EDWARD WILLIAM, M. D., a medical writer, executed for the murder of his wife and mother, aged 40 years. He was a native of Southsea, Hants; educated in London and Paris, and after serving as an assistant surgeon in the Royal Navy, retired to private practice in Glasgow. He was a fellow and member of many learned societies in the United Kingdom, and a man of great literary ability. Among his writings may be mentioned—"Longevity," "Normal Sleep," "Chorea," "Visit to Pict Cairn's Island," "Antiquities of Fife," "Tobacco: its Use and Abuse," "Cure of Cancer," "Lecture on Egypt and its Climate," "Champagne in Diphtheria," "Tincture of Geraco in Gout," and "Sea-tangle Tents; or, Laminaria Digitata," and other papers.

July 30.—LABORDE, ETIENNE, Military Governor of the Palace of Luxembourg, died in Paris, aged 84 years. He entered the service in 1804, went through the German and Russian campaigns, accompanied Napoléon to Elba in 1814, returned with him to France, and was present at the battle of Waterloo. After the Revolution of 1830 he made the campaign of Belgium. In 1834 he was named Commandant de Place at Cambria, and in 1838 was placed on the retired list. Being warmly attached to the Bonapartist cause, he participated in the conspiracy of 1840 at Boulogne, was arrested and tried by the Chamber of Peers, and served an imprisonment of two years. In 1849 he was elected to the Legislative Assembly, when he voted with the majority, who were opposed to republican institutions. In 1851 he retired to private life, and some few years after was appointed to the post which he held till his death. He was the author of a volume entitled *Napoléon et sa Garde*.

August 4.—**AYTOUN, WILLIAM EDMONSTONE**, a Scottish poet and novelist, died near Elgin, Scotland, aged 52 years. He was a native of Edinburgh; was educated at the University of which he afterwards became Professor, and in 1831 gained a prize for the first poem, "Judith." He was called to the Scottish bar in 1840; and in 1845 was appointed by the crown to the chair of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres in Edinburgh University.

He was a contributor for thirty years to "Blackwood" and other magazines under the *nom de plume*, partly, of Augustus Dunshunner. His ballads, published in connection with Theodore Martin's as the "Bon Gaultier" ballads, gave him a wide fame, aside from his magazine reputation. He published "The Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers," first printed in a collected form in 1858, and now in their seventeenth edition; "Firmilian: a Spasmodic Tragedy," 1854, an amusing and effective burlesque of the sensational drama; "Bothwell: a Poem," giving an episode in the history of Mary, Queen of Scots, published in 1856; an edition of "The Ballads of Scotland," 1857; lectures on "Poetry and Dramatic Literature," delivered in London in 1853; translations of "Poems and Ballads of Goethe," a joint labor with Mr. Theodore Martin; "Norman Sinclair," a novel, first published from "Blackwood's" pages in 1861. He was also the author of some amusing papers, of which the dry and sly humor, perhaps, was best appreciated by his own countrymen, entitled "The Glenmutchkin Railway," a burlesque of the railway mania; "How I stood for the Dreepdail Burghs," a farcical sketch of electioneering, etc. Professor Aytoun was a D. C. L. of Oxford, and held other academical honors.

Aug. —.—**HAMILTON, SIR WILLIAM ROWAN**, Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin, and Astronomer Royal of England, born in Dublin, August 4, 1805; died at Dunsink Observatory near Dublin, September 2, 1865. At a very early age he gave strong indications of extraordinary intellectual powers. When but four years of age he had made some progress in Hebrew, and at thirteen years was in different degrees acquainted with thirteen languages, among which were some of the Oriental languages. Having access to a Latin copy of Euclid when ten years old, he became deeply interested in geometry. In 1823 he entered the University of Dublin, where he was equally distinguished for natural abilities and for acquired knowledge of the most varied kind, and his proficiency in classics and science gained for him every honor that the University had to bestow. While still an undergraduate, he was appointed Professor of Astronomy in the University, and Astronomer Royal of Ireland. In 1834 he received the Royal medal of the Royal Society for his discovery of conical refraction, and the succeeding year his paper on mathematical and astronomical science gained him the applause of the first authorities of Europe. As a lecturer, in his chair, he has been

eminently distinguished. His investigations on scientific subjects are published in the "Transactions" and "Proceedings" of the Royal Irish Academy and Royal Society, in the "Proceedings" of the British Association, in the "London and Edinburgh Philosophical Magazine," etc., and they are universally acknowledged to be some of the grandest specimens of the higher analysis. The last and most elaborate of Hamilton's writings is his "Method or Calculus of Quaternions," which occupied twenty-two years in its elaboration. The three leading traits of the author's mind, originality, generalization, and independence, are conspicuous in this work. Sir William Rowan Hamilton twice gained vice-chancellor's prizes for English poetry. He ranked metaphysics above mathematics in the hierarchy of science, and maintained that its highest province and the region of poetry lay in the same latitude. His manuscripts, in sixty volumes, are deposited in the library of Trinity College.

Aug. 10.—**CUMING, HUGH, F. L. S.**, an English botanist and conchologist, died in London, aged 74 years. Apprenticed to a sail-maker, he was brought into contact with sea-faring men, and in 1819 made a voyage to South America and settled in Valparaiso. Here his passion for shells, which had existed from childhood, found an ample field for development, and in 1826 he gave himself up wholly to his favorite pursuit. With this object he built a yacht expressly fitted for his collections, and cruised among the islands of the South Pacific, along the western coast of America, and subsequently among the Philippine Islands, where he was greatly aided in his researches by the Spanish Government. After several years of absence, he returned to England with the richest booty that had ever been collected by a single man. His dried plants numbered 180,000 specimens, and his collections of shells numbered at the time of his death over 60,000, being by far the finest in Europe. Large numbers of birds, reptiles, quadrupeds, and insects, were also added to the museums at home and abroad.

Aug. 20.—**TRELAWNEY, KATE HOWARD**, former mistress of Louis Napoleon, died at her chateau, near Versailles, aged 42 years. In early life she was remarkable for her beauty, and this, with her charms of manner, gave her great power over Louis Napoleon, from whom she received every mark of favor and consideration. On his marriage with the Empress Eugénie, the chateau and domains of Beauregard were settled upon his former mistress. She was then married to a captain by the name of Trelawney, and during the latter years of her life had grown exceedingly corpulent, so that her carriages were made expressly to accommodate her great size. The decline of her life was a period of great unhappiness, but she endeavored to assuage her own sorrows by extended and carefully administered charity, going in person to visit the sick, the suffering, and the poor.

Aug. 24.—**RICKARDS, REV. SAMUEL**, an Eng-

lish. Episcopal clergyman and author, died at Stowlangtoft, aged 70 years. He graduated at Oriel College, Oxford, in 1817, was ordained in 1820, and in 1832 was presented to the rectory of Stowlangtoft, where he passed the remainder of his life. He was a learned theologian and a vigorous writer. Among his works are "The Christian Householder; or, Book of Family Prayers," "A Parish Prayer-Book," "Short Sermons," and "Prayers, Morning and Evening of the Week for School."

Aug. 25.—COXE, Ven. Archdeacon RICHARD CHARLES, Canon of Durham and Vicar of Eglington, died at the vicarage, aged 65 years. He graduated at Worcester College, Oxford, in 1821, was ordained deacon in 1823, and priest in 1824. In 1841 he was presented to the vicarage of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and in 1843 was appointed Honorary Canon of Durham, and was one of the select preachers before the University of Oxford. In 1853 he was preferred to the archdeaconry of Lindisfarne, with the vicarage of Eglington annexed. In 1857 he was made Canon of Durham. Archdeacon Coxe was the author of several valuable theological works, a number of sermons, and a few volumes of poems of a high order of merit.

Aug. 28.—WINDELE, JOHN, a distinguished antiquarian, geographer, and local historian, died at Cork, Ireland, aged 64 years. He was a native of Cork, and early in life evinced an intense love for antiquarian pursuits. Though a self-taught man, his information upon general subjects was varied and extensive, and he was well versed in the philology and antiquities of the ancient people of Europe, was a good Latin and French scholar, and an indefatigable contributor to periodicals, newspapers, and antiquarian publications. In 1839 he published his "Cork and the South of Ireland." He was a contributor to the "Dublin Penny Journal," the "Ulster Journal of Archaeology," and the "Transactions of the Kilkenny Archaeology Society."

Aug. 31.—APPOLD, J. GEORGE, F. R. S., an eminent mechanic and inventor, died at Clifton, aged 65 years. He held a high place among engineers and men of science. His centrifugal pumps formed striking features of the English Exhibitions of 1851 and 1862. The paying-out apparatus used in laying submarine telegraphs was mostly his invention; but the most remarkable proofs of his genius were collected in his own house and its surroundings, where almost every thing was automatic. Doors and gates opened and closed as required; when the gas was lighted, the shutters closed; and a self-acting thermometer prevented the temperature rising or falling beyond certain points. Mr. A. was also a dresser of furs by a secret process, which secured him a practical monopoly of the trade.

Sept. 2.—ENCKE, JOHANN FRANZ, a German astronomer, and director of the Royal Observatory of Berlin, born at Hamburg, September 23, 1791, died at Berlin, September 2, 1865. He

was educated at home by his father, and at the University of Gottingen, served in the Prussian army, and after the fall of Napoleon obtained a situation in the observatory of Seeberg, near Gotha, as assistant to Herr von Linden, the Director. He pronounced, in 1819, that the comet observed by Pons, at Marseilles, on the 26th of November, 1818, was the same as that previously seen by Mechain and Meissier in 1786 in the constellation Aquarius, by Miss Herschel in 1795 in the constellation Cygnus, by Pons in 1805, and that it would reappear in 1822, its period being about 8.3 years, but probably would not be seen in Europe. It was observed by Runcker, at Sir Thomas Brisbane's observatory, in New South Wales, on the 3d of June, 1822, and Encke's comet, as it has since been called, has kept its appointments with such punctuality that it might almost be regarded as a permanent member of our system, were it not for the gradual diminution in the time of its revolution, and its consequent approach to the sun. In 1825 Encke went to Berlin to take charge of the observatory there, as a successor to the celebrated Bode, whom he succeeded, in 1830, as editor of the "Berliner Astronomischen Jahrbuch." The erection of a new observatory in 1835, furnished with more powerful instruments, which was partly due to a suggestion of Humboldt, gave Encke an enlarged sphere of labor. Besides other investigations, Encke improved the theory of Vesta, and published a new method of computing perturbations, especially for orbits considerably elliptical. The planet Neptune was discovered at his observatory by M. Galle, his assistant. His publications upon astronomy and higher mathematics were numerous. In 1845 he published dissertations *De Formulis Dioptriciis*; and in 1846 a treatise "On the Relation of Astronomy to the other Sciences."

Sept. 4.—MOORE, MRS. BESSIE, widow of Thomas Moore, the poet, died at Sloperon Cottage, aged about 68 years. She was a woman of rare worth and loveliness of character.

Sept. 17.—GRANT, JAMES WM., astronomer and naturalist, died at Wester-Elchies, aged 77 years. He went to India in 1807, and remained there forty-four years, where he attained to a judgeship. During his residence here he spent his leisure in the study of astronomy, and upon succeeding to the family estates in Scotland, gave himself up to scientific and artistic pursuits. To further his astronomical studies, he purchased the great "trophy telescope," to which a prize was awarded at the Great International Exhibition of 1851. For this valuable instrument he had built the finest observatory in Scotland, and which has been visited by the most eminent scientific men of the world.

Sept. 22.—PANDEE, DR. CHRISTIAN H., an eminent Russian naturalist and geological writer, died at St. Petersburg. He was a native of Riga, and commenced his scientific career in 1817. Among his most important publications are "Contributions to the Geology of the Rus-

sian Empire," and "The Ichthyolites of the Devonian Rocks of Russia." He had also another work in preparation, upon the fossils of the same empire, at the time of his death.

Sept. —. —**AHN, Dr. FRANZ**, an eminent linguistic author and teacher, died in Rhenish Prussia, where he had long been head teacher of the gymnasium. He was the inventor of a new system of teaching foreign living languages, and many of his works have been translated and used in this country.

Sept. —. —**MEZZA, DE, General**, Danish Commander-in-chief in the late war with Austria and Prussia, died at Copenhagen, aged 72 years. He entered the army in 1807 and served in the defence of Copenhagen. On the restoration of peace his mathematical knowledge procured him a post in the school of artillery, which he held for upwards of thirty years. In the war of 1848 he again took the field and distinguished himself by his daring enterprise. At the conclusion of the war he was named Inspector Royal of Artillery, and in 1853 received the command of the forces in Schleswig, Jutland, and Funen. On the breaking out of the recent war he was charged with the defence of the Danneværke, but his means being inadequate, after a stout resistance he withdrew his troops; and although by so doing he doubtless saved the whole Danish army from capture, he was relieved of his command, and passed the remainder of his life in retirement.

Sept. —. —**MIGLIAZINI, Prof. MICHEL ANGELO**, Keeper of Ancient Monuments in the Royal Galleries at Florence, Italy, died there, aged 86 years. His labors in archæology have made his name familiar to antiquarians throughout Europe.

Sept. 30. —**HEIM, M.**, the celebrated painter of the "Massacre of the Jews," died in Paris, aged 78 years.

Oct. 11. —**HODGSON, CHRISTOPHER PEMBERTON**, author of several Oriental works, and late English consul to Hakodadi, Japan, died at Pau, Pyrenees, aged 44 years. Among his published works are "Reminiscences of Australia" (1846); "El Ydaïour; a Book of Eastern Travel" (1849); "History of the Viscounts of Bearn" (1855); an "Residence at Nagasaki and Hakodadi in 1859-'60."

Oct. 16. —**BURDER, WILLIAM CORBETT**, a well-known meteorologist and astronomer, died at Clifton, aged 43 years. He was the discoverer of the comet of March 1854, and also of the large comet of June, 1861.

Oct. 16. —**DRUMMOND, Rev. WILLIAM HAMILTON, D. D.**, a scholar, poet, and divine, died at Dublin, aged 87 years. He was the author of poems on the "Battle of Trafalgar," the "Giants' Causeway," etc., and prepared also a "Translation of Lucretius."

Oct. 24. —**BOSSANGE, MARTIN**, the oldest bookseller and publisher in Europe, died in Paris, France, aged 100 years. He was the founder of the firm of M. Bossange, afterwards Hector Boessange, Paris, and now Gustave Bossange

& Co., having branch houses in London, Odessa, Naples, Montreal, New Orleans, Rio de Janeiro, New York, and other places.

Oct. 24. —**NEWMHAM, WILLIAM**, an eminent English physician and medical author, died at Tunbridge Wells, aged 75 years. He was a native of Farnham, a skilful medical practitioner and author of several important works, among which are "A Tribute to Sympathy" (1817), which passed through eleven or twelve editions; "The Principles of Physical, Intellectual, Moral, and Religious Education" (1828); "The Reciprocal Influence of Mind and Body Considered," and an "Essay on the Disorders Incident to Literary Men."

Oct. —. —**MALGAIGNE, Dr. JOSEPH FRANÇOIS**, an eminent French surgeon, anatomist, and medical author, died in Paris, aged 60 years. He was a native of Charnes-sur-Moselle, graduated at the medical school in 1831, and although enjoying an extensive practice, was the author of a large number of valuable works, among which are his "Manual of Operative Medicine" (1834), translated into several languages; "Treatise of Surgical Anatomy and Experimental Surgery" (1838); and an annotated edition of the complete works of Ambrose Paré.

Nov. 3. —**FONBLANQUE, JOHN SAMUEL MARTIN**, Commissioner of Bankruptcy, and a distinguished jurist and legal writer, died at Brighton, England, aged 78 years. While pursuing his studies at Caius College, Cambridge, he burst a blood-vessel on the lungs, and a change of climate being advised by his physicians, he obtained a commission in the army. He served at Cadiz, Gibraltar, in Sicily, and the Greek Islands, and in Italy, where he received the appointment of Deputy Judge Advocate General. Thence he came to America and served in the war of 1812, during which he was taken prisoner by our forces. In 1816 he was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn, and soon after was appointed one of the Commissioners of Bankruptcy. In 1826 Fonblanque, in connection with others, started "The Jurist," a quarterly journal of jurisprudence and legislation. "His Treatise on Medical Jurisprudence" was published in 1823.

Nov. 15. —**CHAPMAN, MATTHEW JAMES, M. D.**, a classical scholar and poet, died in London, aged 69 years. He took the degree of M. D. at Edinburgh in 1820, and graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1832. He was the author of "Barbadoes and Other Poems" (1833), "Jephtha's Daughter" (1834), and a translation of "Theocritus, Bion, and Moschus" (1836).

Dec. 1. —**QUERARD, JOSEPH MARIE**, the most industrious and laborious bibliographer of the present or perhaps any other age, died at Paris, France, aged 68 years. He was born at Rennes, in Brittany, and had devoted more than half a century to the exclusive study of French literature, and the production of bibliographical works, but his labors had never produced a lucrative return, and he was indebted to the

patronage of a Russian nobleman for the means of bringing out several of his works. His most remarkable productions were, *La France Littéraire*, a record of French literature, chiefly during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, of unexampled accuracy and fulness of detail, in ten volumes octavo; and *Les Supercheries Littéraires Dévoilées*, in five volumes octavo, an account of the apocryphal, disguised, and fictitious names and books in French literature, and of the authors who have gained credit under false pretences. He was engaged in bringing out a new edition of this at the time of his death. His life was a stormy one, for his books had made him many enemies, and the Government had failed to recognize, by his appointment to any official position in one of the public libraries, the great services he had rendered to French literature.

Dec. 16.—BIXIO, ALEXANDER, a French publisher, editor, and statesman, the founder of the best agricultural periodical ("The Journal of Agriculture"), the most extensive publisher of agricultural works in France, one of the leading minds of the Credit Mobilier, and an ardent advocate of education, died in Paris, aged 56 years.

Dec. —. FORCHHAMMER, JOHANN GEORG, an eminent Danish geologist and chemist, Secretary of the Copenhagen Academy of Science, and Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in the University of Copenhagen, died in that city. He was born in Husum, Schleswig, July 26, 1794, became secretary of the Danish geologist Oersted in 1818, and accompanied him in a mineralogical expedition to the Island of Bornholm in 1818-19. He subsequently made several journeys to Great Britain, France, and in Denmark, for the purpose of geological investigation, his expenses being defrayed by the Danish Government. In 1825 he was elected a member of the Academy of Sciences of Copenhagen, and in 1835 appointed Professor of Mineralogy and Geology in the University of Copenhagen. In 1851, on the death of Oersted, he was elected Secretary of the Academy. He has published a manual of Universal Chemistry (*Laerebog i Staffernes almindelige Chemie* 1834-'35); *Danemarks geognostiske Forhold*, 1835; *Skandinaviens geognostiske Natur*, 1843 (two works on Danish and Scandinavian geology), and numerous papers on geological and chemical topics, all in Danish. He had been for many years a careful and constant observer of the physical effects of ice in producing geological changes; and an elaborate paper of his, giving the results of his observations, was published in 1864, and translated into English.

OBSERVATORIES AND INSTRUMENTS, ASTRONOMICAL AND METEOROLOGICAL. Without an attempt to include here all that is of real importance even in relation to the establishment and working of observatories, during the two years or more ending with 1865, and to the improvement of the instruments and methods employed in connection with them, it is still hoped that enough is presented to afford

the general scientific reader a satisfactory idea of what is in our time being done in the way of astronomical and meteorological observation, and of the character of the results thereby attained. Many points that might here receive mention will be included under other heads; and the reader may in particular consult the article ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA, etc., and others referred to under it, and also those of BAROMETER and METEOROLOGY.

United States.—To the number of observatories in the United States, one has recently been added at Chicago, having been established through the liberality of citizens of that place, and being connected with its University. The large equatorial telescope ordered for this observatory, of Mr. Alvan Clark, is to be 23 feet in length, and of 18½ inches aperture. The entire cost, including transportation and mounting, has lately been stated at \$18,187. The tower is to be octagonal in shape, 35 feet in diameter, and 100 feet in height to the hemispherical top. Another tower is to be erected for the meridian circle.

The annual report for the Observatory of Harvard College, 1864, made before the decease of the late Director, Prof. G. P. Bond, shows that the labors of the year have been chiefly devoted to a continuation of the zone observations, the examination of nebulae, observations on the asteroids, on variable stars, and on certain telescopic comets of the year. Among the observations, those on Orion are spoken of as being of great interest, while six variable stars were discovered in the neighborhood of the trapezium. In the zone observations, Mr. Safford obtained by the great equatorial the positions of 4,700 stars, besides performing the reductions and computations involved in the work.

The report for the Dudley Observatory, Albany, for the year 1863, made by the astronomer in charge, Prof. G. W. Hough, and issued the following year, contains an account of the condition of the principal instruments employed in it, with discussions of methods of adjustment, etc.

The system of meteorological observation in the United States has its centre in the Smithsonian Institution, at Washington. From an early period in the history of its labors, this Institution has, in fact, devoted special attention to the investigation of all questions relating to meteorology. One of its first steps was that of organizing a system of observers which should extend as widely as possible over the whole North American continent—these contributing their services without compensation. Under its direction, a set of carefully prepared and accurately graduated instruments, now generally known as the Smithsonian standards, were manufactured. A series of instructions for the use of the instruments and for the observation of meteorological phenomena, and also series of blank forms as registers, having been prepared and distributed, the system was soon brought into practical operation.

From 1856 to 1861, an appropriation was made to the Institution for the collecting and reducing of statistics relative to the climate of the United States; but thereafter this was discontinued. The working also of a new postage law, adopted it would appear in the session of 1862-'63, interfered to a considerable extent with the sending in of the agricultural and meteorological reports, by requiring prepayment on them; though, at least during the years 1863 and 1864, this difficulty was in part overcome through use of the frank of the Commissioner of Agriculture. Under the new organization, in 1862, of the Department last named, a renewed interest has been manifested by the Commissioner in the continuation and extension of the system of meteorological observations and records, which had been established at so much labor and expense.

In the published "Reports" of the Institution for 1863 and 1864, from which this notice is drawn, the Secretary, Prof. Joseph Henry, calls attention to the extremely favorable conditions under which, in this country, the work of meteorological observations is prosecuted. Among these favorable conditions are, the great extent of the continent itself, and the fact that over so large a part of it the observers nearly all speak the same language; that of the latter a large proportion are furnished with full sets of compared standard instruments; and the facts that, while the storms of our country generally move from west to east, the position of the central Institution itself, near the eastern limits of the continent, enables it to receive information very constantly of great approaching storms, while these may yet be hundreds of miles to westward; whereas, in Europe, the chief centres of meteorological observation thus far are near the western coast, and telegraphic notice of storms is not to be received from the ocean.

A "List of Meteorological Stations and Observers of the Smithsonian Institution" is given in the Report for 1863, and also in that for 1864. Of the stations enumerated in the latter year, 282 are within the United States and Territories, and 16 others at certain points in British America, Mexico, the West Indies, and Central and South America. Contributions of meteorological reports and papers of various character are also received from many private observers in this country, and from some private observers and institutions in Europe. Up to at least the close of 1863, the most important among such auxiliary sources of information would appear to have been the records furnished to the Institution for periods varying from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 years, from ten lake stations, successively under the charge of Capt. (now Gen.) Geo. G. Meade, of Lieut.-Col. J. D. Graham, and of Col. Reynolds, Superintendents of the Survey of the Northern and Northwestern Lakes. From these stations, extending from Sackett's Harbor, at the foot of Lake Ontario, to Superior City, at the western extremity of

Lake Superior, records have been furnished which, being made three times daily, at the hours of the Smithsonian system—7 A. M., and 2 and 9 P. M.—and with full sets of instruments, are of great value.

An important object kept in view has been the collection of data for determining the development and progress of atmospheric disturbances of great extent, including the commotions which occur during autumn, winter, and spring, over the middle or temperate latitudes of North America. Thus, the extensive and simultaneous system of observations carried out under the lead of the Institution, has already furnished the means of establishing fully the law in regard to storms, etc., which had before been intimated by the investigations of Espy and others, viz.: that, within the temperate zone (at least of our continent), all such meteorological phenomena as variations in the pressure of the atmosphere, sudden changes of temperature, either of unusually warm or cold weather, thunder-storms, tornadoes, ordinary storms of wind, rain, etc., travel *from west to east*. As early as 1849, a system of telegraphic despatches was organized by which intelligence was received at Washington of the condition of the weather at distant places, Southwest and Northwest; and, guided by the law already mentioned, the larger disturbances of the atmosphere have since often been predicted, and in some instances a day or two in advance. At a period subsequent to the date above given, the telegraphic despatches were daily exhibited at the Institution, on a map of the United States, by means of a series of movable cards; thus showing in what parts of the country it might be clear or cloudy, raining or snowing, and also by arrows the directions of the wind. This enterprise was interrupted at the breaking out of the war, by the cessation of returns from the Southwest, and the constant use of the telegraph required by the Government. Another question in regard to extensive storms is, whether the movement of the air over the region covered by them is gyrotory (cyclonic), or whether it is a movement from all sides toward a central point or an irregular elongated middle space; and the hope is expressed that upon these inquiries some light may be shed by the data already obtained and published in systematic form by the Institution.

In addition to the daily weather map above noticed, isothermal charts were constructed from all the observations up to the year 1860; as well as a series of rain charts, and a large map exhibiting the regions of original forest, of arable prairie, and of desert, within the limits of the United States. The Commissioner of Agriculture later commenced—in 1863, it would appear—the publication of a monthly bulletin, giving the state of the crops, the condition of the weather, and various other items daily received from observers. For this bulletin the Institution supplies the meteorological materials, consisting of the maximum, minimum, and

mean temperature, and amount of rain, for each month, in different States, and also, for purposes of comparison, the mean temperature and amount of rain for a series of five years, grouped by States (see such table in this *CYCLOPÆDIA*, 1864), together with tables of important atmospheric changes, and notices of auro-ras, meteors, etc. This publication has been received with much favor both by agriculturists and by meteorological observers. Meanwhile, however, not only has the collection of the original *data* from the various observing stations, as before intimated, been interfered with since the beginning of the late war, but also the reduction and issuing in systematic form of much of the materials that have been received; though it is hoped that both these parts of the work of the Institution may soon be resumed, through a renewal of the appropriations for these objects which have been now for four years suspended.

The second volume of the results of meteorological observations made under the direction of the Institution and of the Patent Office, for the six years from 1854 to 1859, inclusive, having been for some time delayed in press, it was at length decided to issue the part already printed; and this, forming a quarto volume of more than 600 pages, was bound and distributed in 1864. The volume is in two parts—the first half, generalizing the observations of periodical phenomena (1851-'59) in certain species of plants and animals, with tables of the opening and closing of lakes, rivers, canals, and harbors, having been prepared by Dr. F. B. Hough, of Albany; and the second half, occupied with materials respecting three storms in 1859, by Prof. J. H. Coffin, of Lafayette College, Pa. This volume, and that previously published on meteorological phenomena generally of the same period, together make nearly 2,000 pages; and these, along with nearly 200 pages quarto of reductions for the years 1855-'59, inclusive, published as an appendix to the "Statistical Report of the Sickness and Mortality in the Army of the United States," constitute a valuable body of materials for the investigation of meteorological problems. Among other meteorological publications of the Institution, may be named—the work of Prof. Coffin on the Winds of the Northern Hemisphere; that of Prof. Loomis on a great storm which pervaded both America and Europe; Prof. Caswell's reduced observations of 28 years at Providence, R. I., and Dr. Smith's of 20 years in Arkansas; besides Meech on the Heat and Light of the Sun, Olmstead and Force on Auroras, etc.

The Secretary, after alluding to the receipt of meteorological bulletins from Paris and from Palermo, and to a plan of observations proposed in the latter similar to that adopted previous to the war by the Smithsonian Institution—namely, that of furnishing the most important telegraphic stations with meteorological instruments, and instructing the telegraph-

ists in the process of making observations, remarks that a thoroughly organized system of this kind, over the whole United States, with a series of directions for predicting the weather at a given place from a knowledge of the condition of the atmosphere at distant points, would be of vast importance to the maritime and agricultural interests of the country, particularly along the Atlantic seaboard. An important aid to this end is already secured in the action of the North American Telegraphic Association, which gives the free use of all its lines for the scientific objects of the Institution. The lines of the Association extend to all parts of the United States and Canada, including the overland line to San Francisco; and the companies on the Pacific coast have granted like privileges.

In the unfortunate fire by which, on the 24th of January, 1865, the Smithsonian Institution buildings and their contents were in part destroyed, the meteorological department sustained a severe loss. Still, though the fire spread rapidly through the three rooms in which the meteorological records were kept, the larger portion of the contents of these rooms was nevertheless saved. As parts of the loss occasioned by this fire to the Institution, should be named the contents of the Secretary's office, embracing considerable collections of papers, official, scientific, and miscellaneous; a large amount of apparatus, including the principal instruments employed for meteorological observations at the Institution, and among which was the self-registering apparatus of Dr. Smallwood, of Montreal, for recording the direction and velocity of the wind, as well as all the records obtained by its use since the year 1858; while among the losses to other parties were that of Mr. J. M. Stanley's portraits, some 200 in number, of Mr. King's Indian portraits, of a copy in Carrara marble by John Gott of the "Dying Gladiator," of two private libraries, etc. The fire is believed to have originated in the heated air or sparks from a stove in an upper room, which was temporarily brought into use, and the pipe of which had been by mistake inserted into a space resembling a flue in the wall, and from which the woodwork immediately beneath the slate roof became ignited. The amount of loss to the Institution, independent of damage to the building, and so far as it may be estimated in money, has been stated at \$20,000; that to individuals, at \$28,000. A list of the deficiencies caused by the fire is to be published.

Great Britain.—Professor G. B. Airy, in charge of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, has decided to resign to private observers the inviting subject of the observation of the sun's surface. From his recent report, it appears that of late the first place has been given to observations of the principal fixed stars, and especially—in consequence of the recently discovered roving propensity of that luminary—to those of Sirius. Observa-

tions have also been made with a view to defining the position of the ecliptic and the sun's place in it, and upon the moon. No important changes, instrumental or otherwise, have here been lately (up to July, 1865) introduced. An arrangement, however, is in successful operation by which the Observatories of Greenwich and Paris are each charged with the meridional observations of the asteroids during half of each lunation—the former from new to full moon, the latter from full to new: in this way, without involving incompleteness in the work, relief is afforded to both these establishments.

At the 35th meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, which opened September 6, 1865, Mr. J. P. Gassiot, chairman of the "Kew Committee," presented a full report, from which a few particulars will here be noted. Capt. Basevi and Col. Walker, of the Indian Trigonometrical Survey, had received instruction at the Kew Observatory, with a view to making the pendulum experiments in India which the Association had previously ordered. The two pendulums to be used, both previously employed by Sabine, and one by Airy, in important experiments, after having their constants determined anew, had arrived in safety at the office in India of the survey, in charge of Mr. J. Hennessey.

By the Kew Heliograph, under the supervision of Mr. Warren De la Rue, 248 negatives (photographic) of the sun had been taken on 146 days, and four sets of positives printed from these had been distributed among men of science. An addition has been made to the micrometer, by means of which the proportion of the sun's disc at any time obscured by spots, can be measured. Mr. Carrington has placed at the disposal of this Observatory his original plates, 166 in number, representing observations of sun-spots made during seven years at his Observatory at Redhill. In order that all observers who desire may be enabled to investigate the phenomena of solar spots, it has been thought proper to publish the results in such a way that any one may study their appearance and behavior; and to this end, a lens is being made by Dalmeyer, intended to magnify groups of spots to a scale on which the sun's diameter shall equal two feet. Kew having been the first public institution to take up the observation of sun-spots after the manner of M. Schwabe, of Dassau, has procured from that astronomer the full set of original drawings of the sun's surface, etc., made by him during about forty years.

A large number of instruments for meteorological purposes, including a self-recording barograph and thermograph, barometers, thermometers, etc., had been during the preceding year verified at this observatory, for use in other institutions of the sort and by private observers. At Kew, a self-recording barograph is in constant operation, and duplicates of the traces recorded in the instrument are obtained, one set of which has been forwarded to the

meteorological department of the Board of Trade. The photographic action of total daylight is daily registered by an apparatus constructed by Prof. Roscoe, and in accordance with his request. Of this Observatory Mr. Balfour Stewart is director, while the meteorological department is in charge of Mr. Thomas Baker.

An account, at considerable length, of the meteorological system in operation in Great Britain, including weather "forecasts" and storm-signals, and the establishing of which was so largely due to the labors of the late Admiral R. Fitzroy, will be found under METEOROLOGY, in the volume of this CYCLOPEDIA for 1862. It appears, however, that at the present time the meteorological systems in operation in France and Russia are much in advance of the English; and it has recently been urged that in the latter country the Board of Trade should adopt the continental plan of daily published bulletins, to which might also be added charts or notices of the progress of important agricultural labors, of blights, epidemics, etc. At Mr. De la Rue's observatory, at Cranford, during the year 1863, several fine lunar photographs were taken, some of the negatives being enlarged with success to the dimensions of Beer and Mädler's map, 88 inches. The silvered-glass mirror received from Dr. Steinheil, of Munich, was to be tried, its light being considerably greater than that of speculum-metal mirrors, and so much so as to give hope that the time of exposure could be shortened. The mirrors had so far preserved their original polish, the precaution having been taken to insert lime-boxes in the tube of the telescope, to prevent their becoming damp.

At the Ely Observatory, the Rev. W. Selwyn has had in operation since January 1, 1863, an instrument termed a heliograph, and consisting of a photographic camera attached to a Dollond refractor of two and three-quarters inches diameter. During the year sun-pictures were taken on 189 days. Two of these afford interesting records of the solar eclipse of May 17, 1863; the latter of them, taken near the middle of the eclipse, shows very distinctly the uneven edge of the moon on the solar disc, and the appearance (so often noticed, and now generally believed an optical effect) of a bright band surrounding the edge of the moon. Mr. Selwyn's pictures are of about four inches diameter, and, as recording the phenomena of the formation and changes of spots (a second picture having for this purpose been, on each of 55 days, taken after a short interval), and in particular for the good view they afford of the faculae, will prove a valuable supplement to the Kew photographs. A larger refractor, of six inches aperture, was being prepared for the work now indicated.

Mr. Cooke, of London, is engaged in the construction of a refracting telescope of very uncommon dimensions. The aperture of the object-glass is 25 inches; focal length 29 feet.

The equatorial mounting is on the German plan, and the tube is of steel. The figuring of the lenses is performed by machinery of Mr. Cooke's invention.

France.—In accordance with an arrangement some time since initiated by the Emperor, in connection with M. Leverrier, Director of the Imperial Observatory, Paris, daily meteorological reports are received by telegraph at the latter from (in 1864) at least sixty-five regular stations situated in different parts of Europe. From the materials so collected a daily bulletin is published, now entitled the "International Bulletin of the Imperial Observatory of Paris;" of this, which makes up yearly some 1,200 folio pages, the subscription price is 36 francs. These bulletins give summaries of the records of the barometer, thermometer, wind, face of the sky, etc., as each day received, being more recently accompanied daily also with a small lithographic chart of Europe, showing by diagrams the barometric curve at the various stations, together with the temperature, and the direction and force of the wind; while to the whole are added statements of the flight of meteors, etc., and the probable prognostics of meteorological changes for the next day, including (for the use especially of vessels about to leave port) the probable direction of the wind.

Of course, in proportion as it becomes possible to interpret more and more correctly the indications thus obtained from so many points upon the Continent the condition of the weather which is to occur during a period immediately following can be predicted beforehand with less and less uncertainty. In order, at the same time, to enlist the coöperation of nautical observers, the new Scientific Association (*see* ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA, etc.) has offered considerable prizes—five of 300 francs each, according to one account—for the several best series of observations made at sea. An especial purpose had in view in this is to obtain data for recording the progress of storms; and the captains of ships are solicited to keep during their Atlantic voyages a record of the barometer, which, in connection with minutes of the day and hour, of the ship's place as shown by the log-book, of the direction and force of the wind, and of the state of the sky and sea, would furnish the data required. Proceeding upon such of these as it had been able to procure, the Imperial Observatory was already prepared—spring of 1865—to publish, under the title of Storm-maps, a series of charts showing the movement of the tempests of the preceding year. The meteorological department of the Observatory is in charge of M. Marie-Davy, well known for his researches in connection with the science under consideration.

The daily bulletins already mentioned, and containing, of course, the weather "forecasts" for the following day, are, as soon as issued, despatched to the principal seaports of France, and also to the Observatory at Brussels, from

which latter they are sent to ports on the coast of Flanders. At the important ports the bulletins are posted in public places; and announcements are also furnished to the newspapers for publication. The benefits of the system have already been acknowledged in strong terms by chambers of commerce and by intelligent seamen; while the published statements are likely to prove of great service also to agriculture and the public health.

In respect to the work of astronomical observatories in France, little information has been met with. M. Foucault continues to construct telescopes of unusual excellence, and one of which, of large size, he has lately furnished to the Observatory at Marseilles. These telescopes are fitted with the regulating mechanism by which the instrument is made to keep pace exactly with the apparent movement of a star or group under observation—a result of course desirable where continued examination is sought, but still more so in the work of obtaining star-photographs, as securing time for the due impression of the sensitive paper or surface used.

Russia.—The system of meteorological observations which has of late been in course of extension and perfecting upon a grand scale in Russia, was, until his death in the early part of the year 1865, under the control of Dr. Kupffer, Director of the Central Physical Observatory at St. Petersburg, who had already established a great number of meteorological observatories throughout the vast extent of the empire, from Western Europe to the confines of Eastern Asia. At Revel, Helsingfors, Nikolaiev, Astrakhan, Archangel, and perhaps other points, are central stations, each having a number of posts subsidiary to it. From the latter, daily telegraphic reports are forwarded to the central stations; while from each of these a report is despatched to St. Petersburg, where, as in Paris, a daily summary is published, accompanied with a meteorological map.

In the "Quarterly Journal of Science" appear abstracts of an account by Mr. W. De la Rue of his visit to the Pulkowa Observatory, situated ten miles southwest from St. Petersburg, and of his descriptions of some of the improved instruments and arrangements employed in it. Since the death of F. G. W. Struve, his son, M. Otto Struve, holds the position of director. Great pains have, during the past few years, been taken here to secure accuracy of the instruments, and in particular to get by them the *absolute* places of the celestial bodies. The automatic recording of transit-observations is in use, but on a plan somewhat differing from that at Greenwich. Meidinger's modification of Daniell's battery is employed, the tappet apparatus not being attached to the transit, but held in the hand. The observer, seeing a star enter the field, makes on the registration paper as unrolled, his record in Morse's alphabetic signals, and also any additional remarks he may deem necessary.

Very great improvements have been made in

the arrangement of the normal clock. To correct that which, in the present perfection of workmanship, is the principal one of three sources of error—namely, that the mercury, owing to the greater ratio of its mass to its amount of surface than holds true in case of the rods, is slower than the latter in responding to changes of temperature, thus preventing exact compensation and the uniformity desired in the effective length of the pendulum—the clock is now placed in a subterranean chamber beneath the hall, where changes of temperature occur very slowly, and their limits from one period of the year to another are very narrow. It is intended, further, to remove a second cause of error—the barometric, or that due to unequal resistances of the air at different densities to the movement of the pendulum—by enclosing the clock within an air-tight case, and, by means of a pressure-gauge and an air-pump communicating with the enclosed space, maintaining about the clock an atmosphere of uniform density. Dr. Winnecke, of the same observatory, is directing his attention to the determination of the parallax of fixed stars, recording his results by the automatic method.

Other European Countries.—In respect to these, little information has been obtained. In Italy, astronomical observations are still carried on with the zeal and the success also for which, in this respect, that country has so long been honorably distinguished; and, in particular, it may be remarked that Father Secchi, at Rome, and M. Donati, at Florence, are actively prosecuting the work of celestial exploration and discovery. A meteorological bulletin, similar to those of Paris and St. Petersburg, is now issued from the Royal Observatory at Palermo. A Central Meteorological Bureau was, May 1, 1865, instituted in Russia. As in France and Russia, reports of meteorological phenomena from various stations will be regularly received by the bureau, and bulletins issued by it, containing especially whatever relates to the progress of storms, will be placarded in the principal seaports.

Time-Signals.—Three principal methods of transmitting to distant points, and there repeating or signalling, the correct time of a standard or normal clock, have been resorted to. These are, 1, that of the *electric-fixed time-gun*; 2, that of the *electric-dropped time-ball*; and 3, that of *electric-controlled clocks*. All three of these methods have been adopted in the transmission of correct time from the clock of the Royal Observatory, Edinburgh; though the controlled clock and the time-gun have been most in demand. In the former case, here and in other parts of Great Britain, the arrangement known as Jones' patent has been employed; and on this plan several clocks in different parts of Edinburgh have been made to keep [sensibly] exact time with that of the Observatory. The time-gun, 4,000 feet from the Observatory, required a permanent use of the transmitting wires, so that the mode was

scarcely applicable to great distances. Mr. N. J. Holmes then arranged a time-gun at Newcastle, 120 miles distant, to be fired by means of Wheatstone's magneto-exploder and Abel's magnetic fuse; and on a fair day the current sent off along the telegraph wire discharged the gun with no sensible hesitation or "hang fire;" but on a foggy day the highly intense magnetic current was in too great a degree dissipated and lost. A practical system was finally devised, by causing a large signal-sending clock to discharge along the line of telegraph wire, at the due moment, a galvanic current of low intensity; this, on reaching Newcastle, was made to liberate in the proper apparatus there the more intense magnetic current, which had then only a few hundred yards to travel to the gun. Several time-guns at different places have since been put in operation, the Government favoring these enterprises by lending 24-pounders for use in them. At some points the plan, once tried, had been abandoned; but there were still (in the beginning of 1864) fresh applications from others for the benefits of the system.

An important extension of time-arrangements from the Greenwich Observatory and from other points has been—up to at least the spring of 1865—going forward in England. Mr. De la Rue has made an electric communication of his establishment with Greenwich—the clock of the former being caused for months consecutively to beat second by second with the Observatory clock at the latter; while, to correct an occasional variation, should such occur, a special signal is also sent at four seconds after every hour. Mr. C. F. Varley has mounted apparatus for distributing time-signals over various lines of railway reaching almost to the extremities of Britain, and for firing signal guns at Newcastle and Shields. The currents sent hourly to the office of the London District Telegraph are made available to chronometer-makers of the city. Prof. Airy expresses the hope that movements will soon be set on foot in London for the more perfect regulation of public clocks generally, and for other exhibitions of time-signals. Liverpool is to have a time-gun controlled from her Observatory; and at Glasgow, ten public clocks—at distances averaging three miles—are in operation, controlled from the Observatory there.

Mr. De la Rue describes an ingenious method of communicating the time-signals or impulses from the normal clock at Pulkowa for controlling the time of other clocks. On the frame of the clock, one on each side of an imaginary plane that would cut the centre of the crutch, are fixed two ivory cylinders, each having cemented within it a capillary tube of glass: through these tubes, from reservoirs of that liquid metal, flow streams of mercury, which meet and coalesce in one, thus constituting a *mercury wire* that, so long as it is continuous, serves to complete the circuit of a battery. In order to break the circuit at the desired inter-

vals, a thin blade of mica is so fixed to a prolongation of the ordinary crutch that at each oscillation of the pendulum it cuts the mercury wire, thus interrupting the electric current and transmitting the required signal. By varying the width of the plate of mica, the duration of the break can be regulated. A time-gun has also been set up recently on the Admiralty Quay at St. Petersburg, to be fired at midday by an electric current sent from the Pulkowa Observatory.

Machine for Cataloguing and Charting Stars.

—Prof. G. W. Hough, Director of the Dudley Observatory, Albany, describes in the *American Journal of Science*, vol. xxxviii. (date of September, 1864), a machine invented by himself, for the purposes indicated in the above title. He alludes in the outset to the first suggestion, in 1848, of the application of electricity to the recording of astronomical observations, the result being the early construction of *chronographs* by various persons. All these had for their object the recording of one ordinate only of a star's position at a given moment—that, namely, in right ascension (celestial longitude); except that the late Prof. O. M. Mitchell had also made some experiments in the way of electric recording of declinations (celestial latitude). Again, in determining difference of declination as well as time of transit, astronomers have almost invariably used the telescope in a fixed position, and depended upon a diaphragm or scale placed in the focus. Prof. Mitchell had, in 1849, devised a plan by which the angular motion of the telescope when moved in zenith distance, magnified by mechanical means, was made to show the difference of declination; and this principle also enters as one of the elements in Prof. Hough's apparatus.

The work heretofore of constructing star-charts, by laying down by hand the positions as given in a catalogue, has been extremely difficult and tedious. Mr. Hough became impressed with the desirableness of making the star-map in the very process of observing for correct positions. The accomplishment of this important purpose, at once securing great accuracy and saving labor and time, has been attained in the apparatus now to be described. In this, the record of the places of stars observed is made by the point of a hollow cylindrical steel pen: the place, at any moment of the pen over the sheet of paper receiving the record—the latter having been preparatorily coiled about a horizontal cylinder directly over which the pen rests—is determined continually by two movements; namely, *first*, by the steady revolution, once every hour, of the cylinder itself; and *secondly*, by a lateral movement given to the pen through mechanism connecting it with the clamp arm of the telescope, viz., a horizontal arm which carries the pen, a compound lever giving motion to the former, and a horizontal rod and upright bar by which the connection with the clamp

arm already mentioned is completed, while at the same time these parts serve further to magnify in the record the angular motion given to the telescope in zenith distance.

The cylinder carrying the record paper is ten inches in diameter and six inches long, and is made to revolve (as placed) from west to east, by means of clock mechanism and a half-seconds pendulum. Thus, the apparent regular movement of the pen along the paper, produced by the turning of the cylinder, corresponds to differences of right ascension, and of time; while the lateral movement—that in the direction of the axis of the cylinder—imparted to the pen, corresponds to differences of declination. The electrical recording mechanism is simple: it consists of an electro-magnet, its helix of course being part of the circuit of a galvanic battery, while the magnetic condition, when induced in the soft-iron magnet, is made by means of the armature to operate a horizontally placed arm, upon the end of which is a horizontal cross-piece standing parallel to the axis of the cylinder and running its whole length: the depression of this cross-piece by action of the magnet forces down the arm which carries the pen, over whatever part of the length of the cylinder the latter may stand. To make a record, it is only necessary to press a key by which the circuit through the coil of the electro-magnet is closed: the cross-piece is thus caused to strike a blow on the arm carrying the steel pen, so that at the instant a small dot is made on the record sheet covering the cylinder. For some further details in reference to the mechanism and means of modifying its action, the reader must be referred to the original account.

For stars of magnitude greater than the ninth, of which generally not more than three or four will have to be recorded in a night, the magnitudes are specially recorded by an assistant. The magnitudes 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13, are distinguished in the record by introducing for each beneath the point of the pen just before recording, and as may be required, the proper one of five strips of differently colored paper: each of these magnitudes is thus known by a particular color imparted to the dot which records the star's place. For the 14th magnitude—the smallest observed—the dots are left colorless, and are not specially marked. The strips of colored paper are so placed on an arm moving about a vertical axis, that the observer can, without removing his eye from the telescope, bring each as desired under the pen.

As fast, then, as the stars enter the field of the telescope, they are brought to the intersection of a horizontal and a vertical wire, when the electric circuit is closed and the record made; and thus constantly sweeping with the telescope a zone of 10' to 12' width (the greatest usually practicable), the result obtained during one revolution of the cylinder is a "fac-simile" copy—a chart—of the given zone of

stars, for one hour of right ascension: the number of stars taken within such limits is often as great as two hundred, and, in the region of the galaxy, sometimes amounts to four hundred and eighty. At the end of an hour, the pen, which has swept but a portion of the entire length of the cylinder, can be shifted over a new belt of the record sheet, and another hour's observations taken. Further, however, as each dot is made on the record sheet, a simultaneous record is also made on the working chronograph, and which gives the time to the one-hundredth part of a second; and for the exact declination, an assistant reads the declinometer scale to the five-tenths of a second. Thus are obtained at once a complete catalogue of the exact positions of the stars, and also a perfect map of the given part of the heavens. The apparatus can be adapted to any telescope. Of course, by showing the fact of change of position in any star, or the entrance of a new one within a given zone, upon taking sooner or later a second chart of it, this apparatus affords great facility both for the finding of known asteroids and the detecting of previously undiscovered ones. Again, if records have been obtained of several contiguous zones, these may be subsequently pricked through upon a single sheet, or otherwise transferred, thus producing star-maps of larger size.

An Aluminium Bronze Transit Axis.—In this CYCLOPÆDIA, 1862, will be found, under the head of CHEMISTRY, an abstract of a paper by Lieutenant-Colonel A. Strange, in relation to the qualities of various bronzes of aluminium and copper, and the probable value of some of these for the construction of instruments for scientific purposes.

April 12, 1865, Col. Strange presented before the Royal Astronomical Society a paper in the first part of which he detailed the results obtained in the way of castings of the bronze, and in particular its successful application to the construction of a transit axis. He now states that the alloy has been extensively employed, and that it has answered all his expectations, with a single exception; namely, that in consequence of its tarnishing more than was anticipated, and of the difficulty of producing a surface absolutely free from defects, the metal is not found so suitable as was hoped for receiving graduation. In the early experiments, also, there was a difficulty in securing large and complex castings, owing to the metal's running sluggishly into the mould and solidifying very quickly; but this had been overcome. In confirmation, the author exhibited an axis formed of the bronze, and made for a transit-instrument, of which the focal length was to be five feet. The length of the axis between bearings was $38\frac{1}{4}$ inches; the central cube nine inches by the side; the average thickness of the metal but 0.15 of an inch; and the total weight only 56 pounds. It was cast hollow, and in one piece, being made to include also an inge-

nious system of internal strengthening webs: the work was executed by the Messrs. Cooke, of York. From the effect of these webs, in conjunction with the rigidity of the alloy itself—the latter being three times as rigid as gun-metal—this was believed to be the stiffest transit axis hitherto made. In the second part of his paper, Col. Strange considered the adjustments of the instrument. He endorsed Mr. Cooke's suggestions, in respect to suspending one or more levels to the tube of the telescope itself, these watching the telescope instead of the pivots; and in respect also to the covering of the mercury surface, ordinarily relied on in collimating, with a disc of glass having accurately plane and parallel surfaces.

The Chronographic or Automatic Method, in Transit Observations.—The adoption of the automatic method for the recording of transit observations is steadily extending. It has been well remarked, that there is a degree of proficiency beyond which no amount of training can carry human skill; and that, when this has been reached, it is proper to give the resources of the intellect a new direction, in the devising of mechanical contrivances which shall accomplish the desired end with a precision not directly attainable by the human organs. M. Faye insists on the advantage of substituting largely the work of automatic mechanisms in lieu of that of the observer's hand, as a means of avoiding the errors of the senses, and also [of diminishing, at least] those "personal errors" which have no fixed value and which can scarcely be corrected.

In the Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society, for May, 1864, appears a paper "*On the Probable Error of a Meridional Transit-Observation, by the 'Eye and Ear' and Chronographic Methods,*" communicated by Mr. E. Dunkin. The author treats at length of the sets of observations chosen by him for examination, and of his modes of discussing them—particulars for which space cannot here be allowed. His results are, however, evidently drawn, as he states, from "a great mass of computation;" and the principal of them are the following:

1. In "*eye and ear*" observations, the probable error of a Greenwich transit observed in 1853 over *one wire* is ± 0.078 , while that of a *complete* transit over the seven wires is ± 0.029 . In *chronographic* observations, the probable error of a Greenwich transit observed in 1857 over *one wire* is ± 0.051 , and that of a *complete* transit over the nine wires is ± 0.017 .

3. In the eye-and-ear transits, only, for stars whose north polar distance is greater than 60° , it would seem that the probable error of a transit increases slightly as the north polar distance increases.

4. In eye-and-ear transits, the personal discordances are liable to a considerable variation between the different observers: in chronographic transits, the differences between the observers are comparatively small. The gen

eral steadiness of observing by the latter method is very remarkable, and shows the great advantages obtained by its adoption.

5. The probable error of a Greenwich result for right ascension in the year 1853, as determined from eye-and-ear transits, is ± 0.048 ; while the corresponding probable error resulting from chronographic transits in the year 1857, is ± 0.034 . There is a tendency in both methods toward an increase in the probable error when transits of stars of the first magnitude are observed; but the amount of this increase is small.

In the discussion following the reading of this paper, Mr. De la Rue remarked that there is a "personal equation" even in the chronographic system. The finger might move a little too soon or too late upon the tappet, or the tappet might "hang fire," etc. Mr. Wheatstone had proposed to correct this by a system of wires in the transit-instrument, which, when the star was brought between them, should be made to follow its movement, and when the star passed the optical axis of the instrument, or any number of known points from that axis, the chronographic contact should be secured by contact of the wires, and a number of records thus obtained independently of the will of the observer. Col. Strange thought this result had already been accomplished in an instrument in the Paris Observatory, by an invention of M. Redier. In this, the wire was carried so steadily across the field—so exactly with the same velocity as the passage of the stars—that the record of the intersection of that star with the wire was a matter of perfect ease and certainty. Such a system, he thought, would still further reduce the errors even of the chronographic method.

Col. Strange remarks also that M. Leverrier had in a conversation with him disapproved of the chronographic system, declaring that its practice tends to make bad astronomers. Subsequently, in a note to the Society, Leverrier has stated that in the conversation referred to he had been to some extent misunderstood, and that what he would say is, that "a touch-observer does not acquire the same appreciation of duration of time as an observer trained to eye-and-ear observations."

OHIO. The progress of this State in wealth and population, uninterrupted during the war, would seem, judging from the greatly increased receipts into the treasury, to have received a new impetus with the advent of peace. The total receipts from all sources during the fiscal year amounted to the sum of \$18,190,000, while the receipts during 1864 were only \$8,680,000, showing an increase of \$4,510,000. The total disbursements were \$12,400,000, or \$5,721,000 more than in the previous year, when they were only \$6,679,006, leaving a balance to the credit of all funds of \$790,000 against \$2,000,960, the balance of 1864. The total funded debt of the State was \$12,912,014, showing a diminution of \$588,736 since 1864,

when it was \$13,500,750. The following table, from the Auditor's report, showing the debt and population of the State at different periods and the proportion of the debt *per capita*, affords evidence of a remarkable development of material resources and accumulation of wealth:

	Debt.	Population.	Per Capita.
1844.....	\$13,004,526	1,702,714	\$10.57—403
1854.....	15,218,980	2,124,000	7.16—524
1860.....	14,250,233	2,389,511	6.09—111
1865.....	12,912,014	2,514,974	5.13—405

The Auditor says: "With a rigid adherence to economy, the proper amendments of the tax laws, and the steady and intelligent enforcement of a just and equal taxation, the public debt will disappear in seven years, and the State levy sink down to one mill on the dollar. Then, with the rate of interest properly adjusted, capital will flow into the State, manufactories spring up, and population and wealth augment in a ratio hitherto scarcely dreamed of." It appears, from the table of the public debt in the Auditor's report, that there remains due:

Of the loan of 1860.....	\$563,203 56
Of the loan of 1865.....	1,002,500 00
And that there will be due in 1868.....	639,079 13
Making.....	\$3,280,547 69

From the report of the Commissioner of Statistics it appears that there were 3,340 miles of railroad in the State, with a paid-up capital of \$77,694,737, and an indebtedness of \$58,931,686. The estimated crop of oats was 18,000,000 bushels; of corn, 90,000,000 bushels; and of hay, 2,000,000 tons. The average production of crops was equal to that of a series of preceding years. The fruit crop was an almost entire failure, owing to wintry storms and the extraordinary humidity of the atmosphere in April, May, and June. Of maple and sorghum sugar the production was 5,239,729 pounds; of molasses, 2,933,697 gallons.

During the year there were 23,198 marriages and 837 divorces; 2,811 indictments for crime, and 1,025 convictions; 11,477 civil suits brought and 8,778 judgments rendered. The number of violent deaths was 1,014. There were erected during the year, at an aggregate cost of \$4,830,912, 4,850 houses, 1,158 barns, 78 mills, and 811 furnaces, factories, etc.

The State furnished to the Federal Government, between the 15th of April, 1861, and the 15th of April, 1865, for different terms of service, varying from three months to three years, one hundred and ninety-eight regiments of infantry, raised and organized within the State, besides considerable numbers of men for the cavalry and artillery arms of the service. The aggregate number of troops furnished by the State was 817,133 for various terms of service, equal to 239,976 three years' men. Of these all had been discharged, with the exception of six regiments, mainly serving on the Rio Grande. Speaking of the retention of these Ohio volunteers in the field after the conclusion of the war, Governor Anderson said in his message of the 1st of January, 1866, that it was never

intended or expected that the noble patriots sent forth to fight in the war for the Union, were to be detained as a police guard to oversee political reforms in the South, whether as to whites or blacks, still less to be marched to the Rio Grande to menace or assault Maximilian or any other despot. In this connection, speaking of the Monroe doctrine, he said :

What the Monroe doctrine exactly is we have never agreed among ourselves. Its origin is doubtful, its purposes uncertain, its means to this day are unspecified. Mexico has never been and can never be a republic, unless her people will accommodate us to be born again, and of entirely different parentage. She, with all her sister republics of South America, has been from the beginning uninterruptedly a most violent, bloody, incendiary, disgraceful anarchy. She has continually inspired all nations with hate; has ruthlessly ruined and oppressed her own people. And her Government has brought disgrace alike upon the sacred name of republican liberty, and of human nature.

The Union State Convention met at Columbus on the 23d of June, and adopted nine resolutions, among which were the following :

Resolved, That the name and fame of Abraham Lincoln stand out from the history of the epoch unrivalled and alone, and while we deplore his untimely and cruel death and venerate his memory, it becomes us to imitate his wisdom, firmness, and moderation in the treatment of vexed questions, and especially to imitate his example in waiting for the solution of difficulties, to be furnished by the progress of time and the logic of events.

Resolved, That President Andrew Johnson, by his unwavering devotion to the Union through years of severest trial, has now our highest confidence, that we cheerfully endorse the policy of his administration, looking to the restoration of peace and civil order in the so-called seceded States, and that, as Union men of Ohio, we will give him our hearty and undivided support.

Resolved, That four years of sanguinary war, with its fearful sacrifice of life and treasure, forced upon us by the slaveholders' rebellion, have demonstrated to us and to the world that slavery and its institutions are irreconcilably opposed to freedom and free institutions; and all the teachings of history, the dealings of Providence, and our own bitter experience, point unerringly to their overthrow and eradication as our only safeguard against the recurrence of like evils in the future.

Resolved, That while we are anxious for an early reconstruction of fraternal relations with the insurgent States, we demand that such reconstruction shall be at such time and upon such terms as will give unquestioned assurance of the peace and security, not only of the loyal people of the rebel States, but also of the peace and prosperity of the Federal Union.

Resolved, That the experience of the last four years shows the absolute necessity in all our political action of keeping steadily in view the great principles of our Government as set forth in the Declaration of Independence.

The Chair decided that a motion to add the following resolutions, presented by Mr. Piatt, would be out of order :

Resolved, That it is the belief of this Convention that the reconstruction of the revolted States constitutionally belongs to the Legislative department, and that the Executive can only promise provisional military government until such time as Congress may act.

Resolved, That time can alone heal the wounds inflicted by this war, and therefore there is no cause for haste in the reconstruction of the revolted States;

and when the time comes for such reconstruction, our indemnity for the past and security for the future demand that the revolted States shall be given to loyal men only.

The Democratic Convention met also at Columbus, on the 24th of August, and adopted nineteen resolutions, of which the following were the most important :

Resolved, That the Democracy of Ohio will maintain and defend, as they have always heretofore done, as essential to the existence of our federal system of Government, the true doctrine of State rights, not nullification, nor secession, but the theory of that system as laid down in the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions of 1798, as interpreted by their authors, the one by Madison in his report of 1799, and the other by Jefferson in his solemn official inaugural of 1801.

Resolved, That their ordinances of secession being void, the so-called seceded States are in the Union as States, and are therefore entitled to all the reserved rights of the States, and to their due representation in Congress, and to vote at future elections of President and Vice-President; and any attempt of the General Government, or any department thereof, to deprive them of these rights, would be an assault upon the rights of every State in the Union, and an effort to overthrow the Government ordained by the Constitution.

Resolved, That to each State belongs the right to determine for itself the qualifications of its electors, and the General Government cannot, nor can any department thereof, interfere directly or indirectly with the exercise of this right without a palpable violation of the Constitution and of the reserved rights of the States.

Resolved, That the effort now being made to confer the right of suffrage upon negroes, is an insidious attempt to overthrow popular institutions by bringing the right to vote into disgrace; that the negroes are not competent to the exercise of that right, nor is it necessary to their safety or protection; on the contrary, its exercise by them, if attempted, would be fraught with terrible calamities to both them and the whites, and we are, therefore, unequivocally opposed to negro suffrage.

Resolved, That under the rule of abolitionism, and especially under the recent military orders in Kentucky, the emigration of negroes into Ohio is a growing evil; and in order that white labor should be protected against negro labor, and the people against negro pauperism, it is the duty of the Legislature to discourage negro emigration into our State.

Resolved, That we most explicitly condemn the policy of the party in power, in creating thousands of millions of Government debt, and attempting to exonerate the holders thereof from all obligations to pay their just proportion of taxes for the support of the State in which they reside, and thereby creating an odious and privileged moneyed aristocracy; and we declare it to be the immediate duty of Congress and the State Legislature to use all the legal and constitutional power they possess, to subject money so invested to a burden of taxation equal to that imposed upon other property for Federal, State, and municipal purposes.

Resolved, That freedom of speech, of the press, and of elections, *habeas corpus*, and trial by jury, are the birthright of all American citizens, guaranteed by both Federal and State Constitutions; that we will maintain and defend them as such in every extremity, and that we denounce especially the arrest of citizens by military authority in States or places where civil tribunals are established, and their execution, imprisonment, or trial by military commissions as palpable infractions of the Constitution and outrages upon public liberty and private rights.

Resolved, That the continued suspension of the writ

of *habeas corpus* since the termination of the war, and when all pretence of necessity is passed, the denial of the right of trial by jury, and the trial of citizens not in the military service by military commissions, and the open interference with elections by military power, as in the recent instances in Kentucky and Tennessee, are revolutionary violations of the Constitution, threatening the very existence of our most ancient and sacred rights; that they portend a danger to the liberties of the country greater than has ever before menaced them, and which it is the duty of all good citizens to meet with the most determined opposition and most sleepless vigilance.

Resolved, That while we will resolutely and persistently condemn all infractions of the Constitution, by whomsoever committed, while we regret that the terms of pacification agreed to by Maj.-Gen. Sherman, in April last, were not at once ratified by the Federal Executive, we will nevertheless stand by President Johnson in all constitutional efforts to restore the States to the exercise of their rights and power within the Union.

The election took place on the 10th of October, and resulted in the success of the Republican ticket. The number of votes received by Gen. Cox, Republican, was 223,633, which gave him a majority of 29,936 over his opponent, George W. Morgan.

Gen. Cox, in a letter published in July, after his nomination, had expressed himself as strongly opposed to negro suffrage. In his inaugural address to the Legislature on the 8th of January, 1866, speaking on the subject of reconstruction, he said:

It is in the excitement of a great struggle that the institutions of a country are in the most danger of change, and perhaps no nation has ever passed through such a convulsion as ours and then returned to the principles of government and exact form of constitution which it had before. The maxim that revolutions do not go backward, has seemed to have even a wider and deeper significance than has been popularly given to it. The same law of progression which has made the convulsions of monarchical governments tend toward the development of popular liberty, has in republics too often led to a despotism of classes or of factions, and thence by easy stages to anarchy and utter disruption. A victorious majority, flushed with its triumph, finds it easy to forget the rights of minorities; and it remains for us to prove whether, in our day, the old cry of "Woe to the conquered" may be silenced by a truly republican determination to administer the Government for the real advantage of all—of the defeated rebels as well as of the loyal victors.

OLDENBURG, a grand duchy in Germany. Reigning Grand Duke, Peter I., born July 8, 1827; succeeded his father, February 27, 1853. Heir apparent, Prince Friedrich August, born November 16, 1852. According to the Constitution of 1849 (revised 1852), the legislative power is exercised by a Landtag or Diet, elected for three years by all tax-paying citizens. The mode of election is indirect, every 300 voters choosing a delegate, and the delegates of 20 districts, representing 6,000 electors, appointing one deputy. In the "Budget" for 1865 the receipts were estimated at 2,254,060, and the expenditures at 2,347,860 thalers. The public debt amounted, in December, 1864, to 4,153,500 thalers. The army consists of 4,007 men. The area of the grand duchy embraces 2,417 square miles, with a population, accord-

ing to the census of 1864, of 301,812 souls (in 1861, 295,242); of whom 198,122 were Lutherans, 72,987 Roman Catholics, 27,987 members of the Evangelical Church, 1,196 Reformed, 1,576 Jews. The movement of shipping was, in 1863, as follows:

FLAG.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Oldenburg.....	6,800	101,905	6,714	118,305
Foreign	3,427	122,108	3,409	126,692
Total.....	9,727	223,913	10,123	244,997

The commercial navy consisted, in 1864, of 650 vessels, of a total burden of 33,339 lasts.

OREGON. An extra session of the Legislature was held at Salem in December, 1865, principally for the purpose of ratifying the anti-slavery amendment to the Constitution. The Republicans having a majority in both branches, this was done on the 11th of the month, and the Legislature soon after adjourned. As State officers and members of the Legislature and of Congress are chosen biennially and quadrennially in the even years, no election of any kind took place in Oregon in 1865. The next session of the Legislature will be held in September, 1866, and the next general election will take place in June of the same year.

The progress of Oregon, though comparatively less rapid than that of some of the neighboring States and Territories, to which rich discoveries of the precious metals have attracted a large mining population, has perhaps been more steady and sure. Her population has risen from 52,465 in 1860, to somewhat over 70,000 in 1865, and the agricultural resources of the State are being developed in a very satisfactory manner. The Oregon Navigation Company, organized in 1861 to open the navigation of the Columbia River and its branches, which drain a country of enormous extent, have now over twenty steamboats running, and by means of short railroads built around the Cascades and the Dalles, and wagon roads from the Dalles, from Umatilla, and from Wallula, have established the cheapest and quickest route for travel or freight from all parts of the coast to the rich mines of Boise and Owyhee in Idaho. Between 1861 and 1865 their boats carried to the upper Columbia upwards of 65,000 tons of freight and 100,000 passengers. Measures are now in progress to push their communications, by means of the navigation of the Snake River, into the heart of the Idaho gold region, and on beyond toward Utah. These improvements, when perfected, will open a much more ready means of access to the State from the Mississippi valley than is now available, and will greatly promote emigration. In the southern and eastern parts of the State deposits of gold of considerable richness have of late years been worked with success, but its chief source of wealth for the present will probably be found in its forests and fields. The former produce a red fir of great

size, which yields large amounts of turpentine, and is available for building purposes or fuel; and the latter, besides abundant crops of cereals, are not less adapted to the production of fruits

than those of the adjoining State of California. The crops of apples, pears, plums, and cherries, are described as almost exceeding belief in quantity, and of admirable quality.

P

PAGE, Hon. JOHN, formerly a United States Senator, and Governor of New Hampshire, born in Haverhill, N. H., May 21, 1787, died there September 8, 1865. His advantages for an education were the common school and a few terms at the academy of his native town. From early boyhood he was a practical farmer, and with the exception of absences while discharging public duties, he had always resided upon, and cultivated the old homestead acres which had descended to him from his ancestors. In 1815 he was appointed Principal Assessor of the Direct Tax for the Fifth District of New Hampshire, having for some time been assistant assessor. The first record of his appearance in political life is that of an active Democratic representative in the State Legislature of 1818. He was also a member of that body in 1819, 1820, and 1835. From 1828 to 1834 he was, with the exception of one year, annually elected Register of Deeds for Grafton County. During the years 1836 and 1837 he was a Senator in Congress from New Hampshire, having been elected to complete the unexpired term of Hon. Isaac Hill, who had resigned his seat. He was a State Councillor in 1838, and Governor from 1839 to 1842.

PALMERSTON, HENRY JOHN TEMPLE, third Viscount, a British statesman, for fifty years a member of the British Cabinet, and at his death First Lord of the Treasury and Premier of Great Britain, born at Broadlands, near Romsey, in Hampshire, October 20, 1784; died at his country seat, Brockett Hall, Herts, October 18, 1865. The Temple family have taken a prominent part in the affairs of Great Britain for more than two centuries and a half. Among the ancestors of Lord Palmerston were the secretary to Sir Philip Sidney, who settled in Ireland in 1609; his son, Master of the Rolls in Ireland, and an eminent lawyer; the celebrated Sir William Temple, one of the ablest and most accomplished men of his time, made a baronet by Charles II. for his great diplomatic services; and his nephew, Baron Temple, the first Viscount Palmerston, so created in 1772. Henry John Temple, the late Premier, received his early education at Harrow, entered the University of Edinburgh from thence, and, after studying mental philosophy under Dugald Stewart, returned to England, and in 1806 graduated Master of Arts from St John's College, Cambridge. He had succeeded to his title in 1802, but as an Irish peer, after the Union, he could only enter the House of Lords by election; and as his associations and attachments were all with England, he preferred a seat in the House

of Commons, and though but 22 years of age, contested in 1806 the representation of Cambridge University with Lord Henry Petty, but was defeated. He was, however, returned for the proprietary borough of Bletchingley. In the following year he again contested the University, but failed, when he was returned for Newport, Isle of Wight, which he continued to represent until 1811, when he was elected member for Cambridge, and was repeatedly reelected by that constituency for twenty years. In 1807 he was made a junior Lord of the Admiralty in the Duke of Portland's (Tory) administration, but did not attain to a seat in the Cabinet till 1809, when, on Lord Castlereagh's resignation of the Secretaryship of War, in consequence of his duel with Mr. Canning, Lord Palmerston succeeded him in that office. He continued to hold that office until 1828, under the successive administrations of Mr. Perceval, the Earl of Liverpool, Mr. Canning, Lord Goderich, and the Duke of Wellington, administrations of very different political complexions, but all appreciating and respecting his ability as War Secretary. In 1828, however, he retired from the War Office, the affairs of which he had managed with great skill and success, and threw himself into the ranks of the Whig opposition. This brought down upon him a torrent of vituperation from his former associates, at which he laughed and jested. In 1830 the Whigs came into power, under the premiership of Earl Grey, and with a programme of liberal measures which greatly disgusted the Conservative or Tory party. Cambridge University refused to return Lord Palmerston, but the borough of Bletchingley again elected him, and he took a seat in the Cabinet as Foreign Secretary. His policy in the Foreign Office was able, and often characterized by boldness and independence, but was generally in the interests of peace and good order. He recognized the independence of Belgium, and established the quadruple alliance between England, France, Spain, and Portugal for the maintenance of constitutional government in the two latter countries. The quadruple alliance for the protection of Turkish independence was also due to his exertions, and this and other measures created for him a high reputation as a diplomatist. When Earl Grey resigned, in 1834, he also went out of office, but resumed his position in 1835 in the Melbourne administration, and retained it till 1841. In this period of ten years of almost continuous power, he had made his foreign policy so marked that, all over Europe, men spoke of it, not as the foreign

measures of the British Government, but as the "Palmerston policy." In 1841 Sir Robert Peel again came into power, and Lord Palmerston took his place in the opposition, and harassed the Peel administration by his attacks on its foreign policy, especially in regard to the Ashburton Treaty of 1842 with the United States, which he persistently denominated the "Ashburton Capitulation." Early in 1845, foreseeing the speedy success of the Corn-Law League in their efforts to procure the entire repeal of the Corn Laws, Lord Palmerston publicly announced his conversion to the principle of absolute repeal. On Sir Robert Peel's resignation the same year, in order to allow the Liberal party to take the necessary action consequent upon the repeal, Lord John Russell, who was called to form a ministry, desired to have both Earl Grey and Lord Palmerston as members of his Cabinet, but the Earl refused to serve with Palmerston in consequence of his disagreement with him in his foreign policy, and the Cabinet was not organized. In 1846, however, Russell was more successful, and Palmerston was again installed as Minister of Foreign Affairs. The epoch was a stormy one, one difficult and intricate question after another coming up, and being disposed of by the Foreign Minister, who was really, though not nominally, the leader of the Government. Among these questions were: the troubles in Portugal; the Swiss question; the revolutionary movements of 1848; the Spanish *embroglio* of the same year; the Greek question, extending from 1847 to 1850; the Hungarian war, and the protection of the Hungarian chiefs; and, finally, the recognition of Louis Napoleon, and the formation of an *entente cordiale* with him, contrary to the wishes, and indeed almost in direct defiance of the expressed views of the Queen and Prince Albert. Lord Palmerston carried matters with a very high hand in this measure, opposing the arts of diplomacy and some of those of intrigue to the known wishes of the Queen, who, under the influence of Prince Albert, was strongly in favor of the German policy of non-recognition of Napoleon. Palmerston believed that the peace of Europe, and especially peace between Great Britain and France, could be best secured by an alliance with the Prince President, whose career he foresaw, and he hesitated at nothing to secure that alliance, and in more than one instance he neither took the Queen nor his colleagues entirely into his confidence in the measures he adopted. The displeasure of the Queen at his conduct is forcibly manifested in the following letter, which she addressed to Lord John Russell in 1850:

The Queen requires, first, that Lord Palmerston will distinctly state what he proposes in a given case, in order that the Queen may know as distinctly to what she is giving her royal sanction; secondly, having once given her sanction to a measure, that it be not arbitrarily altered or modified by the Minister. Such an act she must consider as failing in sincerity to the Crown, and justly to be visited by the exercise

of her constitutional right of dismissing that Minister. She expects to be kept informed of what passes between him and the Foreign Minister before important decisions are taken, based upon that intercourse; to receive the foreign despatches in good time, and to have the drafts for her approval sent to her in sufficient time to make herself acquainted with their contents before they must be sent off. The Queen thinks it best that Lord John Russell should show this letter to Lord Palmerston.

Lord Palmerston simply acknowledged the receipt of this document, but pursued his previous course, until, in 1851, Lord John Russell, who sympathized more than his colleague with the Queen, indicated to him that he must leave the Cabinet. He accordingly resigned, but the next year became Home Secretary in the Earl of Aberdeen's (coalition) administration, and in 1855 was called to the premiership on the breaking up of that administration. Under his Government the Russian war was brought to a close, the Indian mutiny occurred and was quelled, and the Chinese war commenced and carried on. The House, at the prompting of Mr. Cobden, passed a vote of censure upon the Premier for his policy in China, and a dissolution was had, but he was sustained, and continued in power till 1858, when he was defeated on the Conspiracy Bill, and resigned. Lord Derby's brief administration terminated in June, 1859, when Palmerston was again called to the premiership, which he retained till his death. His last illness was very brief and almost painless. Even up to old age (he was 81 years old at his death) he had always been a remarkably healthy and robust man, fond of all field sports, a sound sleeper, a jolly, rollicking, hearty Englishman, an embodiment of the traits and qualities of the Englishman of the nineteenth century, no better and no worse than the average men of his generation and nation. Though an aristocrat in every fibre of his being, he had the tact to fall in with the popular tastes of the masses, and throughout his long political career of nearly sixty years to keep upon the popular and winning side. He was a skilful diplomatist, but not a great statesman, preferring to carry his measures by diplomatic arts and intrigue rather than by planting himself squarely on the platform of a great principle. Principle, in its highest sense, he did not possess; he adhered, in turn, to nearly every phase of policy adopted by the different administrations of Great Britain during the last sixty years, and his sole criterion of the goodness of a measure was its chances for success. Lofty and self-sacrificing patriotism was something above his liking or comprehension; it was only when it culminated in successful results that he had a respect for it. He scoffed at and chaffed Cobden and Bright during the long years of their advocacy of the great principles for which they contended; but when they had won the battle, he promptly ranged himself on their side, and in 1859 offered Mr. Cobden a place in his cabinet, which that statesman civilly refused, on the ground that he had not such

confidence in the course which the Premier would pursue as would make him willing to be bound by his acts. Palmerston did not lack in physical courage, few of his class do, but more perhaps than the majority of English noblemen he was entitled to the reputation of being *plucky*. But though at times audacious, almost sublimely so, he was not a man of high moral courage, as no man who lacks moral principle can well be. A man of elegant culture, he would have been, had he not devoted himself so early and constantly to politics, a writer of marked ability. As it is, aside from his speeches and diplomatic papers, he has left little in the way of literary productions. The most notable of his early writings were some political squibs, written jointly by himself, Sir Robert Peel, and Mr. John Wilson Croker, in the Tory interest. "The New Whig Guide," one of these, contains from his pen a "Report of the Trial of Henry Brougham for calling Mr. Ponsonby an Old Woman." Another is a plan for arranging the "Red Book (the Parliamentary Catalogue of Members, etc.), on Scientific Principles, introducing the Linnæan System into Parliament." Both betray the satirical nature of the man. Two collections, neither of them complete, have been made of his more important speeches and diplomatic papers, viz.: "Opinions and Policy of the Right Hon. Viscount Palmerston, as Minister, Diplomatist, and Statesman, with a Memoir, by G. H. Francis" (8vo, 1852), and "Thirty Years of Foreign Policy, a History of the Secretaryships of the Earl of Aberdeen and Lord Palmerston" (8vo, 1855).

PARAGUAY, a republic in South America. President, Don Francisco Solano Lopez, born in 1827, assumed the Presidency on September 10, 1862, on the death of his father, the former President, Carlos Antonio Lopez. The President holds his office for life, and has, according to the Constitution, the right to appoint his successor by a will which is to be kept secret. In cases specially provided for by the Constitution, the President appoints a Vice-President. Thus, President Lopez, on May 25, 1865, appointed the Prime Minister, Francisco Sanchez, Vice-President. Other members of the ministry in 1865, Gen. Barrios (War and Navy); José Berges (Foreign Affairs); Mariano Gonzalez (Finances). Minister of the United States near the Government of Paraguay, Charles A. Washburne (appointed June 8, 1861).

The area of the republic is estimated at 73,000 English square miles; the population, according to a census of 1857, was 1,337,431 in twenty-five "commandancias" (departments). Capital, Assuncion, with 48,000 inhabitants. Nearly one-half of the entire territory consists of public lands. The sale of the *yerba mate* (Paraguay tea) and other products of the public lands constitutes one of the chief sources of public revenue. In 1859 they yielded 8,161,323 francs. By duties on imports and exports, the Government in the same year realized about 4,280,000 francs. Paraguay has

hitherto been without a public debt; but the national Congress, which was convoked in March, 1865, authorized the President to contract a loan of five million pounds sterling, for carrying on the war against Brazil, the Argentine Republic, and Uruguay. Before the war, the standing army consisted of 15,000 men, and the reserve of 46,000. According to a correspondence in the Paris *Moniteur*, from Assuncion, dated June 8, 1865, the army at that time consisted of the following troops: 40 battalions of infantry, at 700 men each, total 28,000; 82 regiments of cavalry, at 500 horses each, total 16,000; 3,000 artillery, with 120 pieces of ordnance; total about 47,000 men. The navy consisted of 18 steamers. The imports amounted in 1859 (according to the Paris *Moniteur* of January 15, 1863) to 8,833,000 francs (increase over 1858, 3,029,000), and exports to 7,703,000 (increase 3,029,000). The number of vessels which arrived and departed in 1859 was 412, of an average tonnage of 16,650.

On August 30, 1864, the Minister of Foreign Affairs notified the Brazilian minister at Assuncion of the protest of the Government of Paraguay against the execution of the threats contained in an ultimatum from Brazil to Uruguay (application of forcible measures; occupation of the country by Brazilian troops). This protest was renewed on September 3d. On November 11th, a Paraguayan war-vessel captured, without previous declaration of war, the Brazilian mail steamer *Marquez de Olinda*, on its passage to the Brazilian province of Matto Grosso, and declared the passengers prisoners of war. On the following day, November 12th, the Brazilian minister at Assuncion was notified that the Government of Paraguay, on account of the disregard of its protest of August 30th, by Brazil, regarded the Brazilian flag as hostile, and that henceforth the Paraguay River would be closed to all Brazilian vessels. On November 14th the Brazilian minister demanded and received his passports; and on November 17th the Government of Paraguay notified its diplomatic agents of what had occurred. On December 14th an army of Paraguayans left Assuncion to invade the Brazilian province of Matto Grosso. As the communication of the Government of Brazil with this province was entirely by way of the river, which the Paraguayans had blocked up, the Brazilians found themselves unable to make an effectual opposition to the invading army. On December 29th the fort of Nova Coimbra was, after a bombardment of two days, evacuated by the Brazilian garrison and occupied by the Paraguayans. This success was followed by the occupation of Miranda, Durados, Albuquerque (January 1, 1866), Corumba (January 3d), and (April 10, 1866) the capital of the province, Cuyaba.

In the meanwhile, the new Provisional President of Uruguay, Flores (*see* URUGUAY), had, on February 22th, concluded an alliance with Brazil against Paraguay; and as the Government of Paraguay suspected the Government of

the Argentine Republic of an intention to join the alliance, it did not wait for a formal declaration of war, but seized, in the first days of April, the Argentine vessel *Salto*, in the Paraguay River, near Assuncion. A few days later a Paraguayan army invaded the Argentine territory. On April 18th it captured two Argentine vessels in the port of Corrientes, and on April 14th occupied the city of Corrientes, where it appointed a provisional Government, consisting of three citizens of Corrientes. On April 16th the Argentine Republic declared war against Paraguay, which was followed, on April 18th, by a declaration of war against the Argentine Republic by the national Congress of Paraguay.

In the first days of June the city of Corrientes was recaptured by Gen. Paunero's Argentine Brigade, assisted by the Brazilian fleet and a small body of their infantry and artillery. The loss on both sides was considerable for the number in action, the allies losing two hundred and fifty out of eight hundred, and the Paraguayans about four hundred out of twelve or fifteen hundred, few prisoners being taken, and those mostly wounded. Three cannon, some arms and munitions, and a flag were captured from the Paraguayans. The victory had, however, little value, as, from want of supplies and sufficient force, no attempt was made to use the town as a basis, and it was evacuated on the following day, the Argentines returning to Esquina, and the Brazilian fleet proceeding to Tres Bocas to blockade the Paraguay, merely leaving a gunboat to watch Corrientes.

On the 10th of June the Paraguayans, to the number of eight thousand men, under Gen. Lagrune, with their baggage and artillery in the front, marched toward the passage of San Borja, on the Uruguay River, and launching nineteen flat-bottomed boats they had brought on carts, put on board twenty-five or thirty men and rowers on each, who crossed over, under cover of four pieces of cannon, which opened fire on the small force of one hundred and fifty Brazilians on the Rio Grande side of the Uruguay and dislodged them, forcing them to withdraw toward San Borja. By 11 o'clock the Paraguayans had five thousand men and six pieces of artillery on the Brazilian side, and pressed heavily on the Brazilians, who had been reinforced by the first battalion of volunteers and two hundred cavalry, and were drawn up with two pieces of cannon in the centre, in front of the little village of San Borja. Here a stand was made, but the Brazilians were overpowered and driven within the village, which, finding it hopeless to resist the superior force brought against them, they soon abandoned, retiring to Itú. The Brazilian loss was eighteen killed and twenty-nine wounded; and the Paraguayans lost heavily in the first detachment while crossing.

On July 11th they entered Itaquy, and on July 19th, 20th, and 21st they crossed the river Ibicuy without opposition, and occupied Uru-

guayana, an important Brazilian town on the Uruguay.

President Lopez, at this time, issued a decree, annexing the Argentine province of Corrientes to Paraguay, "in order," as he says, "to preserve the equilibrium of the Plate." All arms, horses, cattle, and woollen and cotton goods were declared articles of war, and as such appropriated by him for the army.

On June 11th a severe naval engagement took place, some three leagues below the city of Corrientes, at the mouth of the Riachuelo, between the Paraguayan fleet, which came down the Parana River, and the Brazilian fleet. The Paraguayan fleet was composed of eight steamers, the *Tacuari*, *Paraguay*, *Marquez de Olinda*, *Ipora*, *Ibera*, *Salto*, and *Jeju*, and six flat-boats mounting sixty-eight or eighty pounders. They also had a battery of forty rifled cannon of heavy calibre, from which they poured continued volleys of Congreve rockets, grape, etc. Their fleet carried boarding crews, mustering seventeen hundred men, and the land batteries were manned by two thousand horse and foot. The Brazilian fleet consisted of the *Amazonas* (eight guns), *Jequitinhonha* (eight guns), *Belmonte* (eight guns), *Araguary* (seven guns), *Ignatemy* (seven guns), *Paranahiba* (eight guns), *Beberibe* (seven guns), *Ypiranga* (six guns), *Mearim* (seven guns). The battle lasted from 9.30 A. M. to 6 P. M. The attack was begun by the Paraguayans, the *Tacuari* and *Marquez de Olinda* boarding the *Paranahiba*, and the *Salto* attacking the same vessel on the poop. A boarding party leaped on deck and soon were masters of all the upper part of the vessel, while a Paraguayan officer seized the helm and gave orders to the engineers. At the same time the Brazilian flag was hauled down, and the steamer all but captured, when the *Amazonas* came to her assistance and overpowered the assailants, recovering the *Paranahiba* and sinking the *Salto*. The *Tacuari* and *Olinda* drew off, but the latter went aground, and was immediately abandoned. The fight between the *Amazonas* and the three Paraguayan steamers was desperate and sanguinary, the former capturing the commanders of the *Olinda* and *Salto*; and Admiral Messa, of the *Tacuari*, was severely wounded in a hand-to-hand conflict. At this moment the Paraguay ran aground, being pursued by the *Araguary*, and burned by the Brazilians. But the imperial gunboat *Jequitinhonha* met with a like misfortune, and was abandoned after a severe conflict with the batteries. After the loss of the *Salto*, *Olinda*, and *Paraguay*, the Paraguayans got disheartened, and the *Amazonas* succeeded in sinking the *Jeju* and taking five flat-boats (the other being sunk), the rest of the fleet beat a precipitate retreat, the only vessels escaping being the *Tacuari*, *Ipora*, and *Ibera*. At six P. M. the battle was over, and the Brazilian fleet master of the day, having only lost one vessel. But the carnage was unprecedented, the loss of the Paraguayans being far

the greatest. The killed and wounded of the Brazilians exceeded three hundred, including nineteen officers; the Paraguayans' list was estimated at thirteen hundred men of the fleet *hors de combat*, and five hundred killed or wounded in the batteries. All the Brazilian vessels were more or less injured, but were soon repaired and ready again for service.

The allied land army was concentrated at Concordia, between the Uruguay and Parana. Gen. Urquiza visited Gen. Mitre on the 23d of July, and had a conference with him and the Brazilian commander. A review of all the allied armies there assembled took place upon the 24th. The total amounted to about 20,000 men, of whom 12,180 infantry, 3,000 cavalry, and 756 artillery, with 82 pieces of rifled cannon, formed the Brazilian army. On August 13th Gen. Flores made a junction with Paunero at the Mirinhay, some twenty miles from Restauracion, increasing his force to 9,000 infantry and cavalry, and 40 pieces of rifled cannon. On the 17th he found the Paraguayans, numbering about 3,000 men, who were prevented from joining or receiving reinforcements from the 7,000 of their troops on the other side at Uruguayana, in Rio Grande, by the Brazilian steamer Uruguay and two armed launches, drawn up in line of battle, with flanks and front protected by ditches, along the further side of the ravine of Ombusito, two miles from Restauracion, and near the overflowed corner formed by the confluence of the Yatay and Uruguay. In the battle which ensued, the Paraguayans were totally defeated, suffering a loss of 800 killed and 1,600 prisoners, including their commander, while the allied loss was only 250.

This success of Flores entirely cut off the Paraguayan army in Uruguayana from all possibility of retreat. An attempt to force a way through the besieging forces failed. The garrison held out until October, when they were forced to surrender. The allies captured five cannons, nine flags, and five thousand muskets.

In October the Paraguayans evacuated the province of Corrientes, and retreated unmolested into Paraguay; the allied army being at too great a distance to harass their retreating columns, which were also protected by the circumstances of much of the intervening country being under water from the heavy rains. The last division of the Paraguayan troops left the Argentine territory on the 24th of October.

The allies, in following the retreating Paraguayans, crossed the Corrientes River, and advanced toward the Parana, intending to concentrate their forces at Paso de la Patria, on the frontier of Paraguay. The Brazilian fleet was in November, 1865, at the mouth of the Paraguay, and was to carry the allied troops up the Parana to the point selected for further hostile operations. At Humaita, their stronghold, the Paraguayans had made extensive preparations to stop the further progress of the Brazilian vessels. The garrison of the fortress numbered from eight to ten thousand

men, the works were of the strongest kind, and most admirably mounted, and the sunken obstructions were of the most formidable character. Great mortality prevailed among the Brazilian soldiery, about one hundred and fifty dying per day, principally from starvation, in consequence of the mismanagement of the commissary department.

In a note of November 20th, the President of Paraguay complained to the President of the Argentine Republic of the bad treatment which Paraguayan prisoners received at the hands of the allies, who, he asserted, had been compelled to enlist in the allied army, and had even been reduced to slavery in Brazil. To this note, Gen. Mitre replied on November 25th, denying the charges made by President Lopez and the Brazilian Minister of War, by a note dated December 22d, annexed to the answer of Gen. Mitre.

PENNSYLVANIA. The number of troops furnished by this State to the Federal Government during the war, exclusive of militia and seamen and marines for the navy, was, in 1861, 130,594; in 1862, 71,100; in 1863, 43,046; in 1864, 91,704; in 1865, 25,840—a total of 362,284. Of these very few remained in the service at the end of the year. Over 43,000 military commissions also were issued from this State during the continuance of hostilities. Arrangements were in progress, in accordance with an act of the Assembly, to collect materials for a complete history of the various State regiments. From the report of the Hon. T. H. Burrowes, under whose management was placed the system adopted by the State for the maintenance and education of soldiers' orphans, it appears that 1,846 applications for admission to the schools had been allowed, and that 1,242 orphans had been actually admitted. Gov. Curtin, in his message of January 31, 1866, speaking of these schools, says: "I have heretofore commended this charity to you, and I deem it unnecessary to add another word in asking a continuance of an appropriation which is to provide for and educate the best blood of the State."

Notwithstanding the large expenditures for military purposes since the outbreak of the war, the State debt was, on the 1st of December, 1865, less by \$402,939 than on the first of January, 1861, and the condition of the Treasury was \$2,555,579 better than at that time.

The balance in the Treasury November 30, 1864,	
was.....	\$1,942,208 63
Receipts during fiscal year ending November	
30, 1865.....	6,219,980 67

Total in Treasury for fiscal year ending No-	
vember 30, 1865.....	\$8,162,198 30
The payments for the same period were.....	5,793,525 16

Balance in Treasury November 30, 1865.....	\$2,378,663 14
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The operations of the sinking fund during the year ending on the first Monday of September, which reduced the State debt by \$745,811, were as follows:

Five per cent.....	\$436,824 62
Coupon loan.....	230,000 00
War loan.....	78,400 00
Interest certificates.....	2,008 64
Domestic creditors.....	578 00

The total debt on December 1, 1864, was \$39,879,603.94. The amount redeemed during the fiscal year ending November 30th was as follows:

Five per cent. stocks.....	\$1,708,517 88
Four and a half per cent. stocks.....	30,000 00
Domestic creditor certificates.....	578 00
Military loan, act of May 15, 1861.....	179,250 00

Total.....\$1,908,345 88

Making the total public debt on the 1st of December, 1865, \$37,476,258.06. The assets and liabilities of the State Treasury were as follows:

Bonds Pennsylvania Railroad Company.....	\$6,700,000 00
Bonds Philadelphia and Erie Railroad Co.....	8,500,000 00
Interest on bonds Philadelphia and Erie Railroad Co.....	1,050,000 00
Cash in Treasury.....	2,378,668 14

Total.....\$18,628,668 14

Liabilities in excess of assets.....\$23,852,589 92

Liabilities in excess of assets, Nov. 30, 1860.....\$26,408,168 94

Liabilities in excess of assets, Nov. 30, 1865.....23,852,589 92

Improvement in condition of Treasury since Nov. 30, 1860.....\$2,555,579 02

The extraordinary State expenditures growing out of the war, not refunded by the General Government, amounted to the sum of \$4,028,627.21. This included the direct tax not reimbursable, and the sum of \$671,476.43 paid to the militia called out on the 27th of June, 1863, which Gov. Curtin claimed as clearly due to the State from the General Government. The Governor gives the following history of this claim in his message of January 31, 1866:

At the time of the invasion of the North, in 1863, by the rebel army, the President made a requisition on me for militia to serve during the emergency. The men came forward promptly, to the number of 38,588, of whom upward of 25,000 refused to be mustered into the service of the United States, in consequence of circumstances of prior occurrence not necessary to be here stated.

In this embarrassment, the emergency being very pressing, after consultation with the President, he authorized and requested me to call them on behalf of the State, and for the defence of the State, the United States paying all the expenses of their clothing, equipment, subsistence, etc. It was, however, alleged that there was no appropriation for their pay. To remove this difficulty the General Government applied to banks and other moneyed corporations in Philadelphia, to advance the amount of the pay, on a pledge that, when Congress met, the passage of a bill to reimburse them should be recommended. These institutions declined this proposition, but expressed their willingness to make the advance if I would pledge myself to recommend to the Legislature the passage of such an act in case Congress should not provide for reimbursing them. Under these circumstances, I received from the Executive of the United States the pledge which he had proposed to give to the banks, etc., and upon that I gave the necessary pledge to them, and they advanced the required funds accordingly.

When Congress met, the Executive of the United States did not recommend the passage of the necessary act. I have understood that the subject was called to the attention of the proper committee by the Secretary of War, but, as the President did not

send a message explaining the circumstances of the case, the appropriation failed, as the members of Congress had thus no means of explaining to their constituents the difference between this case (which was in substance a loan to the United States, upon the pledge of the Executive for its repayment), and the case of the voluntary expenditure of money for military purposes by Pennsylvania and most of the other States.

I will add, that the men came into the service for the emergency only, and on the faith that they should be discharged as soon as, in my judgment, the emergency should have ceased. The emergency ceased immediately after the battle of Gettysburg, which commenced on the 1st of July, 1863; yet the men, against my urgent and repeated remonstrances, were kept in the service long afterwards, and used by the United States for various purposes. The last of them were not discharged till in September.

I recommend that the Legislature adopt measures to bring the subject again before Congress, and obtain repayment of this sum, amounting to \$671,476.43, with interest on the same, which the General Government has thus far so unwarrantably withheld.

The total number of common schools in the State was 12,960. The whole number of teachers was 15,593, and of pupils of 703,930, at an average cost for each pupil per month of 68 cents. The total cost of the common school system in the State, including taxes levied, the amount paid by the city of Philadelphia, and the State appropriation, was \$3,614,239. In Philadelphia there were 376 free schools, 74,343 pupils, with an average attendance of 86½ per cent., 84 male teachers and 1,194 female teachers. The State Superintendent, in his annual report, expresses the opinion that it would promote the cause of general education to have all the educational interests in the State, including colleges, seminaries, and academies, brought within the scope of legislative authority, and to have all the chartered institutions placed "to a certain extent" under the control of the School Department. He also urged the propriety of lessening the number of the higher institutions, and thereby increasing the endowments and income of those that remains. He says that by their multiplicity they are crippled in their operations, many of them being in want of adequate apparatus, furniture, libraries, and cabinets, while some of them suffer for lack of patronage. He recommends also that more ground should be allotted to schools, so as to afford abundant room for exercise and play, and that the location of schools should, if possible, be where the scenery would attract the eye and favor the cultivation of a taste for the beautiful.

The Union State Convention assembled at Harrisburg on the 17th of August, and adopted a series of resolutions—recognizing the services of the soldiers and sailors who had shown that the war for the restoration of the Union was not a "failure;" expressive of reverence for the memory of Abraham Lincoln, and of a determination to support "his fellow-patriot and successor" Andrew Johnson; asserting "that the mild and generous method of reconstruction offered by the President to the people lately in rebellion, in the judgment of this convention, has not been accepted in the spirit of

honest loyalty and gratitude, but with such evidence of defiance and hostility as to impel us to the conviction that they cannot safely be intrusted with the political rights which they forfeited by their treason, until they have proven their acceptance of the results of the war by incorporating them in constitutional provisions, and securing to all men within their borders their inalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness;" urging that the rebellious States, having been conquered, should be held in subjection, and that the treatment they should receive, as well as the laws which should govern them, "should be referred to the law-making power of the nation, to which it legitimately belongs;" recommending that the property-holders of the South should be compelled to pay the expenses of the war, and "that Congress should declare as forfeited and vested in the Government, the property of all rebels whose estates exceed the sum of ten thousand dollars, and that the proceeds of the property so confiscated should be applied to increase the pensions of those entitled thereto by the casualties of the war, to pay the damages done by the enemy to loyal citizens, and to reduce the burden of the national debt;" advising such a revision of the revenue laws as would insure increased protection to American industry; asserting any attempt by foreign nations to establish monarchical government on the American continent to be evidence of a design to destroy republican institutions; in favor of the payment of the full Federal bounty to all honorably discharged soldiers; commending and thanking Edwin M. Stanton and his colleagues in the cabinet for their "services in the cause of liberty and law;" thanking Gov. Curtin for his devotion "to the best interests of the State and nation during the last four years;" recognizing the claims of the citizen soldiers to confidence and gratitude, and recommending that especial regard be paid to their deserts in nominations for offices. The twelfth and last resolution accused the Democratic party of having constantly obstructed the efforts of the constituted authorities to maintain the life of the Republic—

By inflaming the passions of their ignorant followers against the legally elected officers of the Federal Government, and refraining from all reproach against treason or armed traitors:

By procuring a decision from the Democratic judges of our Supreme Court, denying the right of the Government to the services of the citizens of this State for the defence of their imperilled country:

By discouraging men from volunteering into the armies of the Union; thus rendering it necessary to succumb to treason, or to pay large bounties, and so burdening every ward, township, and borough in the State with debt to fill the ranks of our armies:

By opposing the enlistment of negroes for our defence, although one white man less was required for every black one who could be enlisted, and this at the very moment when the battle of Gettysburg was raging on the soil of Pennsylvania, and the result of that decisive battle was uncertain:

By denying to our soldiers the right to vote while fighting for the flag of our fathers, on the plea that

such rights were not allowed by our Constitution, and by opposing an amendment which removed their objections, and relieved our brave soldiers from disability:

By exaggerating the public indebtedness, denying the public credit, and teaching that the financial resources of the North were unequal to the suppression of the rebellion:

By a shameful opposition to measures for extending relief to the families of Union soldiers, and by a malignant effort by these means to secure the success of the rebels in the field, or such a protraction of the war as would exhaust the nation in its effort to subdue their friends:

By now heaping abuse upon the Government for punishing assassins and their accomplices; by demanding the release of leading traitors, by frowning down all attempts to bring to punishment the fiends who starved our soldiers, and by assuring rebels that neither in person nor property shall they be punished for their crimes:

And if any thing were wanting to complete their infamy, we have it in their determined opposition to free labor, and to a tariff which, while it would make labor profitable by protecting the workmen of Pennsylvania from British competition, would largely increase the revenue essential to the maintenance of the public faith and credit.

The Democratic State Convention assembled also at Harrisburg on the 24th of August. The preamble to the resolutions asserted that the men and the party who had administered the Government since 1861, had "betrayed their trust, violated their sacred obligations, disregarded the commands of the fundamental law, corruptly squandered the public money, denied justice to the people, perverted the whole Government from its original purpose, and thereby brought untold calamities upon the country. Twelve resolutions were adopted, asserting that the Democratic party was, and always had been, faithful to the Union of the States, and while opposing secession with all its influence, had been without sympathy with that party in the North which pronounced the Constitution a "covenant with death and an agreement with hell;" asserting that if the counsels of the Democratic party had prevailed, "the Union would have been saved in all its honor and integrity, without the slaughter, debt, and disgrace of a civil war;" asserting that the Constitution is entitled to unqualified respect and obedience, and that "the oath to support it is binding, religiously, morally, and legally, at all times, under all circumstances, and in every part of the country," and that it is "only by a strict enforcement of its obligations in all the States, that we can hope for union, liberty, or peace;" claiming that among the rights guaranteed by the Constitution are, "a free press, freedom from arbitrary arrest and illegal imprisonment, trial by jury, the writ of *habeas corpus*, the perfect immunity of all persons not in the army or navy from any species of punishment for crime or pretended crime which is not the legal consequence of a legal conviction by an impartial jury, the absolute subordination of all military power to the civil authority, and the privilege of white citizens to vote at the State elections according to the laws of the State;" concurring with President Johnson in the con-

viction that, "the Federal Government is sovereign within its proper sphere—that it acts not through or upon the States, but directly upon individuals—that the States could not absolve the people from their Federal obligations—that the State ordinances of secession were nullities, and therefore, when the attempted revolution came to an end by the submission of the insurgents, the States were as much a part of the Union as they had been before;" asserting that the effort making by certain persons "to use the power of the General Government with a view to force negro suffrage on the States against the will of the people, and contrary to existing laws, is not only a high crime against the Constitution, but a deliberate and wicked attempt to put the States of this Union—all of them more or less and some of them entirely—under the domination of negroes, to Africanize a large portion of the country, and degrade the white race, morally and socially, as well as politically, to the low level of the black;" pledging the party to support President Johnson's reconstruction policy, "in the belief that he will execute the law, the whole law, and nothing but the law, in all parts of the country—that he will not allow the military to interfere with State elections—that he will punish kidnapping and robbery through the legal authorities, whether committed by Federal officers or private citizens, and that he will suffer no person to be murdered by military commission;" urging—in view of the enormous national debt, and the great weight of State and local taxes—retrenchment and economy, the disbanding of the army, and the reduction of the navy; recommending such a revision of the revenue laws as to make taxation equal and just; expressing gratitude to the soldiers of the republic, but repelling the assertion "that they fought and bled and died mainly for the freedom of the negro" as a "gross insult on their patriotism;" recognizing "the noble manner in which the Democratic press of this Commonwealth have contended for the liberties of the nation;" and reaffirming adherence to the Monroe doctrine.

The election took place on the 10th of October, and resulted in the success of the Union nominees, General Hartranft, the candidate for Auditor-General, receiving 238,400 votes, which gave him a majority of 22,660 over his opponent, Colonel W. W. H. Davis.

At a meeting of colored men, held in Philadelphia, on the 17th of July, to take into consideration the question of negro suffrage, the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the apparent anxiety to preserve the ballot-box from the influence of the ignorance of the colored man is proved, by the class of men invited and urged to the polls at every election, to be but a hypocritical and malignant subterfuge.

Resolved, That the objection that, if enfranchised, the freedmen of the South will permit themselves to be used by their former oppressors, can only be founded on the fallacious presumption that he can be made to do, now that he is free, what he could not be forced to do when a slave.

PERSIA, a country in Asia. It is bounded on the west by Asiatic Turkey, on the north by the Russian Government of Trans-Caucasia, the Caspian Sea, and the Desert of Khiva, on the east by Afghanistan and Beloochistan, and on the south by the Arabian Sea and the Persian Gulf. The sovereign ("Shah") of Persia is an absolute and uncontrolled monarch. Present Shah, Nasser-eh-Din, born in 1829, succeeded his father, Mohammed-Shah, in 1848; heir apparent, Mouzaffer-eh-Din-Mirza. The ministry was, in 1865, composed of Mirza-Mohammed-Khan (War and Presidency of the Ministry); Mirza-Said-Khan (Interior); Mirza-Yusuf (Finances). The diplomatic corps at Teheran consists of ministers plenipotentiary of France, England, Russia, and Turkey.

The army numbers at present ninety regiments or battalions of regular infantry, at 800 men each; fifty-three squadrons of regular cavalry, at 500 men each; 5,000 men, artillery, and 200 men, light artillery, and 30,000 cavalry.

It is difficult to ascertain the number of inhabitants, as no lists of births and deaths are kept, and no complete census has ever been taken. In 1859 the Shah ordered a census to be taken, but it was found impossible to carry it through, against the persistent opposition which was everywhere made to it from religious prejudices. The number of the nomadic population can, however, easily be estimated, as their chief ("Ilkhani") knows exactly the number of tents of his tribe. They number a little over 3,000,000. The population is about 10,000,000.

According to descent, the population consists of aborigines (Persians and Medes), Tartars, Turks, Koords, Arabs, Armenians, Nestorians, Jews, descendants of Turcomanni, Russians, and Poles. The Koords, who, in their physical constitution, show a great similarity to the Germans, and speak their own language (which belongs to the Iranic family of languages), are governed by a Governor ("Wali"), who is appointed by the Shah, though the dignity is hereditary in a family, which claims to descend from the house of the Sassanides. The number of the Armenians, as well as their former riches and commerce, have more recently been greatly reduced. Tatus Khan, the Armenian Bishop of Ispahan, assured Dr. Polak,* that the population of his diocese, which extends from Java and India to Kaslan Kuh in Persia, amounted to only 20,000; to these are to be added a small number of Roman Catholic Armenians and a few hundred families in Tabris and the neighborhood, belonging to the diocese of Uch Miazin. Ispahan has at present the largest

* Polak, *Persien, Das Land und seine Bewohner* (Leipzig, 1863, 2 vols.). The author of this work, from which the information given in this article has been chiefly derived, was one of six Austrians who, upon the invitation of the Persian Government, went in 1851 to Teheran to establish a military and a medical school. He also became the court physician of the Shah. He published at Teheran several works in the Persian language; as *Manuals of "Anatomy" (1864); "Surgery" (1867)*. Some of his pupils were sent to Paris, where they graduated and published medical treatises. (See vol. I. p. 811.)

Armenian population of any Persian town; still the number of families does hardly exceed 400, instead of the 12,000 which lived there formerly. With the exception of a few merchants in Tabris, the congregations are very poor, and living upon poor agriculture and manufacture of wine. They suffer greatly from the despotic and arbitrary acts of the Governors, although they are at present enjoying in some respects the protection of Russia. To this external oppression are frequently added serious troubles between those Armenians which have joined the Roman Catholic Church (United Armenians) and those which adhere to the old Armenian Church (Non-United Armenians). In consequence of their unfavorable situation in Persia, emigration to Russia and India is becoming frequent, especially among the younger generation. From India, the Armenians of Persia are already receiving large sums for the support of their churches and their poor.*

Among the Nestorians, Romans Catholic and American Protestant (of the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions) missionaries have been laboring for many years. Both have established churches and schools. The Shah, in 1866, granted to the friends of the Protestant missionaries a new site for a church, and subscribed himself £100 for its erection. The English ambassador also subscribed £50, and the Shah also appointed General Gehangir Khan, an Armenian, to represent the interests of the Protestant Nestorian community.

The Jews were very numerous and powerful in southern Persia in the times of the Sassanids, and ever since the beginning of the Mohammedan rule. But oppression and persecution have reduced their number to such an extent that, as a learned Jewish Mula (rabbi) assured Dr. Polak, they are now estimated at only about 2,000. They constitute three large congregations in Shiraz, Ispahan, and Kashan, and smaller ones in Teheran, Demavend, Balafush, and Kazeran. The Persian Jews are allowed to live in polygamy, but actual cases of polygamy are rare, on account of their extreme poverty. They still have to-day the capitation tax which was imposed upon the Jews by Mohammed. The continuous persecution induced most of the Jews to emigrate to Turkey and the Eastern countries, although the Government tried to prevent emigration in every possible way. In 1865 Sir Moses Montefiore, of England, made efforts to relieve his coreligionists in Persia from the tyranny under which they were groaning. The British minister in Teheran received the assurance that the Jewish subjects of the Shah should be no longer oppressed. In Persia, Jews are always engaged in the mint, and many of them are celebrated as physicians. The Persian Jews still continue to make pilgrimages to the tomb of Esther, in Hamadais (the ancient

Ecbatana), their only national monument. The Parsees, or, as they call themselves, Zerdush-tee, still live in small numbers in the towns of Yezd and Kerman. The wealthier Parsees, in India, annually send them large sums of money, in order to satisfy the extortion of the Governors; for they desire that a small remnant of the adherents of Zoroaster remain in their native land and preserve the holy fire. A delegate, the Manookishee Sahib, was sent by them to Teheran, to obtain the permission to pay the taxes for the Persian Parsees, and to establish an educational institution. The Persian Government refused both requests; the former because it was regarded as an infringement upon the sovereignty of the Shah, the second on the ground that it could not grant permission for the establishment of an idolatrous institution. The Parsee merchants and agriculturists enjoy the reputation of industry, perseverance, and honesty. They conduct the commerce with India. Among themselves they still use the old Persian language. Their priests are called Mabeds. Although the Shah is of a different religion, they regard him as their legitimate ruler, and reverence him as the successor of Kaos and Djemshid. Their numbers amount to about 8,000 or 9,000.

The number of European residents in Persia is very small. They comprise a limited number of merchants (Frenchmen, Greeks, Germans, Swiss, and Russians), a few military officers, physicians, and mechanics. They live mostly in Tabris and Teheran.

The art of printing was introduced into Persia at the beginning of the nineteenth century, by the Prince Abbaz Mirza Nayibe-Sultaneh. But the Persians have never learned to appreciate it, and the number of books printed is very small. A great extension, on the other hand, has been given to lithography. Every large town has one or several lithographic institutions, in which a considerable number of dictionaries, historical and poetical works, treatises of a religious character, etc., have been lithographed. Libraries are very rare; the royal collection of Persian and Arabic works embraces no more than 800 manuscripts and a few printed European books. The largest library of Persia, that of Ardebil, has been carried off by the Russians to St. Petersburg, where, it is said, now the most beautiful Persian and Arabic manuscripts are to be found.

For several years a lithographed official weekly newspaper has been published at Teheran, at an annual subscription price of two and a half ducats. In its first part the paper gives court news, distinctions, appointments. The name of the Shah is always accompanied by some titles, and prayers for the preservation of his life. Next follow reports from the provinces, generally to the effect, that "owing to the justice and circumspection of the Governor, the 'rayet' (subjects) enjoy undisturbed happiness," that "impartiality and justice prevail at the raising of taxes; that the ways and bridges

* The Gotha Almanac for 1866 estimates the number of Armenians as high as 200,000, and that of the Nestorians at 100,000.

are in a good condition." Stories of miraculous cures, etc., fill the remainder of the space. In case of scarcity of material, one page is left blank, or European news is taken from the Turkish journal in Constantinople. At the time when England and Persia had fallen out, the *Teheran Gazette* had frequently polemical articles and manifestoes against England. The Persian Government at the same time used the "*Journal de Smyrne*" in the Persian interest.

The majority of the Persians, about 7,500,000, are Mohammedans of the sect of the Sheah. The Sunnites live especially in Koordistan near the Persian Gulf, in Talish near the Caspian Sea, and number altogether about 1,500,000 souls. The sect of the Sheikhi does not differ much from the Sheah. Their system treats especially of subtle details concerning the form of existence of the Imam Meihdi, who, they believe, will make his appearance on the day of resurrection. Under the name of Ali Allah all those sects are comprised who believe in the incarnation of Ali, regarding him either as a direct incarnation of God, or as an indirect one through Abraham, Moses, David, and Jesus Christ. They deny the validity of the Koran, do not perform the "prayer," and do not observe the laws of purification and of food. Their chief seat is at and near Kermanshah, where their ecclesiastical chief resides. Scattered, they live in all parts of the country. One branch, Davoodi, occupies the region around Kasooiin, and the villages which lie near Resht.

Of more recent origin is the sect of the Bábis,* whose history forms one of the most interesting episodes both of the modern history of Persia and the recent history of Mohammedanism. The sect is named after their founder, who called himself "Báb-eddin" ("the Gate of Faith"). His first public appearance was in the year 1848. He was at that time a young man, bearing the name Mirza Ali Mohammed. Earnestly inquiring after truth and religious progress, the young man made a pilgrimage from Shiraz, his native town, to Mecca, which led him to renounce the prevailing form of Islamism. Soon he felt a vocation to bring about a thorough reform of Mohammedanism, or rather to establish a new religion out of a mixture of Mohammedan, Christian, Jewish, and Parsee views. The rare gifts, and especially the great eloquence of the pious enthusiast, soon attracted disciples from all sides. Among

* The first thorough work on the history and the origin of the Bábis has just been published by Count de Gobineau, under the title *Les Religions et Philosophies dans l'Asie Centrale* (Paris 1866). The author was formerly French minister in Teheran. Before him but little had been published in Europe concerning the Bábis. (See *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländ. Gesellschaft*, vol. v.; *Petermann, Reisen im Orient*, vol. II.; Polak, *Persien*, vol. I., pp. 350-354.) Count Gobineau, in an introduction to his work, treats at length of the religious and moral character of the Asiatics, of Persian Mohammedanism, on the origin and the substance of the Sheah, on Sufism, on the influence of European ideas in Persia, etc. The history of the Bábis is followed by treatises on their doctrines (a kind of Unitarianism), on the theatre in Persia, and, as a concluding appendix, he gives the sacred book of the Bábis, "The Book of Precepts."

them was the most learned woman of Persia, to whom the name Gurrat-el-Ain ("Delight of the Eye") was given, and who subsequently with numerous other followers suffered death for her faith. Some of the most zealous disciples of the Báb, or, as his followers called him, the "Hezret-e-Ala" ("Elevated Highness"), were sent out as Dai (apostles) to different parts of Persia, and even to the capital, Teheran. The leader of these apostles applied the work of the ingenious mystic to the dangerous field of politics. The Báb did not oppose these schemes of the apostles (eighteen in number), although it was not in accordance with his own character and original designs. He thus became involved in the sad fate which his followers brought upon themselves by a rising against the lawful authorities of the country. After a two years' imprisonment, during which he composed numerous writings, he was put to death in a horrible manner. His death, however, did not put an end to the sect, which, on the contrary, continued to gain numerous adherents in all parts of the country, until a plot against the life of the Shah called forth a war of extermination against them. But the general opinion of those best acquainted with Persian affairs is, that Bábism is not yet extinct, but still has large numbers of followers.

PERU, a republic in South America. Provisional President (Dictator) since November 1865, Gen. Prado. Congress is composed of a Senate (two members for every department), and Chamber of Deputies (one Deputy for every 20,000 inhabitants). In 1864 the Senate was composed of 36, and the Chamber of Deputies of 86 members. Area 508,986 square miles; and the population in 1860, 2,865,000.

The Government having hypothecated the receipts from the sale of guano for the years 1865 and 1866, the revenue for these years consisted exclusively of the receipts from duties. The latter amounted, in 1863, to \$3,511,669; and in 1864, to \$2,835,981. The public debt amounted on December 31, 1864, to \$32,399,939.

The fleet which Peru, at the beginning of the year 1865, opposed to that of Spain, was composed of the following steamers: Callao, 30 cannon (68-pounders); Amazonas, 36 cannon (68 and 32-pounders); Chalaco, four cannon (68-pounders); Lersundi, two cannon (68-pounders); Tumbes, four cannon (32-pounders); Chancamaya, 2 cannon (32-pounders); two iron-clads, Loa, with two cannon (100-pounders), and the monitor Victoria, with two cannon (68-pounders); finally one brig carrying 12 rifled guns (16-pounders); together nine vessels, carrying 94 cannon. The army, in 1864, was composed as follows:

Infantry	8,400
Cavalry	1,200
Artillery	1,000
Total	10,600
Genesdarmes	5,408

The imports were estimated, in the year 1861, at \$32,000,000, and the exports at

\$80,000,000. In 1862 the imports were valued at \$27,160,000, and the exports at \$32,900,000. The exports, in 1863, amounted to \$33,522,174. The shipments of guano, in 1862, amounted to 304,662 tons, at 2,240 pounds each, at an average price of \$40 a ton. The movement of shipping, in the port of Callao, was in 1862 1,207 vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 690,512, not including 129 English mail steamers, having together 106,119 tons. The merchant navy numbered, in 1861, 110 vessels, of 24,284 tons.

A source of immense wealth to Peru are the Guano or Chinch Islands. These islands, among the smallest and (for their size) richest in the known world, are situate in latitude 18° 40' south, and longitude 76° 28' west of Greenwich, lying about 12 miles from the little seaport town of Pisco, on the Peruvian coast. Their extent, superficially, does not exceed two and a half square miles, the northern isle being the largest, the middle somewhat less, and the southern the smallest of the three; they have, however (notwithstanding their diminutive size), for years past supplied cargoes of guano to an average of four hundred ships per annum, with a freightage of not less than \$9,000,000, the value of such cargoes in Europe being upwards of \$30,000,000 in gold. They are, moreover, more densely populated than any others of like extent, having upwards of 2,000 residents, about 600 of whom are Chinese laborers in the employment of the Government contractor for the loading of the shipping. There are on the north island several stores belonging to Europeans and Americans, from which the shipping can obtain almost all they require. The water and meat supply is obtained from Paraca Bay and Pisco respectively; the former by water launches owned by private hands, the latter by regular Pisco traders who bring the cattle over to the islands daily, where they are killed as required; fruit and vegetables find their way through a similar channel.

Before the war with Spain, the British vice-consul for Pisco resided on the north island, and the Peruvian Government was represented by an acting governor and staff of officials, a captain of the port, and with some forty soldiers, who acted in the double capacity of police and military men. The health of the islands as a rule is good; but during the summer months dysentery prevails, and sometimes assumes a very grave form. The medical profession, in 1865, was represented by one native of Ecuador; upon the staff one German, an old resident; one American, who had charge of the hospital provided for the sick Chinamen; and one Englishman, who was not really a resident, as he lived afloat, and practised only amongst the shipping. The Pacific Steam Navigation Company's steamers used to call at the islands twice a week, and the mails arrived and were despatched twice a month.

The Government of Peru has for some years been making endeavors to encourage foreign immigration, but thus far with only moderate

success. It is reported, however, that the German colony in the Pozuzu, established in 1857, is promising now the most flattering results. The Pozuzu is situated on the highway, destined to lead from Lima or from the Pacific Ocean to the rich countries of the Amazonas. The German settlement, although small in number of colonists, is already yielding rich crops of coffee, vanilla, etc., which are exported from the Montafia to the mining-district Cerro de Pasco.

The beginning of the year 1865 found Peru in war with Spain. On December 29, 1864, Gen. M. J. Vivanco had been despatched by President Pezet to the Chinch Islands, to negotiate with the Spanish admiral about the conclusion of peace. These negotiations not leading to a settlement of the difficulty, Vice-Admiral Pareja appeared on January 28, 1865, with his squadron before the port of Callao, and presented an ultimatum. This was accepted by Gen. Pezet, and on January 27th a treaty of peace was signed by Gen. Vivanco on the part of Peru, and by Vice-Admiral Pareja on the part of Spain.

The substance of this treaty is as follows:

ART. 1. The Spanish Government having disapproved the occupation by its agents of the Chinch Islands on the title of "revindication," and the Government of Peru having promptly disapproved the acts of violence attempted against the Spanish commissioner at Panama, the chief obstacle to the evacuation of the Chinch Islands is removed, and they therefore shall be evacuated by the naval forces of Spain, and surrendered to the person whom the Government of Peru may appoint.

ART. 2. The Government of Peru will accredit a minister near the Government of Spain.

ART. 3. As the Government of Spain, in its diplomatic circulars of June 24 and November 8, 1864, has declared that the title of Special Commissioner does not affect the right of Peru to its independence; the Government of Peru will receive at Lima a "Special Commissioner" of Spain, charged with investigating the occurrence of Talambo.*

ART. 4. Peru will give to its minister in Spain full power to negotiate and conclude a treaty of peace, amity, navigation, and commerce.

ART. 5. In this treaty shall at the same time be established the basis for the liquidation, recognition, and payment of the amount which Peru, on account of sequester, confiscation, loan of the war of independence, or from any other motive, owes to subjects of Spain.

ART. 6. The liquidation and recognition mentioned in the preceding article, shall be made in virtue of documented, authentic, and official proofs.

ART. 7. In doubtful cases, the sum claimed shall be fixed by a committee of six members, three to be appointed by each of the contracting parties.

ART. 8. Peru shall pay to Spain an indemnification of 8,000,000 pesos, to cover the expenses incurred by Spain since the refusal of Peru to treat with Spain about the conclusion of peace.

The Peruvian Government approved and published the arrangement which had been concluded on the 2d of February. The next day the mutual salute of the Spanish and Peruvian flags took place, and a Spanish ship departed for the islands, to put them in the hands of the authorities named for that purpose by the Peruvian Government. On February 5th, a part of the

* See ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864, p. 633.

Spanish crews landed at Callao, with the object of refreshing themselves, and some struggle ensued between them and the people. An exaggerated account of these events produced some excitement in Lima, which soon abated, however, and tranquillity was restored. Nevertheless, some rumors of a conspiracy were afloat, and even some imprisonments took place, the most important of which was that of the ex-President Don Ramon Castilla. The members of the South American Congress, which had been assembled in Lima after the middle of November, 1864, declared that the restoration of the Chincha Islands to Peru, satisfied the chief interest which their Governments had in the conflict.

It was soon found that there was a great deal of dissatisfaction with the conduct of the Government in all parts of the republic. On February 28th, a revolution broke out in the Southern portion of Peru. The Governor of Arequipa, Colonel J. M. Prado, made a *pronunciamiento*, declaring that the President, by concluding peace with Spain, had made himself unworthy of being any longer the chief of the republic. All the cities and towns of the four departments of Arequipa, Moquegua, Puno, and Cuzco declared for a change of Government. General Bustamante was appointed commander of the forces. New prefects of the provinces and cities were nominated. Perfect order was maintained, and there was no interference with trade. In Lima Vice-President Canseco was suspected of favoring the movement, and sought refuge at the Legation of the United States. This circumstance led to some difficulty between the United States minister and the Peruvian Governor, but the matter was compromised by Gen. Canseco being requested to leave, and in consideration of his going out of the country the Government was reported to have given him fifteen thousand dollars. Soon the revolutionary movement spread in the northern provinces also. Mass meetings were held which declared President Pezet a traitor, and called on Vice-President Canseco to assume the reins of the Government. Col. A. Noya was elected commander of the revolutionary forces of the North.

On May 8th, the Government forces expelled the revolutionists from the town of Arica. In consequence of this loss, the revolutionists retired from the coast, but only in order to re-enforce the strong body of troops with which Gen. Prado was marching upon Lima. To prevent communications coastwise, as also to prohibit supplies from Bolivia or Chili to Col. Prado, the Government declared the ports of Islay and Quilca blockaded, and official intimation of this was made to the representatives of the different Governments in Lima. Subsequently, the port of Pisco was included in the blockade.

On the night of June 24th a mutiny broke out on board the Amazonas, the flag-ship, whilst blockading the port of Arica, resulting in the death of Admiral Panizo and other officers, and

the capture of the ship by the mutineers. The Amazonas afterwards proceeded to Pisco, where the sloop-of-war America, lately brought from Europe, was at anchor, and signaled to the captain to come on board, which he did, and was immediately made prisoner. The America was then ordered to surrender, which was done, the crew yielding without the least resistance. A small steamer, the Tumbes, which was cruising off Islay, was also captured by the rebels.

On July 5th a fight took place about six miles from Lima, between 12,000 revolutionists and 6,000 Government troops. The former suffered a severe loss, but on the next day, July 6th, they appeared before the gates of Lima, and met with little resistance till they reached the principal Plaza, where the palace was held by the troop of Celadores, who fought till all were shot. The palace was fired, and narrowly escaped destruction. The Minister of War, Col. Cuba, who was in charge of Fort Santa Catalina, surrendered on the 7th. Gen. Pezet fled on board the British war-steamer Shearwater in Callao Bay, and Gen. Canseco assumed the Presidency. The whole country, without delay, adhered to the new Government. At Callao, the second town of the republic, Gen. Rivas abandoned his post during the night, leaving the town without protection. This led to grave disorders. An excited mob divided itself into bands and robbed and plundered during the night. Every principal store or shop stood open and empty, having been completely gutted. All property not removable was smashed to pieces. The new Government being known to be entirely anti-Spanish, a large number of Spanish residents at Lima deemed it safest to take refuge on board the Spanish iron-clad Numancia.

Gen. Canseco removed the friends of the fallen President from all public offices, supplanting them by leading members of the revolutionary party. The ex-President was branded as a "traitor and assassin," and a note was passed to the British Chargé d'Affaires in Lima, to request his being given up from under the British flag, that he might be brought to condign punishment. The British vessel, however, which had the ex-President on board, had sailed the evening before the note was despatched.

Peace seemed to be fully restored, but the rule of Canseco, nevertheless, lasted only until November 26th. On that day a public meeting was held at Lima, for the consideration of the state of the country and the state of the Spanish question. The result of this meeting was that Gen. Prado, the revolutionary general, was declared "Dictator," for the salvation of the national honor. The leading men of the revolution pledged themselves to him, as also a large number of citizens, placing the country under his entire charge, with the sole condition that, as soon as possible, he would call together a Congress. The new change in the Government was adopted

by the entire nation without a show of resistance. A solitary attempt, made in Arequipa, to bring about a rising in favor of President Pezet, was easily suppressed. The Dictator inaugurated his administration by a series of wise and vigorous measures, which secured to him a more than ordinary confidence on the part of the population. He ordered a thorough investigation into the public treasury; taxes were levied on the produce of the country exported; silver, cotton, sugar, rice, tobacco, and salt-petre, being charged three per cent. *ad valorem* duty; forty cents per arroba on brandy, and fifty cents per gallon on rum. In order to make up the deficiency and to prevent an entire dependence upon the transient revenue of the guano trade, a general abolition of all privileges and pecuniary grants unlawfully accorded by former governments was decreed and carried into execution. Several bureaus and all unnecessary offices were suppressed. A central court of justice was appointed for the speedy trial and punishment of all persons belonging to the public service who might be guilty of treason, dishonesty in the discharge of their duties, or other crimes. Public schools were decreed, for the diffusion of education among the poorer classes.

The Government of Gen. Prado assumed at once a determined attitude with regard to Spain. Several vessels were detained in Callao, on suspicion that they were carrying provisions and implements of war to the Spaniards, and the attitude of the Government left no doubt that it would repudiate the treaty of January, and closely ally itself with Chili.

On December 5th the negotiations which the new Government of Peru had, immediately after its installation, entered into with Chili, terminated in the conclusion of an offensive and defensive alliance. It was agreed between Señor Pacheco, the Peruvian, and Señor Santa Maria, the Chilean commissioner, that the affair should not be made public until ratified by the Chilean Congress. The latter body lost no time in ratifying and approving the treaty (December 30th), and consequently war was proclaimed by Peru against Spain on the 14th of January, 1866.

The Dictator announced the important decree to the nation by the following decree:

Mariano Ignacio Prado, Provisional Supreme Chief of the Republic.

In consideration, That Peru, independently from the special reasons which she has for demanding from the Government of Spain the reparation of grave offences which the latter has inflicted on her, has been obliged to consider, and considers as her own, the question which the latter Government has raised against Chili; and that in consequence thereof a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, has been signed, approved, and ratified between both Republics, with the object of saving each other mutually, and also America, from the unjust violent aggressions of Spain; I decree:

ART. 1. The Republic is declared to be in a state of war with the Government of Spain.

ART. 2. The Secretary of Foreign Relations will take care to communicate this declaration to all

friendly nations, with a corresponding manifest of reasons which have caused the same.

The Secretaries of State, each one in the Department that belongs to him, are charged with the execution of this decree and with the publication of the same with due solemnity.

Given at the Government House in Lima, the 14th of January, 1866. MARIANO I. PRADO.

The sum and substance of the treaty between Peru and Chili was as follows:

In the name of the Almighty God: The Republics of Peru and Chili, in view of the danger which threatens America, and of the violent aggression and unjust pretensions with which the Spanish Government has commenced to attack the dignity and sovereignty of both, have resolved to conclude a Treaty of Alliance, offensive and defensive, to which effect they have appointed as Plenipotentiaries *ad hoc*, on the part of Peru, the Secretary of Foreign Relations, D. Toribio Pacheco, and on the part of Chili, Sr. D. Domingo Santa Maria, who, after having found their respective Powers to be in due order, have proceeded to stipulate the following preliminary treaty:

ART. 1. The Republics of Peru and Chili form between them the closest offensive and defensive alliance for the purpose of repelling the actual aggression of the Spanish Government, as well as any other of the same Government, which has its object on attacking the independence, sovereignty, or democratic institutions of both republics, or of any other on the South American continent, or which originates in unjust claims that have been declared as such by both nations, are not made according to the principles of International Law, nor decided in the way this same law prescribes.

ART. 2. For the present, and by this Treaty, the Republics of Peru and Chili bind themselves to unite the naval forces which they have, or in future may have disposable, in order to attack with the same the Spanish maritime forces that are or may be found on the waters of the Pacific, blockading, as is actually the case, either the ports of one, or, as may happen, those of both of the above-mentioned Republics, or committing any other hostilities against Peru and Chili.

ART. 3. The naval forces of both Republics, may they be operating jointly or separately, as long as the present war lasts, which has been provoked by the Spanish Government, shall obey the government of that of the two Republics in whose waters said naval forces may be.

The officer of the highest rank, or in case there should be many of the same rank, the oldest one among them, who is in command of either of the combined squadrons, shall take the supreme command of both whenever said squadrons operate jointly.

The Government of both republics, however, shall be able to confer, by mutual agreement, the command of the squadrons, when they operate combinedly, on such native or foreign officer whom they may consider most competent.

ART. 4. Either one of the contracting Republics in whose waters the combined naval forces may be because of the actual war with the Spanish Government, shall pay all expenses of any kind whatever which the supplies of the squadron, or of one or more of the vessels thereof, may make necessary; but at the end of the war, both Republics shall appoint two commissioners, one for each party, who shall make a definitive settlement of the expenses incurred and duly proved, and shall charge to the account of each of the two one-half of the total sum that these expenses may amount to.

In the settlement of the partial expenses which each of the Republics may have paid for the supply of the squadron, or of one or more of its vessels, shall be taken account of and credited in her favor.

ART. 5. Both contracting parties bind themselves

to invite the other American nations to give their adherence to the present treaty.

ART. 6. The present treaty shall be ratified by the Governments of both Republics, and the ratifications exchanged in Lima within the term of forty days, or before if possible.

In witness whereof, the Plenipotentiaries of both Republics sign and seal the present treaty.

Dated in Lima, the fifth of December, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five.

D. PACHECA.

DOMINGO SANTA MARIA.

The promulgation of the order to prepare for war was received by the Peruvians with great enthusiasm. The naval squadron left at once to join the Chilean vessels. The combined squadron would consist of the following men-of-war: *Peruvian*—Appurimac, 60 guns (flag-ship), Amazonas,* 44 guns; America, 10 guns; Union, 10 guns. *Chilian*—Esmeralda, 32 guns; Mais-su, 8 guns; and Covodonga, 3 guns; making a total of 7 vessels, mounting together 167 rifled guns of heavy calibre.

PETROLEUM. The production of petroleum has been constant during the year, but not so large in quantity as had been anticipated. But the knowledge of the subject has increased, and the skill required in the extraction of the oil from the earth. The capital invested in the business was considerably above the amount needed, and some of it has received a poor return. The unusual success of the previous year had stimulated speculation, and led to the formation of eleven hundred companies, with an aggregate capital of six hundred million dollars. Of this amount of capital, probably not more than fifteen per cent., or ninety millions of dollars, was paid up, and a part of this was appropriated to the purchase of land. The total amount taken for consumption at New York and exported from New York, Boston, Philadelphia, etc., for the last three years, was as follows:

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Exported from New York, bbls..	438,690	568,894	877,163
Taken for consumption.....	814,481	943,187	941,161
Total New York.....	908,171	1,175,581	1,618,328
Boston exported.....	51,285	42,807	87,867
Philadelphia.....	184,898	194,008	807,678
Baltimore.....	22,896	28,949	25,608
Portland and elsewhere.....	8,562	1,769	8,737
Total, bbls.....	1,020,747	1,086,915	998,203

Thus the total export for the year was about 750,000 barrels. If this is regarded as about forty-seven per cent. of the total production, which is more than the usual average, it would make that production 1,500,000 barrels. The estimate of the Commissioners of Internal Revenue made the production about twelve thousand barrels daily.

In the commercial aspect, which is the only view taken to this time, the production, especially from wells yielding small quantities, has been much reduced in consequence of the

Federal tax, which has been so large as to render the working of these wells unprofitable.

The exports in detail from New York for the last four years, and the totals from the other ports of the country, have been as follows:

Export of Crude and Refined (including Naptha, etc.), from New York, for the years 1862 to 1865.

	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.
To Liverpool.....	1,781,877	2,156,861	784,755	1,561,997
London.....	1,188,899	2,576,861	1,480,710	876,998
Glasgow, etc.....	24,181	414,948	868,402	156,140
Bristol.....	71,912	71,912	90,124	110,419
Falmouth, E.....	626,176	816,402	506,815	102,492
Grangemouth, E.....	425,894	810,862	1,167,486	102,492
Cork, etc.....	299,356	1,382,257	87,164	57,164
Bowling, E.....	195	1,774,890	2,824,017	694,830
Havre.....	791,221	1,167,898	1,982,075	1,838,132
Marseilles.....	135,765	58,841
St. Nazaire & Ronen.....	4,800
Cette.....	200	232,808	110,699
Dunkirk.....	2,700	79,581
Dieppe.....	61,692	46,000
Antwerp.....	2,692,974	4,149,821	1,768,268
Bremen.....	628,090	908,004	971,905	281,083
Amsterdam.....	452,522	436	77,041
Hamburg.....	229,384	1,484,135	1,186,080	981,766
Rotterdam.....	16,988	757,249	562,926	292,560
Gottenburg.....	81,960	88,819
Cronstadt.....	88,060	400,376	890,889
Stettin.....	78,817
Cadiz and Malaga.....	38,284	56,474	97,732
Tarragona and Alicante.....	28,000	16,829	44,958
Barcelona.....	25,500	5,128
Gibraltar and Malta.....	157	308,450	89,181	72,742
Oporto.....	2,389	17,474	28,908
Naples and Palermo.....	3,990	57,115	7,968	22,615
Genoa and Leghorn.....	21,000	289,674	679,608	686,611
Trieste.....	3,000	165,175	66,871
Alexandria, Egypt.....	4,000
Lisbon.....	64,662	167,195	92,708
Canary Islands.....	1,295	5,125	8,868	5,244
Madeira.....	430	490
Bilboa.....	2,500	158,818
China & East Indies.....	3,970	36,942	34,828	42,170
Africa.....	655	12,230	25,105	17,690
Australia.....	233,622	804,165	877,884	785,881
Otago, N. Z.....	7,550	5,500	10,810	14,830
Sydney, N. S. W.....	118,750	48,013	97,880	162,982
Brazil.....	54,967	160,152	149,676	291,792
Mexico.....	18,616	69,481	112,986	194,986
Cuba.....	218,680	256,486	418,034	704,637
Argentine Republic.....	7,890	24,470	29,960	67,416
Chilapine Republic.....	18,217	117,626	78,523	72,823
Chili.....	17,898	66,550	92,550	16,328
Peru.....	56,011	256,407	169,067	110,840
British Honduras.....	440	6,072	2,003
British Guiana.....	9,296	15,104	7,881	5,890
British West Indies.....	18,888	60,281	70,976	108,641
British Nth American Colonies.....	2,943	16,995	25,062	104,080
Danish West Indies.....	4,102	31,503	8,468	10,947
Dutch West Indies.....	7,117	12,148	26,698	18,209
French West Indies.....	2,882	9,104	16,020	31,118
Hayti.....	4,856	12,064	7,088	12,696
Central America.....	1,764	456	908	5,694
Venezuela.....	1,094	15,458	28,588	29,734
New Grenada.....	37,058	107,587	57,490	58,570
Porto Rico.....	20,244	59,489	20,026	42,855
Total.....	6,720,218	19,547,604	21,882,754	14,832,189

Total Exports in 1862, 1863, 1864, and 1865:				
New York, gallons.....	6,720,218	19,547,604	21,882,754	14,832,189
Boston.....	1,071,700	2,049,481	1,096,907	1,428,978
Philadelphia.....	2,800,972	3,895,738	7,760,148	11,291,503
Baltimore.....	174,830	915,866	929,971	973,177
Portland.....	120,150	342,082	70,762	11,693
New Bedford.....	20,000
Cleveland.....	80,000	81,178

Total export from the United States.. 10,887,701 28,350,721 31,572,972 29,072,018

* Before a junction was effected, the Amazonas foundered, and was lost.

PETTIGREW, THOMAS J., M. D., an English medical writer, archæologist, and bibliographer, for many years librarian to the Duke of Sussex, born in 1794, died at South Kensington, London, November 23, 1865. In early life, after attaining his medical degree, he had served as a surgeon in the navy, in Nelson's squadron, and subsequently settled in practice in the vicinity of London; but being offered by the Duke of Sussex, whose physician he was, the post of librarian of his noble collection of books, he accepted it, still retaining his position as physician in ordinary to the duke. He devoted himself zealously to literature and bibliography in his new situation, publishing a "Life of Lord Nelson," "Memoirs of Eminent Physicians and Surgeons," and several other biographical works of great merit. He next turned his attention to archæology, and besides numerous papers on Oriental antiquities, published a curious volume on Egyptian mummies. Meantime he was not only faithful to the interests of his noble employer, in his duties as librarian, but expended much time and care in the compilation and perfection of that monument of patient industry, the "Bibliotheca Sussexiana," an admirable *catalogue raisonnée*, of a very extensive and remarkable collection of books, in three large octavo volumes. Since the death of his patron he had resided in South Kensington, and devoted himself exclusively to literary pursuits. He was a member of numerous learned societies, and a student of patient and indefatigable research.

PFANDER, CARL GOTTLIEB, D. D., an English missionary and author, born in Wurtemberg in 1803, died at Richmond, near London, December, 1865. He was educated for the missionary work in the Missionary Institution at Basle, Switzerland, during the years 1821-1825, when he was sent by the Evangelical Missionary Society of Basle to Russian Armenia, where he settled in the town of Shusha, and, with the aid of several able associates, undertook to introduce evangelical Christianity among the Armenians and Tartars. In 1828 their missionary work was expressly sanctioned by an imperial order for the countries between the Caspian and the Black Seas. In 1829-1831 he made a long missionary tour, in company with an English physician, Dr. Graves, through Persia, visiting Bagdad, and distributing many Bibles and tracts. In 1835 an imperial ukase put an end to all evangelical missionary labor throughout Russia; in consequence of this order all the Basle missionaries left Shusha and Shamakhy. It is well known, however, that these early labors are now producing a rich reward. There is a large number of evangelical Armenians on the borders of the Caspian Sea. In 1838 Dr. Pfander went to India, still in connection with the Basle Society. In 1840 he joined the "Church Missionary Society," and was sent to Agra, where he labored particularly for the Mohammedans. Several of them were converted through his labors and writings. Challenged by Mohammedans, he had frequent-

ly to consent to public disputations with their champions on the subject of religion. That his work among the Mohammedans was appreciated is shown by the fact that the friends of missions in India interested themselves in that work, and induced the Religious Tract Society of London to publish his controversial works in Persian and Hindustani. His two chief works are "The Balance of Truth," and "The Way of Life." He also wrote a treatise on the Trinity, and a reply to a Turkish book written against the "Balance of Truth." These writings are now published in Persian, Hindustani, Turkish, and Arabic, so that they reach the four great strongholds of Mohammedanism in the world, Persia, India, Turkey, and Arabia. The most important of all his works is the "Mizan-ul-Hakk," or "Balance of Truth," "a defence of Christianity against the objections of the Mussulmans, and an inquiry into and refutation of the claims of Mahometanism." In 1858, at the request of the Church Missionary Society, Dr. Pfander left India and took up his residence in Constantinople, where he continued to reside until just before his death.

PHILLIPS, WILLIAM WIRT, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman, born in Montgomery County, N. Y., September 23, 1796; died in New York City, March 20, 1865. From his early childhood he was of a thoughtful and religious turn of mind; and after his graduation at Union College in 1815, he entered the Theological Seminary of the Associate Reformed Church, New York, and subsequently the Theological Seminary of the Reformed Dutch Church at New Brunswick, N. J. After prosecuting a full course of study he was, in April, 1818, ordained as pastor of the Presbyterian church in Pearl Street, New York, now merged in the Central church, Broome Street. Here he continued a most acceptable and useful ministry for eight years, when he was transferred to the First Presbyterian church, then worshipping in Wall Street, but afterwards removed to Fifth Avenue, where he exercised his pastoral office until his death—his whole ministerial life occupying a period of forty-seven years.

While as a pastor he devoted himself to the edification of his especial charge, he was called to the performance of other public trusts, to the duties of which he attended with great fidelity and skill. He was a trustee of the College of New Jersey, Princeton, and both a trustee and director of the Theological Seminary at Princeton, and President of the latter Board. He was also a member of the Council of the New York University. Besides being repeatedly elected a member of the several other Boards of the Presbyterian Church, he was, from its organization in 1837, the chairman of the executive committee of the Board of Foreign Missions, and for several years past President of the Board. Making himself thoroughly familiar with its operations, the condition of its missions, and the name, character, and work of every missionary, he showed himself an

earnest and sagacious friend and promoter of that cause. He was frequently a member of the General Assembly, and in 1835 was its moderator. By the terms of their respective foundations he was *ex officio* a trustee of the Leake and Watts' Orphan Asylum, and of the Sailors' Snug Harbor, posts requiring no little time and labor. The degree of Doctor of Divinity was conferred upon Mr. Phillips by Columbia College while he was yet under thirty years of age.

POLAND. (*See* RUSSIA.)

PORTUGAL, a kingdom in Europe. Present King, Luis I., born October 31, 1838; succeeded his brother, King Pedro V., November 11, 1861. According to the Constitution ("carta de Ley") of April 29, 1826 (amended 1852), there are two Legislative Chambers, the Chamber of Peers and Chamber of Deputies. The former consisted, in 1865, of 115 members, named for life by the sovereign, hereditary membership having been abolished by the law of May 27, 1864. The Chamber of Deputies consists of 154 Deputies for continental Portugal, and 25 for Madeira and the Azores. The members are chosen in direct election, by all citizens possessing a clear annual income of at least 133 milreis, while the Deputies must have an income of at least 390 milreis. A new ministry was appointed on September 3, 1865, consisting of the following members: Antonio de Aguiar (Interior); Viscount de Castro (Foreign Affairs); Count Flores Novas (War); Bargaona Freitas (Justice and Ecclesiastical Affairs); Yontes (Finance); Viscount Praia Grande (Marine and Colonies); Serpo Pimentel (Commerce and Public Works). The Roman Catholic faith is the State religion; but all other forms of worship are tolerated. The number of Protestants, mostly foreigners, does not exceed 500. They have chapels in Lisbon and Oporto. The revenue was estimated in the budget for 1865-1866 at 20,732,357, and the expenditures at 21,021,480 milreis. There has been no budget for the last thirty years without a deficit. The total public debt (interior and exterior) amounted on June 30, 1864, to 185,117,511 milreis. The army numbered on June 30, 1865, 1,409 officers, 18,981 men, 2,115 horses, and 36 guns in the kingdom, and 10,236 men, with 13,834 reserve troops in the colonies. The navy, in 1865, was composed of 35 vessels, armed with 355 guns.

Portugal was formerly divided into the seven provinces of Minho, Tras-os-Montes, Upper Beira, Lower Beira, Estremadura, Alentejo, Algarve; and this division is still in common use, although it was officially supplanted in 1835 by a division into administrative districts. The kingdom proper embraces 36,510 square miles, and in 1863 3,987,861 inhabitants; to which must be added the Azores and Madeira, with 1,032 square miles, and 362,105 inhabitants. Total population of the kingdom and the isles, 4,349,966 (in 1861, 4,035,330). The population of the colonial possessions was as follows:

1. POSSESSIONS IN ASIA:	
Indian Settlements, Goa, Salceta, Bardes, etc.	363,736
Damao and Diu	44,593
Indian Archipelago	550,900
Macao	29,567
Total	1,258,433
2. POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA:	
Cape Verde Islands (fourteen, of which seven are inhabited)	35,460
Settlements in Senegambia	1,065
Islands of St. Thomas and Principe	12,250
Angola, Benguela, and Mossamides	2,000,600
Territory of Mozambique	300,000
Total	2,298,745
Total of Portuguese Colonies	3,657,238

The capital, Lisbon, has a population of 224,063 inhabitants; and Oporto 86,257 inhabitants.

The movement of commerce in 1861 was as follows: Imports, 26,634,919; exports, 14,833,187 milreis.

The movement of shipping in the same year was as follows:

FLAG.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Portuguese	6,734	451,048	6,677	430,630
Foreign	3,257	623,196	3,454	733,237
Total	9,991	1,069,244	10,131	1,153,867

On March 27th the batteries of the fort of Belem fired upon the American war-vessels Niagara and Sacramento, stationed at the mouth of the Tajo, because, in the opinion of the governor of the fort, they had violated the laws of neutrality. The American envoy, on April 7th, demanded as satisfaction that the governor of Belem be deposed and the American flag be saluted. The Portuguese Government granted both these demands.

The Chamber of Deputies which was elected in 1864 was dissolved in May, after a session of four months and a half. A new Chamber was elected in July, in which the ministry had a small majority. The Cortes were opened by the King on July 30th with a brief speech. The King stated that the mediation of Portugal between England and Brazil had produced a happy result. The financial condition of the country was satisfactory. Laws would be presented by the ministry relative to the Douro wine trade and the importation of cereals. The King also announced that a rigid law would shortly be brought forward for the final abolition of slavery in the Portuguese possessions. On August 25th, the candidate of the ministry was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies by 85 to 74 votes; but on August 29, the ministry (Sa da Bandeira) were defeated and resigned. On September 3d, the new ministry mentioned above was formed. Both the old and the new ministry belong to the Liberal party. The new represent a coalition between the Liberal majority of the Chamber of 1864 and the Progressista Opposition called Regenerators.

POTTER ALONZO, D. D., LL. D., an Episcopal clergyman and author, Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church for the Diocese of Pennsylvania, born in Beekman (now La Grange), Dutchess County, New York, July 10, 1800; died in San Francisco, California, July 4, 1865. His ancestors were among the early settlers of Portsmouth, Rhode Island, and his parents had removed to Dutchess County but a few years previous to his birth. He received his early school education at Poughkeepsie, under the tuition of the celebrated Daniel H. Barnes, and entered Union College, where he graduated in 1818 with the highest honors of his class, though one of its youngest members. In 1819 he was appointed tutor in Union College, and in 1821 elected Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. He had united with St. Peter's Protestant Episcopal Church in Philadelphia soon after his graduation, and having turned his attention to theology, was ordained deacon in 1821, and priest in 1824. In 1825 the corporation of Geneva (now Hobart) College elected him President of that institution, but he declined the honor. In 1826 he was called to the rectorship of St. Paul's Church, Boston, where he remained till 1831, and was successful in bringing the church up from a condition of almost hopeless depression to a commanding and influential position in the city. In 1831 he was recalled to Union College as Vice-President and Professor of Moral Philosophy. He had married the only daughter of President Nott, and that able educator, who appreciated his rare abilities, desired, after his nearly thirty years of severe labor as a college President, a vigorous and accomplished collaborator on whom he might devolve a portion of his own multifarious duties. For fourteen years Professor Potter filled this responsible position with great acceptance, winning with each year new honors, for his zealous and efficient labors in the promotion of education, not simply within the college walls, but in the wider sphere of the common schools, in the training of the Normal schools, and the elevating and ennobling influences of the Lowell Institute Lectures. In September, 1845, he was elected Bishop of the Diocese of Pennsylvania, and though he had twice previously declined the Episcopal dignity, he now, though with unfeigned reluctance, accepted it, relinquishing with sorrow his relations to the College in which more than half of his life had been passed, twenty-one years of it as an instructor, greatly to the grief of the friends of the institution, who had come to hope that in him they were to have an able successor to the learned and efficient President who for so many years had been at its head. Professor Potter's last official act in connection with the college was the delivery of an eloquent oration on its semi-centennial anniversary, July 22, 1845. Henceforth, though with scarcely abated zeal in the promotion of education in its widest sense, Bishop Potter devoted his best energies to the

performance of the duties connected with the Episcopal office. His labors were arduous and manifold; his diocese was large and the care of it engrossing, and there came upon him, in addition to the ordinary duties of the episcopate, other questions of rubric and ritual, of parochial and ministerial differences, of harmonizing opposing classes and interests, and of training and drawing out his clergy for the great works of religious philanthropy to which he sought to subsidize them. In all particulars he was a model Christian bishop, grave and dignified as became his holy office, yet genial and kindly in manner, his heart full of the largest charities, and ever ready to lend a helping hand to every good work. He had especially identified himself with two great enterprises in his diocese, the organization of the Hospital of the Protestant Episcopal Church, one of the largest and most admirably conducted hospitals in the country, and the establishment of the Divinity School of the Church, in Philadelphia, which, through his exertions, was liberally endowed and provided with an able faculty and all the best appliances for theological instruction. His zeal for education was manifest in his efforts for the improvement of the common school system of Pennsylvania, his promotion of measures of special education, and his exertions for the establishment of the school for the feeble-minded, now in successful operation at Media, and of whose board he was president till his death.

In the midst of his abundant labors—labors too severe for even his vigorous constitution and stalwart frame, he was smitten in 1858 with paralysis, and for a time withdrew from his sphere of duty. By the advice of his physicians he spent a year in Europe, trying, but without apparent benefit, the water-cure at Great Malvern, and subsequently, after a short visit to London and Oxford, spending the winter at Pau, and the spring in Italy. The outbreak of the Italian war, in the summer of 1859, compelled his return to the United States, and he came home with his health partially though not fully restored. The years that followed were years of untiring and intense labor. The organization of the Divinity School, to which we have already alluded, and of the school for the feeble-minded, in addition to the ordinary duties of the Episcopate, in a time when men's minds were unsettled, and the nation was on the eve of great events, as well as the cares and responsibilities thrown upon him by his commanding position in the House of Bishops, might well have tasked all his energies. When the war commenced, he at once took strong ground in behalf of the constituted authorities, and throughout the entire struggle his support was ardent and glowing. An active and efficient member of the Christian Commission, a zealous and earnest friend of emancipation, finding time amid his multifarious duties to visit almost daily the Government hospitals and present the truths and consolations of the gospel to the wounded and dying, he set a

noble example to the clergy of his diocese, of enlightened patriotism and fidelity to his country's cause; and though under the pressure of these multiplied labors his health again began to fail, he would not give up till the war was over—then, finding his vital powers exhausted, he consented early in June to sail for California, in the hope that the voyage and the fine climate of the Pacific coast might once more restore his health. It was not so to be. On the night of the 26th of June, while passing up the Pacific, off the coast of Lower California, he was taken seriously ill, and on the 29th his disease assumed an alarming aspect. On the 1st of July the steamer reached San Francisco, but he was too ill to leave his cabin, and a physician who was called in, after some hesitation, pronounced the disease malignant Panama fever. He was unconscious from Saturday, July 1st, except for a few minutes, until his death, which occurred on the morning of the 4th of July. Bishop Potter received the degree of D. D. from Harvard and Gambier Colleges, and that of LL. D. from Union College. He was the author of a number of works of great merit, and left others unpublished, which would have established his reputation as a philosopher and theologian. Among his published works are "The Principles of Science applied to the Domestic and Mechanic Arts," etc. (12mo, New York, 1841); "Political Economy, its Objects, Uses, and Principles Considered" (18mo, 1841); "Hand-Book for Readers and Students" (18mo, 1847); "Discourses, Charges, and Addresses," etc. (12mo, Philadelphia, 1858); "The Drinking Usages of Society," a Series of Lectures on Temperance; and in conjunction with George B. Emerson, of Boston, a volume entitled "The School and the School Master," a work of which about sixty thousand copies were circulated, thirteen thousand of them by Hon. James Wadsworth. He delivered, in 1845-1853, five courses of lectures, or sixty lectures in all, before the Lowell Institute of Boston, on subjects connected with natural theology, lectures which attracted marked attention, even among the very remarkable courses of lectures delivered before that Institute, for their profound philosophy, their complete mastery of the questions of psychology and ethics involved, and for their glowing and brilliant eloquence. They are, we believe, to be published.

PRESBYTERIANS. The statistics of the (Old School) Presbyterian Church were reported in May, 1865, as follows: Synods, 85; presbyteries, 185; ministers, 2,801; churches, 2,629; members added on examination, 10,540; members added on certificate, 8,816; communicants reported, 282,450; adults baptized, 2,821; infants baptized, 9,692; contributed for domestic missions, \$105,383; foreign missions, \$179,712; education, \$117,814; publication, \$81,121; church extension (or building), \$55,814; disabled ministers, \$22,363; congregational, \$1,939,566.

The seventy-seventh General Assembly of

the Presbyterian Church in the United States (Old School) began its annual session in Pittsburgh on May 18th. Of the presbyteries in the late Confederate States only one, that of Nashville, was represented. The relation of the General Assembly to the Southern presbyteries, which had organized the "General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the Confederate States," called forth an animated debate. A committee was appointed to consider a memorial, asking the General Assembly to drop from its rolls the names of ministers, elders, presbyteries, and synods who had given their adhesion to the General Assembly of the Confederate States. The report of the committee was to the effect that "the act of rebellion, to support the institution of slavery, was not only a great sin, but wholly unwarranted." The committee recommended, however, kind treatment of those who created this schism in the Church, and in case of a sufficient number of loyal members being found in any community, they recommended the formation of churches, and the organization of presbyteries and synods. The report was adopted. The Assembly also resolved, with but few negative votes, "That no missionaries be appointed by the Board except those giving satisfactory evidence of loyalty to the national Government, and of cordial sympathy with the Presbyterian Church in her testimony on doctrine, loyalty, and freedom." The two committees (Eastern and Western) on the education of the freedmen, reported that they had pursued their work vigorously and successfully. Their aggregate receipts had been nearly \$12,000. Between thirty and forty teachers, male and female, had been in the field.

In reviewing the records of the Synod of Kentucky, which had censured the action of the previous Assembly against slavery, the General Assembly recorded its disapproval of that censure, and took this further exception to the Synodical records: "That the Synod has wholly failed to make any deliverance during the past year calculated to sustain and encourage our Government in its efforts to suppress a most extensive, wanton, and wicked rebellion." The Assembly, as in the preceding years, exchanged interdenominational courtesies with the New School Presbyterian General Assembly, without, however, taking any further steps in favor of a union. A large committee, located at important points throughout the Union, was appointed "to act in concert with other committees similarly appointed by other evangelical denominations, for the purpose of giving expression to our desire for more visible fellowship, and for securing a more vigorous co-operation in the defence of Protestant Christianity, as against the encroachment of Roman Catholicism and infidelity in our land."

The resolutions passed by the General Assembly concerning slavery, the late war, and the relation of the Church to the Southern presbyteries, were received with great dissatisfaction

by the majority of the Presbyterian ministers in Kentucky and Missouri. A document was drawn up, called a "Declaration and Testimony," in which the action of the General Assemblies, since 1861, on the above subjects, is designated as an apostasy from the true spirit of Christianity, and a determination expressed to call a convention of all opponents of that action for the purpose of concerting further measures.

This document, which produced a great excitement in the Church, received the signatures of sixty persons, ministers and ruling elders, in the State of Missouri, and thirty-three persons, ministers and elders in other synods, chiefly in Kentucky, and was formally adopted by the Presbytery of Louisville. At the meeting of the Synod of Kentucky, the Rev. Dr. Robert Breckinridge offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That this Synod adjudges that the action of the majority of the Louisville Presbytery, by endorsing and adopting a paper styled the "Declaration and Testimony," assumed such a state of open rebellion against the Church, and open contempt and defiance of her scriptural authority, and contempt of her faith, order, and acts, as to render each and every one of them unqualified, unfit, and incompetent to sit and act as a member of this or any other court of the Presbyterian Church.

After several days' discussion, the Synod rejected the resolution of Dr. Breckinridge, by a vote of 102 against 25—non-committal, 7. By the rejection of this resolution, the Synod did, however, not intend to endorse the action of the Louisville Presbytery; but on the contrary, it expressed its disapprobation of it by adopting the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Synod having caused a certain paper, styled the "Declaration and Testimony," lately adopted by the Presbytery of Louisville, to be read in its hearing, and having carefully considered the same, hereby expresses its disapprobation of the terms of this paper, and of its spirit and intent, indicated on its face, as looking to the further agitation of the Church, if not its division, at a time when great mutual forbearance is called for among brethren, to the end that we may have quietness and repose. Whereupon the Synod enjoins on the Presbytery of Louisville in particular, and upon all the presbyteries and churches, ministers and people, subject to it in the Lord, to forbear whatever tends to disturbance and alienation, beseeching, in the name of our Lord Jesus Christ, that "they all speak the same thing, and that there be no division among them, but that they be perfectly joined together in the same mind and in the same judgment."

The Synod defined its position to the General Assembly by adopting (by a vote of 48 to 52) a paper which is substantially as follows:

1. The acts of the last Assembly on overtures Nos. 6 and 7, and resolution No. 4 on the reports of the Committee of the Board of Domestic Missions, are condemned as unwise, unconstitutional, and unscriptural, and it is hoped the Assembly will review and correct them. 2. Yet none of the acts of the Assembly during the years 1861 to 1865, inclusive, justify a withdrawal from that body, and the Synod will adhere with unbroken purpose to the Presbyterian Church of the United States, and will oppose every effort to produce schism. 3. The Synod disapproves of the "Declaration and Testimony" adopted by the Presbytery of Louisville, and enjoins upon that Presbytery to forbear what tends to disturbance.

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4. All under the Synod's care are urged to study the things which make for peace.

A similar paper was adopted by the Synod of Missouri.

The statistics of the New School Presbyterian Assembly were, in 1865, as follows: Synods, 23; presbyteries, 108; ministers, 1,694; churches, 1,479; communicants, 143,645; Sunday-school membership, 112,781; contributions for home missions, \$94,507; for foreign missions, \$112,296; for education, \$36,952; for publication, \$46,325; congregational funds, \$1,264,667; miscellaneous contributions, \$501,141.

The New School Presbyterian General Assembly met at Brooklyn, N. Y., on May 18th. The composition of the Assembly presented several novel features. Of the presbyteries which seceded in 1857, and organized the "United Synod," two (Union and Kingston), both in East Tennessee, had pronounced in favor of a return to their old connection, and their delegates were present on the opening of the Assembly. The Assembly, in addition, reconstituted a third of the East Tennessee presbyteries (Holston), and erected these three presbyteries into the "Synod of Tennessee." Moreover, for the first time in the history of this Assembly, it counted among its members representatives of the colored race, two negroes having been chosen commissioners, one from Philadelphia and one from Newark. The Assembly resolved to place, for the present, in a state of probation ministers of the Church from the South who have supported the Confederacy. A resolution was adopted authorizing the Assembly to send ten ministers to East Tennessee to explore the field and see how the work of reunion might be promoted. The Assembly also unanimously adopted a report on the state of the country, which expressed grief at the assassination of President Lincoln, confidence in President Johnson, joy at the end of the war, and a hope that the Africans would be no longer excluded from the rights and privileges of freemen.

The United Presbyterian Church was, in 1865, composed of 7 synods, divided into 46 presbyteries, with 8 Missionary Presbyteries additional (Sealcote, Egypt, and Oregon), being 49 presbyteries altogether. There were in the Church 384 settled pastors, 132 ministers without charge, being a total of 516 ordained ministers, 50 licentiates, and 46 students of theology, 659 congregations, with 24,921 families, and a membership of 58,265. The Church had an increase during the year, by examination and profession of faith, of 2,725, and by certificate 2,908, with a decrease by death of 1,055, and by removal of 3,865, being a total increase of 1,218. There were 4,521 children baptized by her ministry, and 281 adults. Her contributions to the Boards of the Church were not fully reported. The amount contributed to home missions, as reported, was \$19,722; foreign missions, 42,722; education, \$1,768; publication, \$2,869; church extension, \$11,796.

Assembly's fund, \$679; salaries of pastors, \$258,000; other funds about \$180,000; the whole amount contributed for all purposes, as far as reported, being over \$500,000. The General Assembly made appropriations to the various Boards of the Church, to carry on their operations during the coming year, the sum of \$177,400, divided as follows: foreign missions, \$86,800; home missions, \$38,000; freedmen's missions, \$2,200; church extension, \$20,000; education, \$10,000; publication, \$5,000; Assembly's fund, \$600.

The thirty-fifth session of the General Assembly of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church met at Evansville, Ind., and elected the Rev. Mr. Douglas, of Tennessee, moderator. The Assembly adopted resolutions expressing their abhorrence of the assassination of President Lincoln. The views expressed by the former General Assemblies on slavery and loyalty were confirmed. Of the presbyteries within the bounds of the late Confederate States, only those constituting the Synod of East Tennessee were present. In November, a convention of Cumberland Presbyterians, consisting chiefly of members of the Southern presbyteries, was held at Memphis, to express their views on the unity of the Church, and on the views of the last General Assembly. In accordance with the spirit generally pervading the Southern Churches, it was resolved that "the whole proceedings of the Assemblies of 1863 and 1864, touching slavery and the state of the country, and so far as the same were endorsed by the Assembly of 1865, were extra-ecclesiastical, and therefore entirely nugatory;" that in their charges of sin upon the Southern people, "they condemn" what God does not condemn, "and in laying down terms of communion which the Bible does not lay down, they exalt themselves above, and assume to be more holy than God." At the same time, however, the Convention expressed gratification at the continuing unity of the Church, at the existence of a large conservative element in the northern portion of it, and recommended to the presbyteries to send up their full quota of commissioners to the next General Assembly.

The Presbyterians of the late Confederate States were almost unanimous in favor of continuing a separate ecclesiastical organization. The Presbytery of New Orleans, which, after the capture of that city, severed its connection with the General Assembly of the Southern Churches, reunited itself with that body—only the Synod of North Carolina, which was in session toward the close of October at Fayetteville, was unable to agree upon any resolutions concerning reunion, and tabled resolutions condemning the spirit of the Northern churches.

The General Assembly of the Southern Presbyterians met in December at Macon, and elected the Rev. Dr. George Howe, of Columbia, moderator. The Assembly adopted, for the name of their Church, the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United

States. With regard to the relation to Northern Presbyterians, the General Assembly passed the following resolutions:

Resolved, That our ministers and churches be and hereby are warned against all ministers or other agents who may come among us to sow the seeds of division and strife in the congregations or to create schism in our beloved Zion; and owing to the peculiar reasons for prudence which now exist, we enjoin it upon our ministers and sessions to exercise special caution as to whom they admit to their pulpits, and in cases of doubt to refer to the judgment of the presbyteries the whole question of the nature and extent of the courtesy or countenance they may extend.

Resolved, That the Assembly would remind sessions that in no case is it proper for them to invite ministers of other denominations steadily to occupy any of our pulpits without the consent of the presbyteries, and the known purpose of such ministers, at the earliest suitable opportunity, to unite with us in ecclesiastical relations.

The following testimony concerning slavery was adopted:

This relation is now overthrown—suddenly, violently—whether justly or unjustly, in wrath or in mercy, for weal or for woe, let history and the Judge of all the earth decide. But there are two considerations of vital interest which still remain.

One is, that while the existence of slavery may, in its civil aspects, be regarded as a civil question, an issue now gone, yet the lawfulness of the relation as a question of social morality and of Scriptural truth has lost nothing of its importance. When we solemnly declare to you, brethren, that the dogma which asserts the inherent sinfulness of this relation is unscriptural and fanatical; that it is condemned, not only by the Word of God, but by the voice of the Church in all ages; that it is one of the most pernicious heresies of modern times; that its countenance by any Church is a just cause of separation from it (1 Tim. vi. 1-5), we have surely said enough to warn you away from this insidious error as from a fatal shore.

Whatever, therefore, we may have to lament before God, either for neglect of duty toward our servants, or for actual wrong while the relation lasted, we are not called, now that it has been abolished, to bow the head in humiliation before men, or to admit that the memory of many of our dear kindred is to be covered with shame, because, like Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, they had bond-servants born in their own houses, or bought with their money, and who now, redeemed by the same precious blood, sit down together in the kingdom of God.

The report of the Standing Committee on Domestic Missions, specially referred to the duties of the Church toward the negroes. It reminded the Church that this always important branch of Christian labor "has within the last twelve months assumed a magnitude and an urgency which requires a large and instant increase of zeal;" that "while the change in the legal and domestic relations of the colored people does not release the Church from its obligation to seek their moral and spiritual welfare, their greater exposure to temptation, leading to vice, irreligion, and ruin, both temporal and eternal, which result from that change, makes the strongest appeal to our Christian sympathies."

This subject of the religious culture of the blacks was further enforced by the adoption of a report from the Committee on Bills and Overtures. The inquiry of the Overture being

as to "the course to be pursued toward the colored people within our bounds," the preamble sets forth that "the colored people never stood in any other relation to the Church than that of human beings lost with us in the fall of Adam, and redeemed with us by the infinitely meritorious death and sacrifice of Christ, and participants with us in all the benefits and blessings of the Gospel; and that our Churches, pastors, and people have always recognized this claim to Christian equality and brotherhood, and have rejoiced to have them associated in Christian union and communion in the public services and precious sacraments of the sanctuary." And the final resolution speaks of the advantages of the "colored people and the white being united together in the worship of God," though deferring to the wishes of the former as to whether this shall be continued. A "Pastoral Letter" to the Southern Churches sets forth at greater length the views of the Assembly concerning the relation of the Southern Churches to the civil Government, to the war, the negro race, and slavery.

The statistics of this denomination were, in 1865, as follows: Synods, 10; presbyteries, 46; churches, 1,277; ministers, 811; licentiates, 91; candidates, 65; communicants, 83,821. Of these, 12,473 are colored people.

In South America, the (Old School) Presbyterian Church of the United States supports missionaries in the United States of Colombia (at Bogota) and in Brazil. In the latter country, the missionaries, on December 16th, organized themselves into the "Presbytery of Rio de Janeiro." They publish a semi-monthly religious newspaper, called *Imprensa Evangelica* (Evangelical Press).

In Scotland, the Synods of the three great divisions of Presbyterians (Church of Scotland, Free Church of Scotland, and United Presbyterians) met, by an unusual coincidence, at the same time in Edinburgh. The proposed union between the Free Church and the United Presbyterians was again advocated by the great majority of both Assemblies, and the joint committee reported that the Reformed Presbyterian Church and the English Presbyterian Churches had joined in the Conferences, and that so far as the negotiations had gone, they found a general agreement in principle. On one day, the two Assemblies held a joint meeting, presided over by the two moderators alternately. Both Assemblies resolved to reappoint the Union Committee. At the close of the year, Dr. Cairns, one of the leading members of the committee, publicly stated that the final report of the committee on the proposed union of the Free, United Presbyterian, Reformed Presbyterian, and English Presbyterian Churches, would be made, before the meeting of the Church Courts in May, 1866.

The statistics of the United Presbyterian Synod, in 1865, were as follows: Ministers, 580; elders, 4,308; preachers, 102; students of divinity, 133; members, 170,590; average

Sunday attendance, 199,101; congregational income, £178,858; income for missions and benevolence, £50,696; total income, including miscellaneous revenues, £232,316; average contributions of members, £1 6s. 11d. The Finance Committee of the Free Church Assembly reported that the amount contributed during the past year to the public funds of the Church was £358,198 18s. 10d.—being larger than that of the previous year by £15,064 5s.; and the largest sum raised in any year since the year of the disruption.

A Presbyterian bi-monthly paper was, in 1865, established in Bangkok, the capital of the kingdom of Siam, in Farther India. It is printed partly in English and partly in Siamese. The editor is Rev. N. A. Macdonald, a missionary of the American Presbyterian (Old School) Board.

In New South Wales, the union between the Synods of the established Church of Scotland, the Free Church, and the United Presbyterian Church was consummated in November. The different Synods were declared dissolved, and all their members will henceforth be united in the new "Presbyterian Church of New South Wales."

PROUDHON, PIERRE JOSEPH, a French socialist and political writer, born in Besançon, July 15, 1809; died in Paris, January 19, 1865. He was the son of a cooper, and after studying for some time, through the assistance of some benevolent persons, at the college of his native town, he became apprenticed to a printer, and in 1837 was taken into partnership by a printing firm at Besançon. Having devoted much of his leisure to study, and particularly to philosophy, he published the same year an edition of the Bible, with annotations upon the principles of the Hebrew language, and an essay *de grammaire générale*, receiving for the latter a prize from the French Academy, consisting of one thousand five hundred francs, which enabled him to visit Paris, where he spent three years of scientific study. Here he became a contributor to the *Encyclopédie Catholique*, and among other writings published a pamphlet entitled *Où est-ce que la Propriété*, which opened with the celebrated doctrine "*Property is Theft*," and for which he was censured by the Academy, and deprived of his allowance. In 1841 he issued another pamphlet upon the same subject, and again in 1842, for which he was arraigned before a jury at Besançon, but acquitted. His principal work is entitled *Système des Contradictions Economiques, ou Philosophie de la Misère* (1846, 2 vols.). On the breaking out of the revolution of 1848 he was engaged in the publication of his *Solution du Problème Social*, a plan of social reform by means of a new organization of credit and monetary circulation. About this time he started a new paper, *Le Peuple*, which made a great sensation at the time, and subsequently several other short-lived journals of like character, which for their rash and violent tone

were repeatedly condemned by the courts. He was also elected a member of the Constitutional Assembly, which almost unanimously denounced a proposition made by him as "an odious attack upon the principles of public morality, and an appeal to the worst passions." In January, 1849, he undertook to establish the "People's Bank," an institution of gratuitous credit, by means of which he hoped to bring his theory into operation; but on March 28th he was sentenced to three years' imprisonment for illegal publications. He has since written a large number of works in defence of his peculiar views on society. By many of his last pamphlets, for instance, that against the unity of Italy, he gave great offence to the Liberal party. His latest work is entitled *La Paix et la Guerre*. Since his death, the eminent Parisian and Belgian publishers, Lacroix & Co., who had undertaken the posthumous publication of his works for the benefit of his family, have been condemned to fine and imprisonment for their publication.

PRUSSIA, a kingdom in Europe. Reigning King, Wilhelm I., born March 22, 1797; succeeded his brother, Friedrich Wilhelm III., on January 2, 1861. Heir apparent, Prince Friedrich Wilhelm, born October 18, 1831.

The present Constitution bears date January 31, 1850, but it has been modified by royal decrees of April 30, 1851; May 21 and June 5, 1852; May 7 and May 24, 1853; June 10 and October 12, 1854; May 30, 1855, and May 15, 1857. According to this Constitution the crown is hereditary in the male line only. The King attains his majority upon completing his eighteenth year. The Legislative Assembly is composed of two houses, the "Herrenhaus" or House of Lords, and the "Abgeordnetenhaus" or House of Deputies. The former consists of the royal princes; the heads of a number of noble houses; delegates from the landowners, universities, and "chapters;" the burgomasters of cities with more than 50,000 inhabitants; and a number of members nominated by the King for life, or for a number of years. The House of Deputies consists of 350 members. The mode of election is indirect, one elector being chosen for every 250 souls. Every Prussian who has attained his twenty-fifth year, and who is qualified to vote at municipal elections, has the right of voting; but the voters of a district are divided into three classes, according to the amount of direct taxes they pay. Those voters who pay the highest taxes, to the amount of one-third of the whole, form the first class; those who pay the next highest amount, also to the amount of one-third of the whole, form the second; and all the others the third class. Deputies must have attained the thirtieth year. The executive Government is carried on under the King by a Council of State ("Staatsrath"), embracing all the royal princes, and an unlimited number of members appointed by the King, and a council of ministers, divided into nine departments. The min-

istry, in 1865, consisted of the following members: Count von Bismark-Schönhausen (Foreign Affairs, and Presidency of the Cabinet); E. von Bodelschwing-Velmede (Finance); A. von Schleinitz (Royal House); Count zu Eulenburg (Interior); Gen. von Roon (War); Count L. Zur Lippe (Justice); von Mähler (Public Instruction and Ecclesiastical Affairs); von Selchow (Agriculture); Count von Itzenplitz (Commerce). In point of administration, the kingdom is divided into eight provinces, each placed under one "Oberpräsident" (Governor).

The area of the kingdom, including the district of Yahde, which the Government, in 1854, purchased from Oldenburg, is 107,757 English square miles. Adding the duchy of Lauenburg (see LAUENBURG), which, in accordance with the Convention of Gastein (see GASTKIN), was taken possession of by Prussia in September, 1865, the total area of the dominions of the King of Prussia is 108,212 square miles.

The population, according to the census of 1864, was as follows:

Provinces and Districts.	Population.	Provinces and Districts.	Population.
1. Prussia	3,014,595	8. Rhine Provinces	2,344,196
2. Posen	1,523,739	Hohenzollern	64,555
3. Pomerania	1,437,575	Yahde	1,573
4. Brandenburg	3,510,706	Lauenburg	43,794
5. Silesia	2,616,563	Military abroad	25,339
6. Saxony	2,043,975		
7. Westphalia	1,666,561	Total	13,394,643

As regards the religion of the inhabitants, 11,592,451 are members of the Evangelical Church, 7,115,851 Roman Catholics, 260,751 Israelites, 40,111 Dissidents, 1,514 members of the Greek Church. To non-German nationalities belong 2,504,179.

The following towns have a population of more than 50,000 inhabitants (being therefore entitled to be represented through their Burgomaster in the House of Lords): Berlin, 609,788; Breslau, 156,644; Cologne, 117,000; Königsberg, 94,827; Magdeburg, 91,028; Danzig, 78,181; Aix-la-Chapelle, 62,444; Stettin, 65,058; Elberfeld, 61,995; Crefeld, 53,397; Barmen, 59,526.

The revenue in the "Budget" for 1865 was estimated at 150,714,031 thalers, and the expenditure at 150,599,164 thalers. Since 1862 the House of Deputies has refused to vote the "Budget," and the estimates have been simply fixed by royal decree.

The army is composed as follows:

	Peace- footing.	War- footing.
Field Troops	190,333	350,905
Reserves	122,928
Garrison	9,699	153,197
Total	199,963	626,925
To these must be added, in time of war, 116 ("the Landwehr") Battalions		95,499
Second call		729,121
Total		

The Prussian fleet consisted, in 1865, of the following vessels: 37 steamers (246 guns), 8

sailing-vessels (140 guns), 40 rowing-vessels (76 guns). Total, 85 war-vessels (462 guns). The movement of shipping was, in 1864, as follows:

FLAG.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Lasts.	Vessels.	Lasts.
Prussian	5,409	444,064	5,415	436,818
Foreign.....	2,978	220,748	8,027	283,811
Total.....	8,384	664,812	8,442	671,694

The merchant navy, in 1864, consisted of 1,665 vessels, of a total burden of 191,197 lasts.

The policy which the Prussian Government, under the leadership of Count von Bismark, has been pursuing for several years, underwent no change in 1865. The King's speech, on the opening of the Diet on January 14th, showed that the Government did not intend to recede from the demands which the majority of the Second Chamber regarded as a violation of the Constitution. The Second Chamber, in its turn, manifested its determination to remain firm in the advocacy of the popular rights, by reflecting its former President (Herr von Grabow) and Vice-Presidents. The chief subject of dispute was the reorganization of the Prussian army. On February 8th, the Minister of War introduced, in the Chamber of Deputies, a bill altering and supplementing by 20 paragraphs the law of the 3d of September, 1814, upon the obligation to military service in Prussia. Under the proposed new regulations the whole term of military service is reduced from 19 to 16 years, of which the first seven years are to be served in the regular standing army. Of these seven years the first three must be served with a regiment, and the four following years in the reserve. During the next four years, those having fulfilled the above terms of service will be liable under the first call of the Landwehr, and during the remaining five years to the second call. The first division of the Landwehr will only be called out when the country is in serious danger. Special laws will regulate the service in the Landwehr and in the navy. On introducing this bill, the Minister of War, Lieutenant-General Von Roon, said he hoped that the wish of the country for reconciliation between the Diet and the Government might find an echo in the house. The Government, although maintaining its projects for the reorganization of the army, was willing to renounce the execution of the original scheme in its full extent. A cordial agreement upon the treatment of the pending military question could only be obtained by a mutual understanding on the points at issue between the Government and the Diet. The minister said in conclusion: "The Government have this object in view in introducing the present bill, and is convinced of the necessity of all army reform being effected on a parliamentary basis."

The Second Chamber saw in this bill no concession, and therefore resolved to express, in

their address to the King, their regret that such a bill had been introduced. According to the report of the military commission of the Chamber, which was distributed in April, and had been drawn up by Professor Gneist, of Berlin, the five most important points on which the Chamber differed from the Government were the following: 1. The effectiveness of the army. At the period when the Constitution was accorded the numbers were 181,000 men; in 1858, 151,000; and now, in consequence of the reorganization, 212,000. 2. The number of corps. There were formerly 126 battalions of infantry and 182 squadrons of cavalry; but since the reorganization there are 248 of the former and 200 of the latter. 3. Position of the landwehr. According to existing laws the first ban ought to be of the same strength as the permanent army, in corresponding corps; but since the reorganization the landwehr is composed of only 117 battalions, considerably reduced, and of the depots of the twelve regiments of the landwehr cavalry. 4. Duration of service in the permanent army. The desire is to increase it from five to seven years, in view of the reorganization. 5. Active service. The wish of the Government is to fix it in an absolute manner at a general duration of three years. As the Government treated the resolutions passed by the Chamber with contempt, the Chamber again refused to pass the budget. The Government finding the majority of the Chamber unyielding, closed the session on June 17th.

The chief feature of the foreign policy of Prussia, was the incessant pursuit of a plan for the annexation of the duchies of Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg. The "crown jurists" of the Government prepared a statement, according to which the King of Denmark, and not the Prince of Augustenburg or any other prince, had been, up to October 30, 1864 (the date of the treaty of Vienna), the lawful sovereign of the duchies, and that his right had been ceded by that treaty to the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria. Prussia, therefore, rejected all the endeavors made by the Prince of Augustenburg for the purpose of obtaining his recognition by Prussia as Duke of Schleswig-Holstein (*see SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN*), as well as the attempts made by the Federal Diet to establish its competency to settle the question of the succession (*see GERMANY*). Austria, which was favorable to the claim made by the Federal Diet, was prevailed upon to consent, by the Convention of Gastein (*see GASTEIN*), to a temporary division of the government of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein between the two great Powers, and to cede its right to Lauenburg for a pecuniary consideration to Prussia (*see AUSTRIA and LAUENBURG*). From that time the Government of Prussia made the utmost efforts to induce Austria to cede likewise its right to the two other duchies; but this effort was not successful, and the relations to Austria were therefore at the close of the year any thing but friendly

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS. *Inaugural Address of ABRAHAM LINCOLN as President of the United States, March 4th, 1865.*

Fellow-Countrymen:

At this second appearing to take the oath of the presidential office, there is less occasion for an extended address than there was at the first. Then, a statement, somewhat in detail, of a course to be pursued, seemed fitting and proper. Now, at the expiration of four years, during which public declarations have been constantly called forth on every point and phase of the great contest which still absorbs the attention and engrosses the energies of the nation, little that is new could be presented. The progress of our arms, upon which all else chiefly depends, is as well known to the public as to myself; and it is, I trust, reasonably satisfactory and encouraging to all. With high hope for the future, no prediction in regard to it is ventured.

On the occasion corresponding to this four years ago, all thoughts were anxiously directed to an impending civil war. All dreaded it; all sought to avert it. While the inaugural address was being delivered from this place, devoted altogether to saving the Union without war, insurgent agents were in the city seeking to destroy it without war—seeking to dissolve the Union, and divide effects, by negotiation. Both parties deprecated war; but one of them would make war rather than let the nation survive; and the other would accept war rather than let it perish. And the war came.

One-eighth of the whole population were colored slaves, not distributed generally over the Union, but localized in the southern part of it. These slaves constituted a peculiar and powerful interest. All knew that this interest was, somehow, the cause of the war. To strengthen, perpetuate, and extend this interest was the object for which the insurgents would rend the Union, even by war; while the Government claimed no right to do more than to restrict the territorial enlargement of it. Neither party expected for the war the magnitude or the duration which it has already attained. Neither anticipated that the cause of the conflict might cease with, or even before, the conflict itself should cease. Each looked for an easier triumph, and a result less fundamental and astounding. Both read the same Bible, and pray to the same God; and each invokes His aid against the other. It may seem strange that any men should dare to ask a just God's assistance in warring their bread from the sweat of other men's faces; but let us judge not, that we be not judged. The prayers of both could not be answered; that of neither has been answered fully. The Almighty has His own purposes. "Woe unto the world because of offences! for it must needs be that offences come, but woe to that man by whom the offence cometh." If we shall suppose American slavery is one of those offences which, in the providence of God, must needs come, but which, having continued through His appointed time, He now wills to remove, and that He gives to both North and South this terrible war, as the woe due to those by whom the offence came, shall we discern therein any departure from those divine attributes which the believers in a living God always ascribe to Him? Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray, that this mighty scourge of war may speedily pass away. Yet, if God wills that it continue until all the wealth piled by the bondman's two hundred and fifty years of unrequited toil shall be sunk, and until every drop of blood drawn with the lash shall be paid by another drawn with the sword, as was said three thousand years ago, so still it must be said, "The judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether."

With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds; to care for him who shall have

borne the battle, and for his widow, and his orphan; to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and a lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Message of President JOHNSON, at the first session of the thirty-ninth Congress.

Fellow-Citizens of the Senate and House of Representatives:

To express gratitude to God, in the name of the People, for the preservation of the United States, is my first duty in addressing you. Our thoughts next revert to the death of the late President by an act of partricial treason. The grief of the nation is still fresh; it finds some solace in the consideration that he lived to enjoy the highest proof of its confidence by entering on the renewed term of the Chief Magistracy, to which he had been elected; that he brought the civil war substantially to a close; that his loss was deplored in all parts of the Union; and that foreign nations have rendered justice to his memory. His removal cast upon me a heavier weight of cares than ever devolved upon any one of his predecessors. To fulfil my trust I need the support and confidence of all who are associated with me in the various departments of Government, and the support and confidence of the people. There is but one way in which I can hope to gain their necessary aid; it is, to state with frankness the principles which guide my conduct, and their application to the present state of affairs, well aware that the efficiency of my labor will, in a great measure, depend on your and their undivided approbation.

The Union of the United States of America was intended by its authors to last as long as the States themselves shall last. "The Union shall be perpetual" are the words of the Confederation. "To form a more perfect Union," by an ordinance of the people of the United States, is the declared purpose of the Constitution. The hand of Divine Providence was never more plainly visible in the affairs of men than in the framing and the adopting of that instrument. It is, beyond comparison, the greatest event in American history; and indeed is it not of all events in modern times, the most pregnant with consequences for every people of the earth? The members of the Convention which prepared it brought to their work the experience of the Confederation, of their several States, and of other Republican Governments, old and new; but they needed and they obtained a wisdom superior to experience. And when for its validity it required the approval of a people that occupied a large part of a continent and acted separately in many distinct conventions, what is more wonderful than that, after earnest contention and long discussion, all feelings and all opinions were ultimately drawn in one way to its support?

The Constitution to which life was thus imparted contains within itself ample resources for its own preservation. It has power to enforce the laws, punish treason, and insure domestic tranquillity. In case of the usurpation of the government of a State by one man, or an oligarchy, it becomes a duty of the United States to make good the guaranty to that State of a republican form of government, and so to maintain the homogeneity of all. Does the lapse of time reveal defects? A simple mode of amendment is provided in the Constitution itself, so that its conditions can always be made to conform to the requirements of advancing civilization. No room is allowed even for the thought of a possibility of its coming to an end. And these powers of self-preservation have always been asserted in their complete integrity by every patriotic Chief Magistrate—by Jefferson and Jackson, not less than by Washington and Madison. The parting advice of the Father of his Country, while yet President, to the people of the United States, was, that "the free Constitution, which was the work of their hands, might be sacredly

maintained;" and the inaugural words of President Jefferson held up "the preservation of the General Government, in its constitutional vigor, as the sheet anchor of our peace at home and safety abroad." The Constitution is the work of "the people of the United States," and it should be as indestructible as the people.

It is not strange that the framers of the Constitution, which had no model in the past, should not have fully comprehended the excellence of their own work. Fresh from a struggle against arbitrary power, many patriots suffered from harassing fears of an absorption of the State governments by the General Government, and many from a dread that the States would break away from their orbits. But the very greatness of our country should allay the apprehension of encroachments by the General Government. The subjects that come unquestionably within its jurisdiction are so numerous, that it must ever naturally refuse to be embarrassed by questions that lie beyond it. Were it otherwise, the Executive would sink beneath the burden; the channels of justice would be choked; legislation would be obstructed by excess; so that there is a greater temptation to exercise some of the functions of the General Government through the States than to trespass on their rightful sphere. "The absolute acquiescence in the decisions of the majority" was, at the beginning of the century, enforced by Jefferson "as the vital principle of republics," and the events of the last four years have established, we will hope forever, that there lies no appeal to force.

The maintenance of the Union brings with it "the support of the State Governments in all their rights;" but it is not one of the rights of any State government to renounce its own place in the Union, or to nullify the laws of the Union. The largest liberty is to be maintained in the discussion of the acts of the Federal Government; but there is no appeal from its laws, except to the various branches of the Government itself, or to the people, who grant to the members of the Legislative and of the Executive Departments no tenure but a limited one, and in that manner always retain the powers of redress.

"The sovereignty of the States" is the language of the Confederacy, and not the language of the Constitution. The latter contains the emphatic words: "The Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made or which shall be made under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding."

Certainly the Government of the United States is a limited government; and so is every State government. With us, this idea of limitation spreads through every form of administration, general, State, and municipal, and rests on the great distinguishing principle of the recognition of the rights of man. The ancient republics absorbed the individual in the State, prescribed his religion, and controlled his activity. The American system rests on the assertion of the equal right of every man to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; to freedom of conscience, to the culture and exercise of all his faculties. As a consequence, the State Government is limited, as to the General Government in the interest of Union, as to the individual citizen in the interest of freedom.

States, with proper limitations of power, are essential to the existence of the Constitution of the United States. At the very commencement, when we assumed a place among the Powers of the earth, the Declaration of Independence was adopted by States; so also were the Articles of Confederation; and when "the People of the United States" ordained and established the Constitution, it was the assent of the States, one by one, which gave it vitality. In the event, too, of any amendment to the Constitution, the proposition of Congress needs the confirmation

of States. Without States, one great branch of the legislative government would be wanting. And, if we look beyond the letter of the Constitution to the character of our country, its capacity for comprehending within its jurisdiction a vast continental empire is due to the system of States. The best security for the perpetual existence of the States is the "supreme authority" of the Constitution of the United States. The perpetuity of the Constitution brings with it the perpetuity of the States; their mutual relation makes us what we are, and in our political system their connection is indissoluble. The whole cannot exist without the parts, nor the parts without the whole. So long as the Constitution of the United States endures, the States will endure; the destruction of the one is the destruction of the other; the preservation of the one is the preservation of the other.

I have thus explained my views of the mutual relations of the Constitution and the States, because they unfold the principles on which I have sought to solve the momentous questions and overcome the appalling difficulties that met me at the very commencement of my administration. It has been my steadfast object to escape from the sway of momentary passions, and to derive a healing policy from the fundamental and unchanging principles of the Constitution.

I found the States suffering from the effects of a civil war. Resistance to the General Government appeared to have exhausted itself. The United States had recovered possession of their forts and arsenals; and their armies were in the occupation of every State which had attempted to secede. Whether the territory within the limits of those States should be held as conquered territory, under military authority emanating from the President as the head of the army, was the first question that presented itself for decision.

Now, military governments, established for an indefinite period, would have offered no security for the early suppression of discontent; would have divided the people into the vanquishers and the vanquished; and would have envenomed hatred, rather than have restored affection. Once established, no precise limit to their continuance was conceivable. They would have occasioned an incalculable and exhausting expense. Peaceful emigration to and from that portion of the country is one of the best means that can be thought of for the restoration of harmony; and that emigration would have been prevented; for what emigrant from abroad, what industrious citizen at home would place himself willingly under military rule? The chief persons who would have followed in the train of the army would have been dependants on the General Government, or men who expected profit from the miseries of their erring fellow-citizens. The powers of patronage and rule which would have been exercised, under the President, over a vast, and populous, and naturally wealthy region, are greater than, unless under extreme necessity, I should be willing to intrust to any one man; they are such as, for myself, I could never, unless on occasions of great emergency, consent to exercise. The wilful use of such powers, if continued through a period of years, would have endangered the purity of the general administration and the liberties of the States which remained loyal.

Besides, the policy of military rule over a conquered territory would have implied that the State whose inhabitants may have taken part in the rebellion, had, by the act of those inhabitants, ceased to exist. But the true theory is, that all pretended acts of secession were, from the beginning, null and void. The States cannot commit treason, nor screen the individual citizens who may have committed treason, any more than they can make valid treaties or engage in lawful commerce with any foreign Power. The States attempting to secede, placed themselves in a condition where their vitality was impaired. but

not extinguished—their functions suspended, but not destroyed.

But if any State neglects or refuses to perform its offices, there is the more need that the General Government should maintain all its authority, and, as soon as practicable, resume the exercise of all its functions. On this principle I have acted, and have gradually and quietly, and by almost imperceptible steps, sought to restore the rightful energy of the General Government and of the States. To that end, Provisional Governors have been appointed for the States, Conventions called, Governors elected, Legislatures assembled, and Senators and Representatives chosen to the Congress of the United States. At the same time, the Courts of the United States, as far as could be done, have been reopened, so that the laws of the United States may be enforced through their agency. The blockade has been removed, and the custom-houses reestablished in ports of entry, so that the revenue of the United States may be collected. The Post-Office Department renews its ceaseless activity, and the General Government is thereby enabled to communicate promptly with its officers and agents. The courts bring security to persons and property; the opening of the ports invites the restoration of industry and commerce; the post-office renews the facilities of social intercourse and of business. And is it not happy for us all, that the restoration of each one of these functions of the General Government, brings with it a blessing to the States over which they are extended? Is it not a sure promise of harmony and renewed attachment to the Union that, after all that has happened, the return of the General Government is known only as a beneficence?

I know very well that this policy is attended with some risk; that for its success it requires at least the acquiescence of the States which it concerns; that it implies an invitation to those States, by renewing their allegiance to the United States, to resume their functions as States of the Union. But it is a risk that must be taken; in the choice of difficulties, it is the smallest risk; and to diminish, and, if possible, to remove all danger, I have felt it incumbent on me to assert one other power of the General Government—the power of pardon. As no State can throw a defence over the crime of treason, the power of pardon is exclusively vested in the Executive Government of the United States. In exercising that power, I have taken every precaution to connect it with the clearest recognition of the binding force of the laws of the United States, and an unqualified acknowledgment of the great social change of condition in regard to slavery which has grown out of the war.

The next step which I have taken to restore the constitutional relations of the States, has been an invitation to them to participate in the high office of amending the Constitution. Every patriot must wish for a general amnesty at the earliest epoch consistent with public safety. For this great end there is need of a concurrence of all opinions, and the spirit of mutual conciliation. All parties in the late terrible conflict, must work together in harmony. It is not too much to ask, in the name of the whole people, that, on the one side, the plan of restoration shall proceed in conformity with a willingness to cast the disorders of the past into oblivion; and that, on the other, the evidence of sincerity in the future maintenance of the Union, shall be put beyond any doubt by the ratification of the proposed amendment to the Constitution, which provides for the abolition of slavery forever within the limits of our country. So long as the adoption of this amendment is delayed, so long will doubt and jealousy and uncertainty prevail. This is the measure which will efface the sad memory of the past; this is the measure which will most certainly call population, and capital, and security to those parts of the Union that need them most. Indeed, it is not too much to ask of the States which are now resuming their places in the family of the Union, to give this pledge of perpetual loyalty and peace. Until it is done, the past,

however much we may desire it, will not be forgotten. The adoption of the amendment, reunites us beyond all power of disruption. It heals the wound that is still imperfectly closed; it removes slavery, the element which has so long perplexed and divided the country; it makes of us once more a united people, renewed and strengthened, bound more than ever to mutual affection and support.

The amendment to the Constitution being adopted, it would remain for the States, whose powers have been so long in abeyance, to resume their places in the two branches of the National Legislature, and thereby complete the work of restoration. Here it is for you, fellow-citizens of the Senate, and for you, fellow-citizens of the House of Representatives, to judge, each of you for yourselves, of the elections, returns, and qualifications of your own members.

The full assertion of the powers of the General Government, requires the holding of Circuit Courts of the United States within the districts where their authority has been interrupted. In the present posture of our public affairs, strong objections have been urged to holding those courts in any of the States where the rebellion has existed; and it was ascertained, by inquiry, that the Circuit Court of the United States would not be held within the District of Virginia during the autumn or early winter, nor until Congress should have "an opportunity to consider and act on the whole subject." To your deliberations the restoration of this branch of the civil authority of the United States is therefore necessarily referred, with the hope that early provision will be made for the resumption of all its functions. It is manifest that treason, most flagrant in character, has been committed. Persons who are charged with its commission, should have fair and impartial trials in the highest civil tribunals of the country, in order that the Constitution and the laws may be fully vindicated; the truth clearly established and affirmed that treason is a crime, that traitors should be punished and the offence made infamous; and, at the same time, that the question may be judicially settled, finally and forever, that no State of its own will has the right to renounce its place in the Union.

The relations of the General Government toward the four millions of inhabitants whom the war has called into freedom, have engaged my most serious consideration. On the propriety of attempting to make the freedmen electors by the proclamation of the Executive, I took for my counsel the Constitution itself, the interpretations of that instrument by its authors and their contemporaries, and recent legislation by Congress. When, at the first movement toward independence, the Congress of the United States instructed the several States to institute governments of their own, they left each State to decide for itself, the conditions for the enjoyment of the elective franchise. During the period of the Confederacy, there continued to exist a very great diversity in the qualifications of electors in the several States; and even within a State, a distinction of qualifications prevailed with regard to the officers who were to be chosen. The Constitution of the United States recognizes these diversities when it enjoins that in the choice of members of the House of Representatives of the United States, "the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature."

After the formation of the Constitution, it remained, as before, the uniform usage for each State to enlarge the body of its electors, according to its own judgment; and, under this system, one State after another has proceeded to increase the number of its electors, until now universal suffrage, or something very near it, is the general rule. So fixed was this reservation of power in the habits of the people, and so unquestioned has been the interpretation of the Constitution, that during the civil war the late President never harbored the purpose—certainly never avowed the purpose—of disregarding it; and in the acts of Con-

gress, during that period, nothing can be found which, during the continuance of hostilities, much less after their close, would have sanctioned any departure by the Executive, from a policy which has so uniformly obtained. Moreover, a concession of the elective franchise to the freedmen, by act of the President of the United States, must have been extended to all colored men, wherever found, and so must have established a change of suffrage in the Northern, Middle, and Western States, not less than in the Southern and Southwestern. Such an act would have created a new class of voters, and would have been an assumption of power by the President which nothing in the Constitution or laws of the United States would have warranted.

On the other hand, every danger of conflict is avoided when the settlement of the question is referred to the several States. They can, each for itself, decide on the measure, and whether it is to be adopted at once and absolutely, or introduced gradually and with conditions. In my judgment, the freedmen, if they show patience and manly virtues, will sooner obtain a participation in the elective franchise through the States than through the General Government, even if it had power to intervene. When the tumult of emotions that have been raised by the suddenness of the social change shall have subsided, it may prove that they will receive the kindest usage from some of those on whom they have heretofore most closely depended.

But while I have no doubt that now, after the close of the war, it is not competent for the General Government to extend the elective franchise in the several States, it is equally clear that good faith requires the security of the freedmen in their liberty and their property, their right to labor, and their right to claim the just return of their labor. I cannot too strongly urge a dispassionate treatment of this subject, which should be carefully kept aloof from all party strife. We must avoid hasty assumptions of any natural impossibility for the two races to live side by side, in a state of mutual benefit and good will. The experiment involves us in no inconsistency; let us, then, go on and make that experiment in good faith, and not be too easily disheartened. The country is in need of labor, and the freedmen are in need of employment, culture, and protection. While their right of voluntary migration and expatriation is not to be questioned, I would not advise their forced removal and colonization. Let us rather encourage them to honorable and useful industry, where it may be beneficial to themselves and to the country; and, instead of hasty anticipations of the certainty of failure, let there be nothing wanting to the fair trial of the experiment. The change in their condition is the substitution of labor by contract, for the status of slavery. The freedman cannot fairly be accused of unwillingness to work, so long as a doubt remains about his freedom of choice in his pursuits, and the certainty of his recovering his stipulated wages. In this the interests of the employer and the employed coincide. The employer desires in his workmen spirit and alacrity, and these can be permanently secured in no other way. And if the one ought to be able to enforce the contract, so ought the other. The public interest will be best promoted, if the several States will provide adequate protection and remedies for the freedmen. Until this is in some way accomplished, there is no chance for the advantageous use of their labor; and the blame of ill success will not rest on them.

I know that sincere philanthropy is earnest for the immediate realization of its remotest aims; but time is always an element in reform. It is one of the greatest acts on record, to have brought four millions of people into freedom. The career of free industry must be fairly opened to them; and then their future prosperity and condition must, after all, rest mainly on themselves. If they fail, and so perish away, let us be careful that the failure shall not be attributable

to any denial of justice. In all that relates to the destiny of the freedmen, we need not be too anxious to read the future; many incidents which, from a speculative point of view, might raise alarm, will quietly settle themselves.

Now that slavery is at an end, or near its end, the greatness of its evil, in the point of view of public economy, becomes more and more apparent. Slavery was essentially a monopoly of labor, and as such locked the States where it prevailed against the incoming of free industry. Where labor was the property of the capitalist, the white man was excluded from employment, or had but the second best chance of finding it; and the foreign emigrant turned away from the region where his condition would be so precarious. With the destruction of the monopoly, free labor will hasten from all parts of the civilized world to assist in developing various and immeasurable resources which have hitherto lain dormant. The eight or nine States nearest the Gulf of Mexico, have a soil of exuberant fertility, a climate friendly to long life, and can sustain a denser population than is found as yet in any part of our country. And the future influx to them will be mainly from the North, or from the most cultivated nations in Europe. From the sufferings that have attended them during our late struggle, let us look away to the future, which is sure to be laden for them with greater prosperity than has ever before been known. The removal of the monopoly of slave labor, is a pledge that those regions will be peopled by a numerous and enterprising population, which will vie with any in the Union in compactness, inventive genius, wealth, and industry.

Our Government springs from, and was made for the people—not the people for the Government. To them it owes allegiance; from them it must derive its courage, strength, and wisdom. But, while the Government is thus bound to defer to the people, from whom it derives its existence, it should, from the very consideration of its origin, be strong in its power of resistance to the establishment of inequalities. Monopolies, perpetuities, and class legislation are contrary to the genius of free government, and ought not to be allowed. Here, there is no room for favored classes or monopolies; the principle of our Government is that of equal laws and freedom of industry. Wherever monopoly attains a foothold, it is sure to be a source of danger, discord, and trouble. We shall but fulfil our duties as legislators, by according "equal and exact justice to all men," special privileges to none. The Government is subordinate to the people; but, as the agent and representative of the people, it must be held superior to monopolies, which, in themselves, ought never to be granted, and which, where they exist, must be subordinate and yield to the Government.

The Constitution confers on Congress the right to regulate commerce among the several States. It is of the first necessity, for the maintenance of the Union, that that commerce should be free and unobstructed. No State can be justified in any device to tax the transit of travel and commerce between States. The position of many States is such that, if they were allowed to take advantage of it for the purposes of local revenue, the commerce between States might be injuriously burdened, or even virtually prohibited. It is best, while the country is still young, and while the tendency to dangerous monopolies of this kind is still feeble, to use the power of Congress so as to prevent any selfish impediment to the free circulation of men and merchandise. A tax on travel and merchandise, in their transit, constitutes one of the worst forms of monopoly, and the evil is increased if coupled with a denial of the choice of route. When the vast extent of our country is considered, it is plain that every obstacle to the free circulation of commerce between the States ought to be sternly guarded against by appropriate legislation, within the limits of the Constitution.

The report of the Secretary of the Interior explains the condition of the public lands, the transactions of the Patent Office and the Pension Bureau, the management of our Indian affairs, the progress made in the construction of the Pacific Railroad, and furnishes information in reference to matters of local interest in the District of Columbia. It also presents evidence of the successful operation of the Homestead Act, under the provisions of which 1,160,583 acres of the public lands were entered during the last fiscal year—more than one-fourth of the whole number of acres sold or otherwise disposed of during that period. It is estimated that the receipts derived from this source are sufficient to cover the expenses incident to the survey and disposal of the lands entered under this act, and that payments in cash to the extent of from forty to fifty per cent. will be made by settlers, who may thus at any time acquire title before the expiration of the period at which it would otherwise vest. The homestead policy was established only after long and earnest resistance; experience proves its wisdom. The lands, in the hands of industrious settlers, whose labor creates wealth and contributes to the public resources, are worth more to the United States than if they had been reserved as a solitude for future purchasers.

The lamentable events of the last four years, and the sacrifices made by the gallant men of our army and navy, have swelled the records of the Pension Bureau to an unprecedented extent. On the 30th day of June last, the total number of pensioners was 85,988, requiring for their annual pay, exclusive of expenses, the sum of \$3,023,445. The number of applications that have been allowed since that date will require a large increase of this amount for the next fiscal year. The means for the payment of the stipends due, under existing laws, to our disabled soldiers and sailors, and to the families of such as have perished in the service of the country, will no doubt be cheerfully and promptly granted. A grateful people will not hesitate to sanction any measures having for their object the relief of soldiers mutilated and families made fatherless in the efforts to preserve our national existence.

The report of the Postmaster-General presents an encouraging exhibit of the operations of the Post-Office Department during the year. The revenues of the past year from the loyal States alone exceeded the maximum annual receipts from the States previous to the rebellion in the sum of \$6,038,091; and the annual average increase of revenue during the last four years, compared with the revenues of the last four years immediately preceding the rebellion, was \$3,533,845. The revenues of the last fiscal year amounted to \$14,538,158, and the expenditures to \$13,694,728, leaving a surplus of receipts over expenditures of \$861,430. Progress has been made in restoring the postal service in the Southern States. The views presented by the Postmaster-General against the policy of granting subsidies to ocean mail steamship lines upon established routes, and in favor of continuing the present system, which limits the compensation for ocean service to the postage earnings, are recommended to the careful consideration of Congress.

It appears, from the report of the Secretary of the Navy, that while, at the commencement of the present year, there were in commission 530 vessels of all classes and descriptions, armed with 3,000 guns and manned by 51,000 men; the number of vessels at present in commission is 117, with 830 guns and 13,128 men. By this prompt reduction of the naval forces the expenses of the Government have been largely diminished, and a number of vessels, purchased for naval purposes from the merchant marine, have been returned to the peaceful pursuits of commerce. Since the suppression of active hostilities our foreign squadrons have been reestablished, and consist of vessels much more efficient than those employed on similar service previous to the rebellion.

The suggestion for the enlargement of the navy yards, and especially for the establishment of one in fresh water for iron-clad vessels, is deserving of consideration, as is also the recommendation for a different location and more ample grounds for the Naval Academy.

In the report of the Secretary of War, a general summary is given of the military campaigns of 1864 and 1865, ending in the suppression of armed resistance to the national authority in the insurgent States. The operations of the general administrative Bureaus of the War Department during the past year are detailed, and an estimate made of the appropriations that will be required for military purposes in the fiscal year commencing the 30th day of June, 1866. The national military force on the 1st of May, 1865, numbered 1,000,516 men. It is proposed to reduce the military establishment to a peace footing, comprehending fifty thousand troops of all arms, organized so as to admit of an enlargement by filling up the ranks to eighty-two thousand six hundred, if the circumstances of the country should require an augmentation of the army. The volunteer force has already been reduced by the discharge from service of over eight hundred thousand troops, and the Department is proceeding rapidly in the work of further reduction. The war estimates are reduced from \$516,340,181 to \$33,814,461, which amount, in the opinion of the Department, is adequate for a peace establishment. The measures of retrenchment in each Bureau and branch of the service exhibit a diligent economy worthy of commendation. Reference is also made in the report to the necessity of providing for a uniform militia system, and to the propriety of making suitable provision for wounded and disabled officers and soldiers.

The revenue system of the country is a subject of vital interest to its honor and prosperity, and should command the earnest consideration of Congress. The Secretary of the Treasury will lay before you a full and detailed report of the receipts and disbursements of the last fiscal year, of the first quarter of the present fiscal year, of the probable receipts and expenditures for the other three quarters, and the estimates for the year following the 30th of June, 1866. I might content myself with a reference to that report, in which you will find all the information required for your deliberations and decision. But the paramount importance of the subject so presses itself on my own mind, that I cannot but lay before you my views of the measures which are required for the good character, and I might also say, for the existence of this people. The life of a republic lies certainly in the energy, virtue, and intelligence of its citizens; but it is equally true that a good revenue system is the life of an organized government. I meet you at a time when the nation has voluntarily burdened itself with a debt unprecedented in our annals. Vast as is its amount, it fades away into nothing when compared with the countless blessings that will be conferred upon our country and upon man by the preservation of the nation's life. Now, on the first occasion of the meeting of Congress since the return of peace, it is of the utmost importance to inaugurate a just policy, which shall at once be put in motion, and which shall commend itself to those who come after us for its continuance. We must aim at nothing less than the complete effacement of the financial evils that necessarily followed a state of civil war. We must endeavor to apply the earliest remedy to the deranged state of the currency, and not shrink from devising a policy which, without being oppressive to the people, shall immediately begin to effect a reduction of the debt, and, if persisted in, discharge it fully within a definitely fixed number of years.

It is our first duty to prepare in earnest for our recovery from the ever-increasing evils of an irredeemable currency, without a sudden revulsion, and yet without untimely procrastination. For that end, we must, each in our respective positions, prepare

the way. I hold it the duty of the Executive to insist upon a frugality in the expenditures; and a sparing economy is itself a great national resource. Of the banks to which authority has been given to issue notes secured by bonds of the United States, we may require the greatest moderation and prudence, and the law must be rigidly enforced when its limits are exceeded. We may, each one of us, counsel our active and enterprising countrymen to be constantly on their guard, to liquidate debts contracted in a paper currency, and, by conducting business as nearly as possible on a system of cash payment or short credits, to hold themselves prepared to return to the standard of gold and silver. To aid our fellow-citizens in the prudent management of their monetary affairs, the duty devolves on us to diminish by law the amount of paper money now in circulation. Five years ago the bank-note circulation of the country amounted to not much more than two hundred millions; now the circulation, bank and national, exceeds seven hundred millions. The simple statement of the fact recommends more strongly than any words of mine could do, the necessity of our restraining this expansion. The gradual reduction of the currency is the only measure that can save the business of the country from disastrous calamities; and this can be almost imperceptibly accomplished by gradually funding the national circulation in securities that may be made redeemable at the pleasure of the Government.

Our debt is doubly secure—first in the actual wealth and still greater undeveloped resources of the country; and next in the character of our institutions. The most intelligent observers among political economists have not failed to remark, that the public debt of a country is safe in proportion as its people are free; that the debt of a republic is the safest of all. Our history confirms and establishes the theory, and is, I firmly believe, destined to give it a still more signal illustration. The secret of this superiority springs not merely from the fact that in a republic the national obligations are distributed more widely through countless numbers in all classes of society; it has its root in the character of our laws. Here all men contribute to the public welfare, and bear their fair share of the public burdens. During the war, under the impulses of patriotism, the men of the great body of the people, without regard to their own comparative want of wealth, thronged to our armies and filled our fleets of war, and held themselves ready to offer their lives for the public good. Now, in their turn, the property and income of the country should bear their just proportion of the burden of taxation, while in our impost system, through means of which increased vitality is incidentally imparted to all the industrial interests of the nation, the duties should be so adjusted as to fall most heavily on articles of luxury, leaving the necessities of life as free from taxation as the absolute wants of the Government, economically administered, will justify. No favored class should demand freedom from assessment, and the taxes should be so distributed as not to fall unduly on the poor, but rather on the accumulated wealth of the country. We should look at the national debt just as it is—not as a national blessing, but as a heavy burden on the industry of the country, to be discharged without unnecessary delay.

It is estimated by the Secretary of the Treasury that the expenditures for the fiscal year ending the 30th of June, 1866, will exceed the receipts \$112,194,947. It is gratifying, however, to state that it is also estimated that the revenue for the year ending the 30th of June, 1867, will exceed the expenditures in the sum of \$111,682,818. This amount, or so much as may be deemed sufficient for the purpose, may be applied to the reduction of the public debt, which, on the 31st day of October, 1865, was \$2,740,854,750. Every reduction will diminish the total amount of interest to be paid, and so enlarge the means of still

further reductions, until the whole shall be liquidated; and this, as will be seen from the estimates of the Secretary of the Treasury, may be accomplished by annual payments even within a period not exceeding thirty years. I have faith that we shall do all this within a reasonable time; that, as we have amazed the world by the suppression of a civil war which was thought to be beyond the control of any Government, so we shall equally show the superiority of our institutions by the prompt and faithful discharge of our national obligations.

The Department of Agriculture, under its present direction, is accomplishing much in developing and utilizing the vast agricultural capabilities of the country, and for information respecting the details of its management reference is made to the annual report of the Commissioner.

I have dwelt thus fully on our domestic affairs because of their transcendent importance. Under any circumstances, our great extent of territory and variety of climate, producing almost every thing that is necessary for the wants, and even the comforts of man, make us singularly independent of the varying policy of foreign Powers, and protect us against every temptation to "entangling alliances," while at the present moment the reestablishment of harmony and the strength that comes from harmony, will be our best security against "nations who feel power and forget right." For myself, it has been and it will be my constant aim to promote peace and amity with all foreign nations and Powers; and I have every reason to believe that they all, without exception, are animated by the same disposition. Our relations with the Emperor of China, so recent in their origin, are most friendly. Our commerce with his dominions is receiving new developments; and it is very pleasing to find that the Government of that great Empire manifests satisfaction with our policy, and reposes just confidence in the fairness which marks our intercourse. The unbroken harmony between the United States and the Emperor of Russia is receiving a new support from an enterprise designed to carry telegraphic lines across the continent of Asia, through his dominions, and so to connect us with all Europe by a new channel of intercourse.

Our commerce with South America is about to receive encouragement by a direct line of mail steamships to the rising Empire of Brazil. The distinguished party of men of science who have recently left our country to make a scientific exploration of the natural history and rivers and mountain ranges of that region, have received from the Emperor that generous welcome which was to have been expected from his constant friendship for the United States, and his well-known zeal in promoting the advancement of knowledge. A hope is entertained that our commerce with the rich and populous countries that border the Mediterranean Sea may be largely increased. Nothing will be wanting, on the part of this Government, to extend the protection of our flag over the enterprise of our fellow-citizens. We receive from the Powers in that region assurances of good will; and it is worthy of note that a special envoy has brought us messages of condolence on the death of our late Chief Magistrate from the Bey of Tunis, whose rule includes the old dominions of Carthage, on the African coast.

Our domestic contest, now happily ended, has left some traces of our relations with one at least of the great maritime Powers. The formal accordance of belligerent rights to the insurgent States was unprecedented, and has not been justified by the issue. But in the systems of neutrality pursued by the Powers which made that concession, there was a marked difference. The materials of war for the insurgent States were furnished, in a great measure, from the workshops of Great Britain; and British ships, manned by British subjects, and prepared for receiving British armaments, sailed from the ports of Great Britain to make war on American commerce, under

the shelter of a commission from the insurgent States. These ships, having once escaped from British ports, ever afterward entered them in every part of the world, to refit, and so to renew their depredations. The consequences of this conduct were most disastrous to the States then in rebellion, increasing their desolation and misery by the prolongation of our civil contest. It had, moreover, the effect, to a great extent, to drive the American flag from the sea, and to transfer much of our shipping and our commerce to the very Power whose subjects had created the necessity for such a change. These events took place before I was called to the administration of the Government. The sincere desire for peace by which I am animated led me to approve the proposal, already made, to submit the questions which had thus arisen between the countries to arbitration. These questions are of such moment that they must have commanded the attention of the great Powers, and are so interwoven with the peace and interests of every one of them as to have insured an impartial decision. I regret to inform you that Great Britain declined the arbitrament, but, on the other hand, invited us to the formation of a joint commission to settle mutual claims between the two countries, from which those for the depredations before mentioned should be excluded. The proposition, in that very unsatisfactory form, has been declined.

The United States did not present the subject as an impeachment of the good faith of a Power which was professing the most friendly dispositions, but as involving questions of public law, of which the settlement is essential to the peace of nations; and, though pecuniary reparation to their injured citizens would have followed incidentally on a decision against Great Britain, such compensation was not their primary object. They had a higher motive, and it was in the interests of peace and justice to establish important principles of international law. The correspondence will be placed before you. The ground on which the British Minister rests his justification is, substantially, that the municipal law of a nation, and the domestic interpretations of that law, are the measure of its duty as a neutral; and I feel bound to declare my opinion, before you and before the world, that that justification cannot be sustained before the tribunal of nations. At the same time I do not advise to any present attempt at redress by acts of legislation. For the future, friendship between the two countries must rest on the basis of mutual justice.

From the moment of the establishment of our free Constitution, the civilized world has been convulsed by revolutions in the interests of democracy or of monarchy; but through all those revolutions the United States have wisely and firmly refused to become propagandists of republicanism. It is the only government suited to our condition; but we have never sought to impose it on others; and we have consistently followed the advice of Washington to recommend it only by the careful preservation and prudent use of the blessing. During all the intervening period the policy of European Powers and of the United States has, on the whole, been harmonious. Twice, indeed, rumors of the invasion of some parts of America, in the interest of monarchy, have prevailed; twice my predecessors have had occasion to announce the views of this nation in respect to such interference. On both occasions the remonstrance of the United States was respected, from a deep conviction, on the part of European governments, that the system of non-interference and mutual abstinence of propagandism was the true rule for the two hemispheres. Since those times we have advanced in wealth and power; but we retain the same purpose to leave the nations of Europe to choose their own dynasties and form their own systems of government. This consistent moderation may justly demand a corresponding moderation. We should regard it as a great calamity to ourselves, to the cause of good government, and to the peace of the world, should any

European Power challenge the American people, as it were, to the defence of republicanism against foreign interference. We cannot foresee and are unwilling to consider what opportunities might present themselves, what combinations might offer to protect ourselves against designs inimical to our form of government. The United States desire to act in the future as they have ever acted heretofore; they never will be driven from that course but by the aggression of European Powers; and we rely on the wisdom and justice of those Powers to respect the system of non-interference which has so long been sanctioned by time, and which, by its good results, has approved itself to both continents.

The correspondence between the United States and France, in reference to questions which have become subjects of discussion between the two governments, will, at a proper time, be laid before Congress.

When, on the organization of our Government, under the Constitution, the President of the United States delivered his inaugural address to the two Houses of Congress, he said to them, and through them to the country and to mankind, that "the preservation of the sacred fire of liberty and the destiny of the republican model of government are justly considered as deeply, perhaps as finally staked on the experiment intrusted to the American people." And the House of Representatives answered Washington by the voice of Madison: "We adore the invisible hand which has led the American people through so many difficulties, to cherish a conscious responsibility for the destiny of republican liberty." More than seventy-six years have glided away since these words were spoken; the United States have passed through severer trials than were foreseen; and now, at this new epoch of our existence as one nation, with our Union purified by sorrows, and strengthened by conflict, and established by the virtue of the people, the greatness of the occasion invites us once more to repeat, with solemnity, the pledges of our fathers to hold ourselves answerable before our fellow-men for the success of the republican form of government. Experience has proved its sufficiency in peace and in war; it has vindicated its authority through dangers and afflictions, and sudden and terrible emergencies, which would have crushed any system that had been less firmly fixed in the heart of the people.

At the inauguration of Washington the foreign relations of the country were few, and its trade was repressed by hostile regulations; now all the civilized nations of the globe welcome our commerce, and their Governments profess toward us amity. Then our country felt its way hesitatingly along an untried path, with States so little bound together by rapid means of communication as to be hardly known to one another, and with historic traditions extending over very few years; now intercourse between the States is swift and intimate; the experience of centuries has been crowded into a few generations, and has created an intense, indestructible nationality. Then our jurisdiction did not reach beyond the inconvenient boundaries of the territory which had achieved independence; now through cessions of lands, first colonized by Spain and France, the country has acquired a more complex character, and has for its natural limits the chain of lakes, the Gulf of Mexico, and on the east and west the two great oceans. Other nations were wasted by civil wars for ages before they could establish for themselves the necessary degree of unity; the latent conviction that our form of government is the best ever known to the world, has enabled us to emerge from civil war within four years, with a complete vindication of the constitutional authority of the General Government, and with our local liberties and State institutions unimpaired.

The throngs of emigrants that crowd to our shores are witnesses of the confidence of all people in our permanence. Here is the great land of free labor, where industry is blessed with unexampled rewards.

and the bread of the workingman is sweetened by the consciousness that the cause of the country "is his own cause, his own safety, his own dignity." Here every one enjoys the free use of his faculties and the choice of activity as a natural right. Here, under the combined influence of a fruitful soil, genial climes, and happy institutions, population has increased fifteen-fold within a century. Here, through the easy development of boundless resources, wealth has increased with two-fold greater rapidity than numbers, so that we have become secure against the financial vicissitudes of other countries, and, alike in business and in opinion, are self-centred and truly independent. Here more and more care is given to provide education for every one born on our soil. Here religion, released from political connection with the civil government, refuses to subserve the craft of statesmen, and becomes, in its independence, the spiritual life of the people. Here toleration is extended to every opinion, in the quiet certainty that truth needs only a fair field to secure the victory. Here the human mind goes forth unshackled in the pursuit of science, to collect stores of knowledge and acquire an ever-increasing mastery over the forces of Nature. Here the national domain is offered and held in millions of separate freeholds, so that our fellow-citizens, beyond the occupants of any other part of the earth, constitute in reality a people. Here exists the democratic form of government; and that form of government, by the confession of European statesmen, "gives a power of which no other form is capable, because it incorporates every man with the State, and arouses every thing that belongs to the soul."

Where, in past history, does a parallel exist to the public happiness which is within the reach of the people of the United States? Where, in any part of the globe, can institutions be found so suited to their habits or so entitled to their love as their own free Constitution? Every one of them, then, in whatever part of the land he has his home, must wish its perpetuity. Who of them will not now acknowledge, in the words of Washington, that "every step by which the people of the United States have advanced to the character of an independent nation, seems to have been distinguished by some token of Providential agency"? Who will not join with me in the prayer, that the invisible hand which has led us through the clouds that gloomed around our path, will so guide us onward to a perfect restoration of fraternal affection, that we of this day may be able to transmit our great inheritance of State governments in all their rights, of the General Government in its whole constitutional vigor, to our posterity, and they to theirs through countless generations?

ANDREW JOHNSON.

Washington, Dec. 4, 1865.

Message of JEFFERSON DAVIS to the Congress at Richmond, March 13, 1865.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the Confederate States of America:

When informed on Thursday last that it was the intention of Congress to adjourn *sine die* on the ensuing Saturday, I deemed it my duty to request a postponement of the adjournment, in order that I might submit, for your consideration, certain matters of public interest, which are now laid before you. When that request was made, the most important measures that had occupied your attention during the session had not been so far advanced as to be submitted for Executive action, and the state of the country had been so materially affected by the events of the last four months as to evince the necessity of further and more energetic legislation than was contemplated in November last.

Our country is now environed with perils which it is our duty calmly to contemplate. Thus alone

can the measures necessary to avert threatened calamities be wisely devised and efficiently enforced.

Recent military operations of the enemy have been successful in the capture of some of our seaports, in interrupting some of our lines of communication, and in devastating large districts of our country. These events have had the natural effect of encouraging our foes and dispiriting many of our people. The capital of the Confederate States is now threatened, and is in greater danger than it has heretofore been during the war. The fact is stated without reserve or concealment, as due to the people whose servants we are, and in whose courage and constancy entire trust is reposed; as due to you, in whose wisdom and resolute spirit the people have confided for the adoption of the measures required to guard them from threatened perils.

While stating to you that our country is in danger, I desire also to state my deliberate conviction that it is within our power to avert the calamities which menace us, and to secure the triumph of the sacred cause for which so much sacrifice has been made, so much suffering endured, so many precious lives have been lost. This result is to be obtained by fortitude, by courage, by constancy in enduring the sacrifices still needed; in a word, by the prompt and resolute devotion of the whole resources of men and money in the Confederacy to the achievement of our liberties and independence.

The measures now required, to be successful, should be prompt. Long deliberation and protracted debate over important measures are not only natural, but laudable, in representative assemblies under ordinary circumstances; but in moments of danger, when action becomes urgent, the delay thus caused is itself a new source of peril. Thus it has unfortunately happened that some of the measures passed by you in pursuance of the recommendations contained in my message of November last, have been so retarded as to lose much of their value, or have, for the same reason, been abandoned after being matured, because no longer applicable to our altered condition; and others have not been brought under examination. In making these remarks, it is far from my intention to attribute the loss of time to any other causes than those inherent in deliberative assemblies, but only urgently to recommend prompt action upon the measures now submitted.

We need, for carrying on the war successfully, men and supplies for the army. We have both within our country sufficient to attain success.

To obtain the supplies it is necessary to protect productive districts, guard our lines of communication by an increase in the number of our forces; and hence it results, that with a large augmentation in the number of men in the army, the facility of supplying the troops would be greater than with our recent reduced strength.

For the purchase of supplies now required, especially for the armies in Virginia and North Carolina, the treasury must be provided with means, and a modification in the impressment law is required. It has been ascertained, by examination, that we have within our reach a sufficiency of what is most needed for the army, and without having recourse to the ample provision existing in those parts of the Confederacy with which our communication has been partially interrupted by hostile operations. But in some districts from which supplies are to be drawn the inhabitants, being either within the enemy's lines or in very close proximity, are unable to make use of Confederate treasury notes for the purchase of articles of prime necessity; and it is necessary that, to some extent, coin be paid, in order to obtain supplies. It is therefore recommended that Congress devise the means for making available the coin within the Confederacy for the purpose of supplying the army. The officers of the supply departments report that, with two millions of dollars in coin, the armies in Virginia and North Carolina can be amply

supplied for the remainder of the year; and the knowledge of this fact should suffice to insure the adoption of the measures necessary to obtain this moderate sum.

The impressment law, as it now exists, prohibits the public officers from impressing supplies without making payment of the valuation at the time of impressment. The limit fixed for the issue of treasury notes has been nearly reached, and the Treasury cannot easily furnish the funds necessary for prompt payment; while the law for raising revenue, which would have afforded means for diminishing, if not removing, this difficulty, was unfortunately delayed for several months, and has just been signed. In this condition of things it is impossible to supply the army, although ample stores may exist in the country, whenever the owners refuse to give credit to the public officer. It is necessary that this restriction on the power of impressment be removed. The power is admitted to be objectionable, liable to abuse, and unequal in its operation on individuals; yet all these objections must yield to absolute necessity. It is also suggested that the system of valuation now established ought to be radically changed. The legislation requires, in such cases of impressment, that the market price be paid; but there is really no market price in many cases, and then valuation is made arbitrarily and in a depreciated currency. The result is, that the most extravagant prices are fixed, such as no one expects ever to be paid in coin. None believe that the Government can ever redeem in coin the obligation to pay fifty dollars a bushel for corn, or seven hundred dollars a barrel for flour. It would seem to be more just and appropriate to estimate the supplies impressed at their value in coin, to give the obligation of the Government for the payment of the price in coin, with reasonable interest; or, at the option of the creditor, to return in kind the wheat and corn impressed, with a reasonable interest, also payable in kind; and to make the obligations thus issued receivable for all payments due in coin to the Government. Whatever be the value attached by Congress to these suggestions, it is hoped that there will be no hesitation in so changing the law as to render it possible to supply the army in case of necessity for the impressment of provisions for that purpose.

The measure adopted to raise revenue, though liberal in its provisions, being clearly inadequate to meet the arrear of debt and current expenditures, some degree of embarrassment in the management of the finances must continue to be felt. It is to be regretted, I think, that the recommendation of the Secretary of the Treasury, of a tax on agricultural income equal to the augmented tax on other incomes, payable in treasury notes, was rejected by Congress. This tax would have contributed materially to facilitate the purchase of provisions and diminish the necessity that is now felt for a supply of corn.

The measures passed by Congress during the session for recruiting the army and supplying the additional force needed for the public defence have been, in my judgment, insufficient, and I am impelled by a profound conviction of duty, and stimulated by a sense of the perils which surround our country, to urge upon you additional legislation upon this subject.

The bill for employing negroes for soldiers has not yet reached me, though the printed journals of your proceedings inform me of its passage. Much benefit is anticipated from this measure, though far less than would have resulted from its adoption at an earlier date, so as to afford time for their organization and instruction during the winter months.

The bill for diminishing the number of exemptions has just been made the subject of a special message, and its provisions are such as would add no strength to the army. The recommendation to abolish all class exemptions has not met your favor, although

still deemed by me a valuable and important measure; and the number of men exempted by a new clause in the act thus passed is believed to be quite equal to that of those whose exemption is revoked. A law of a few lines repealing all class exemptions would not only strengthen the forces in the field, but be still more beneficial by abating the natural discontent and jealousy created in the army by the existence of classes privileged by law to remain in places of safety while their fellow-citizens are exposed in the trenches and the field.

The measure most needed, however, at the present time, for affording an effective increase to our military strength, is a general militia law, such as the Constitution authorizes Congress to pass by granting to it power "to provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the Confederate States," and the further power "to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Confederate States, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions." The necessity for the exercise of this power can never exist if not in the circumstances that now surround us. The security of the States against any encroachment by the Confederate Government is amply provided for by the Constitution, by "reserving to the States, respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress."

A law is needed to prescribe not only how, and of what persons, the militia are to be organized, but to provide the mode of calling them out. If instances be required to show the necessity of such general law, it is sufficient to mention that, in one case, I have been informed by the governor of a State that the law does not permit him to call the militia from one county for service in another; so that a single brigade of the enemy could traverse the State, and devastate each county in turn, without any power on the part of the Executive to use the militia for effective defence; while in another State the Executive refused to allow the militia "to be employed in the service of the Confederate States," in the absence of a law for that purpose.

I have heretofore, in a confidential message to the two Houses, stated the facts which induced me to consider it necessary that the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* should be suspended. The conviction of the necessity of this measure has become deeper as the events of the struggle have been developed. Congress has not concurred with me in opinion. It is my duty to say that the time has arrived when the suspension of the writ is not simply advisable and expedient, but almost indispensable to the successful conduct of the war. On Congress must rest the responsibility of declining to exercise a power conferred by the Constitution as a means of public safety, to be used in periods of national peril resulting from foreign invasion. If our present circumstances are not such as were contemplated when this power was conferred, I confess myself at a loss to imagine any contingency in which this clause of the Constitution will not remain a dead letter.

With the prompt adoption of the measures above recommended, and the united and hearty cooperation of Congress and the people in the execution of the laws and defence of the country, we may enter upon the present campaign with cheerful confidence in the result. And who can doubt the continued existence of that spirit and fortitude in the people, and of that constancy under reverses which alone are needed to render our triumph secure? What other resource remains available but the undying, unconquerable resolve to be free? It has become certain, beyond all doubt or question, that we must continue this struggle to a successful issue, or must make abject and unconditional submission to such terms as it shall please the conqueror to impose on us after our surrender. If a possible doubt could exist after the

conference between our commissioners and Mr. Lincoln, as recently reported to you, it would be dispelled by a recent occurrence, of which it is proper you should be informed.

Congress will remember that, in the conference above referred to, our commissioners were informed that the Government of the United States would not enter into any agreement or treaty whatever with the Confederate States, nor with any single State; and that the only possible mode of obtaining peace was by laying down our arms, disbanding our forces, and yielding unconditional obedience to the laws of the United States, including those passed for the confiscation of our property and the constitutional amendment for the abolition of slavery. It will further be remembered that Mr. Lincoln declared that the only terms on which hostilities could cease were those stated in his message of December last, in which we were informed, that in the event of our penitent submission, he would temper justice with mercy, and that the question whether we would be governed as dependent territories, or permitted to have a representation in their Congress, was one on which he could promise nothing, but which would be decided by their Congress after our submission had been accepted.

It has not, however, been hitherto stated to you that in the course of the conference at Fortress Monroe, a suggestion was made by one of our commissioners that the objections entertained by Mr. Lincoln to treating with the Government of the Confederacy, or with any separate State, might be avoided by substituting for the usual mode of negotiating through commissioners, or other diplomatic agents, the method sometimes employed, of a military convention, to be entered into by the commanding generals of the armies of the two belligerents. This, he admitted, was a power possessed by him, though it was not thought commensurate with all the questions involved. As he did not accept the suggestion when made, he was afterwards requested to reconsider his conclusion upon the subject of a suspension of hostilities, which he agreed to do, but said that he had maturely considered of the plan, and had determined that it could not be done.

Subsequently, however, an interview with General Longstreet was asked for by General Ord, commanding the enemy's Army of the James, during which General Longstreet was informed by him that there was a possibility of arriving at a satisfactory adjustment of the present unhappy difficulties by means of a military convention, and that if General Lee desired an interview on the subject it would not be declined, provided General Lee had authority to act. This communication was supposed to be the consequence of the suggestion referred to, and General Lee, according to instructions, wrote to General Grant, on the 2d of this month, proposing to meet him for conference on the subject, and stating that he was vested with the requisite authority. General Grant's reply stated that he had no authority to accede to the proposed conference; that his powers extended only to making a convention on subjects purely of a military character, and that General Ord could only have meant that an interview would not be refused on any subject on which he (General Grant) had the right to act.

It thus appears that neither with the Confederate authorities, nor the authorities of any State, nor through the commanding generals, will the Government of the United States treat or make any terms or agreement whatever for the cessation of hostilities. There remains then for us no choice but to continue this contest to a final issue; for the people of the Confederacy can be but little known to him who supposes it possible they would ever consent to purchase, at the cost of degradation and slavery, permission to live in a country garrisoned by their own negroes and governed by officers sent by the conqueror to rule over them.

Having thus fully placed before you the information requisite to enable you to judge of the state of the country, the dangers to which we are exposed, and the measures of legislation needed for averting them, it remains for me but to invoke your attention to the consideration of those means by which, above all others, we may hope to escape the calamities that would result from our failure. Prominent, above all others, is the necessity for earnest and cordial co-operation between all departments of government, State and Confederate, and all eminent citizens throughout the Confederacy. To you especially, as Senators and Representatives, do the people look for encouragement and counsel. To your action, not only in legislative halls, but in your homes, will their eyes be turned for the example of what is befitting men who, by willing sacrifices on the altar of freedom, show that they are worthy to enjoy its blessings. I feel full confidence that you will concur with me in the conviction that your public duties will not be ended when you shall have closed the legislative labors of the session, but that your voice will be heard cheering and encouraging the people to that persistent fortitude which they have hitherto displayed, and animating them by the manifestation of that serene confidence which, in moments of public danger, is the distinctive characteristic of the patriot, who derives courage from his devotion to his country's destiny, and is thus enabled to inspire the like courage in others.

Thus united in a common and holy cause, rising above all selfish considerations, rendering all our means and faculties tributary to the country's welfare, let us bow submissively to the Divine will, and reverently invoke the blessing of our Heavenly Father, that as He protected and guided our sires when struggling in a similar cause, so He will enable us to guard safely our altars and firesides, and maintain inviolate the political rights which we inherited.

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

RICHMOND, March 18, 1865.

Report of Lieutenant-General U. S. GRANT, of the operations of the Armies of the United States during the years 1864-'65.

HEADQUARTERS ARMIES OF THE UNITED STATES, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., July 22, 1865. }

SIR: I have the honor to submit the following report of the operations of the armies of the United States from the date of my appointment to command the same:

From an early period in the rebellion I had been impressed with the idea that active and continuous operations of all the troops that could be brought into the field, regardless of season and weather, were necessary to a speedy termination of the war. The resources of the enemy and his numerical strength were far inferior to ours; but as an offset to this, we had a vast territory with a population hostile to the Government, to garrison, and long lines of river and railroad communications to protect, to enable us to supply the operating armies.

The armies in the East and West acted independently and without concert, like a balky team, no two ever pulling together, enabling the enemy to use to great advantage his interior lines of communication for transporting troops from East to West, reinforcing the army most vigorously pressed, and to furnish large numbers, during seasons of inactivity on our part, to go to their homes and do the work of producing for the support of their armies. It was a question whether our numerical strength and resources were not more than balanced by these disadvantages and the enemy's superior position.

From the first, I was firm in the conviction that no peace could be had that would be stable and conducive to the happiness of the people, both North

and South, until the military power of the rebellion was entirely broken.

I therefore determined, first, to use the greatest number of troops practicable against the armed force of the enemy; preventing him from using the same force at different seasons against first one and then another of our armies, and the possibility of repose for refitting and producing necessary supplies for carrying on resistance. Second, to hammer continuously against the armed force of the enemy and his resources, until by mere attrition, if in no other way, there should be nothing left to him but an equal submission with the loyal section of our common country to the Constitution and laws of the land.

These views have been kept constantly in mind, and orders given and campaigns made to carry them out. Whether they might have been better in conception and execution is for the people, who mourn the loss of friends fallen, and who have to pay the pecuniary cost, to say. All I can say is, that what I have done has been done conscientiously, to the best of my ability, and in what I conceived to be for the best interests of the whole country.

At the date when this report begins the situation of the contending forces was about as follows: The Mississippi River was strongly garrisoned by Federal troops from St. Louis, Missouri, to its mouth. The line of the Arkansas was also held, thus giving us armed possession of all west of the Mississippi, north of that stream. A few points in southern Louisiana, not remote from the river, were held by us, together with a small garrison at and near the mouth of the Rio Grande. All the balance of the vast territory of Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas, was in the almost undisputed possession of the enemy, with an army of probably not less than 60,000 effective men that could have been brought into the field had there been sufficient opposition to have brought them out. The *let-alone policy* had demoralized this force so much that probably little more than one-half of it was ever present in garrison at any one time. But the one-half, or 40,000 men, with the bands of guerrillas scattered through Missouri, Arkansas, and along the Mississippi River, and the disloyal character of much of the population, compelled the use of a large number of troops to keep navigation open on the river, and to protect the loyal people to the west of it. To the east of the Mississippi we held substantially with the line of the Tennessee and Holston Rivers, running eastward to include nearly all of the State of Tennessee. South of Chattanooga a small foothold had been obtained in Georgia, sufficient to protect East Tennessee from incursions from the enemy's force at Dalton, Georgia. West Virginia was substantially within our lines. Virginia, with the exception of the northern border, the Potomac River, a small area about the mouth of James River covered by the troops of Norfolk and Fort Monroe, and the territory covered by the Army of the Potomac lying along the Rapidan, was in the possession of the enemy. Along the sea-coast footholds had been obtained at Plymouth, Washington, and Newbern, in North Carolina; Beaufort, Folly and Morris Islands, Hilton Head, Fort Pulaski, and Port Royal, in South Carolina; Fernandina and St. Augustine, in Florida. Key West and Pensacola were also in our possession, while all the important ports were blockaded by the navy. The accompanying map, a copy of which was sent to General Sherman and other commanders in March, 1864, shows by red lines the territory occupied by us at the beginning of the rebellion and at the opening of the campaign of 1864, while those in blue are the lines which it was proposed to occupy.

Behind the Union lines there were many bands of guerrillas and a large population disloyal to the Government, making it necessary to guard every foot of road or river used in supplying our armies. In the South a reign of military despotism prevailed, which made every man and boy capable of bearing arms a

soldier, and those who could not bear arms in the field acted as provosts for collecting deserters and returning them. This enabled the enemy to bring almost his entire strength into the field.

The enemy had concentrated the bulk of his forces east of the Mississippi into two armies, commanded by Generals R. E. Lee and J. E. Johnston, his ablest and best generals. The army commanded by Lee occupied the south bank of the Rapidan, extending from Mine Run westward, strongly intrenched, covering and defending Richmond, the rebel capital, against the Army of the Potomac. The army under Johnston occupied a strongly intrenched position at Dalton, Georgia, covering and defending Atlanta, Georgia, a place of great importance as a railroad centre, against the armies under Major-General W. T. Sherman. In addition to these armies, he had a large cavalry force under Forrest, in northeast Mississippi; a considerable force, of all arms, in the Shenandoah Valley, and in the western part of Virginia and extreme eastern part of Tennessee; and also confronting our sea-coast garrisons, and holding blockaded ports where we had no foothold upon land.

These two armies, and the cities covered and defended by them, were the main objective points of the campaign.

Major-General W. T. Sherman, who was appointed to the command of the Military Division of the Mississippi, embracing all the armies and territory east of the Mississippi River to the Alleghenies, and the Department of Arkansas, west of the Mississippi, had the immediate command of the armies operating against Johnston.

Major-General George G. Meade had the immediate command of the Army of the Potomac, from where I exercised general supervision of the movements of all our armies.

General Sherman was instructed to move against Johnston's army, to break it up, and to go into the interior of the enemy's country as far as he could, inflicting all the damage he could upon their war resources. If the enemy in his front showed signs of joining Lee, to follow him up to the full extent of his ability, while I would prevent the concentration of Lee upon him if it was in the power of the Army of the Potomac to do so. More specific written instructions were not given, for the reason that I had talked over with him the plans of the campaign, and was satisfied that he understood them and would execute them to the fullest extent possible.

Major-General N. P. Banks, then on an expedition up Red River against Shreveport, Louisiana (which had been organized previous to my appointment to command), was notified by me on the 15th of March, of the importance it was that Shreveport should be taken at the earliest possible day, and that if he found that the taking of it would occupy from ten to fifteen days' more time than General Sherman had given his troops to be absent from their command, he would send them back at the time specified by General Sherman, even if it led to the abandonment of the main object of the Red River expedition, for this force was necessary to movements east of the Mississippi; that should his expedition prove successful, he would hold Shreveport and the Red River with such force as he might deem necessary, and return the balance of his troops to the neighborhood of New Orleans, commencing no move for the further acquisition of territory unless it was to make that then held by him more easily held; that it might be a part of the spring campaign to move against Mobile; that it certainly would be if troops enough could be obtained to make it without embarrassing other movements; that New Orleans would be the point of departure for such an expedition; also, that I had directed General Steele to make a real move from Arkansas, as suggested by him (General Banks), instead of a demonstration, as Steele thought advisable.

On the 31st of March, in addition to the foregoing notification and directions, he was instructed as follows:

1st. If successful in your expedition against Shreveport, that you turn over the defence of the Red River to General Steele and the navy.

2d. That you abandon Texas entirely with the exception of your hold upon the Rio Grande. This can be held with four thousand men, if they will turn their attention immediately to fortifying their positions. At least one-half of the force required for this service might be taken from the colored troops.

3d. By properly fortifying on the Mississippi River, the force to guard it from Port Hudson to New Orleans can be reduced to ten thousand men, if not to a less number. Six thousand more would then hold all the rest of the territory necessary to hold until active operations can again be resumed west of the river. According to your last return this would give you a force of over thirty thousand effective men with which to move against Mobile. To this I expect to add five thousand men from Missouri. If, however, you think the force here stated too small to hold the territory regarded as necessary to hold possession of, I would say concentrate at least twenty-five thousand men of your present command for operations against Mobile. With these and such additions as I can give you from elsewhere, lose no time in making a demonstration, to be followed by an attack upon Mobile. Two or more iron-clads will be ordered to report to Admiral Farragut. This gives him a strong naval fleet with which to cooperate. You can make your own arrangements with the Admiral for his cooperation, and select your own line of approach. My own idea of the matter is that Pascagoula should be your base, but, from your long service in the Gulf Department, you will know best about the matter. It is intended that your movements shall be cooperative with movements elsewhere, and you cannot now start too soon. All I would now add is, that you commence the concentration of your forces at once. Preserve a profound secrecy of what you intend doing, and start at the earliest possible moment.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General N. P. BANKS.

Major-General Meade was instructed that Lee's army would be his objective point; that wherever Lee went he would go also. For his movement two plans presented themselves: One to cross the Rapidan below Lee, moving by his right flank; the other above, moving by his left. Each presented advantages over the other, with corresponding objections. By crossing above, Lee would be cut off from all chance of ignoring Richmond or going north on a raid. But if we took this route, all we did would have to be done whilst the rations we started with held out; besides, it separated us from Butler, so that he could not be directed how to cooperate. If we took the other route, Brandy Station could be used as a base of supplies until another was secured on the York or James Rivers. Of these, however, it was decided to take the lower route.

The following letter of instruction was addressed to Major-General B. F. Butler:

FORT MONROE, VA., April 2, 1864.

GENERAL: In the spring campaign, which it is desirable shall commence at as early a day as practicable, it is proposed to have cooperative action of all the armies in the field, as far as this object can be accomplished.

It will not be possible to unite our armies into two or three large ones to act as so many units, owing to the absolute necessity of holding on to the territory already taken from the enemy. But, generally speaking, concentration can be practically effected by armies moving to the interior of the enemy's country from the territory they have to guard. By such movement they interpose themselves between the enemy and the country to be guarded, thereby reducing the number necessary to guard important points, or at least occupy the attention of a part of the enemy's force, if no greater object is gained. Lee's army and Richmond being the greater objects toward which our attention must be directed in the next campaign, it is desirable to unite all the force we can against them. The necessity of covering Washington with the Army of the Potomac, and of covering your department with your army, makes it impossible to unite these forces at the beginning of any move. I propose, therefore, what comes nearest this of any thing that seems practicable: The Army of the Potomac will act from its present base, Lee's army being the objective point. You will collect all the forces from your command that can be spared for garrison duty—I should say not less than twenty thousand

effective men—to operate on the south side of James River, Richmond being your objective point. To the force you already have will be added about ten thousand men from South Carolina, under Major-General Gillmore, who will command them in person. Major-General W. F. Smith is ordered to report to you, to command the troops sent into the field from your own department.

General Gillmore will be ordered to report to you at Fortress Monroe, with all the troops on transports, by the 18th instant, or as soon thereafter as practicable. Should you not receive notice by that time to move, you will make such disposition of them and your other forces as you may deem best calculated to deceive the enemy as to the real move to be made.

When you are notified to move, take City Point with as much force as possible. Fortify, or rather intrench, at once, and concentrate all your troops for the field there as rapidly as you can. From City Point directions cannot be given at this time for your further movements.

The fact that has already been stated—that is, that Richmond is to be your objective point, and that there is to be cooperation between your force and the Army of the Potomac—must be your guide. This indicates the necessity of your holding close to the south bank of the James River as you advance. Then, should the enemy be forced into his intrenchments in Richmond, the Army of the Potomac would follow, and by means of transports the two armies would become a unit.

All the minor details of your advance are left entirely to your direction. If, however, you think it practicable to use your cavalry south of you so as to cut the railroad about Hick's Ford about the time of the general advance, it would be of immense advantage.

You will please forward for my information, at the earliest practicable day, all orders, details, and instructions you may give for the execution of this order.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General B. F. BUTLER.

On the 16th, these instructions were substantially reiterated. On the 19th, in order to secure full cooperation between his army and that of General Meade, he was informed that I expected him to move from Fort Monroe the same day that General Meade moved from Culpepper. The exact time I was to telegraph him as soon as it was fixed, and that it would not be earlier than the 27th of April; that it was my intention to fight Lee between Culpepper and Richmond if he would stand. Should he, however, fall back into Richmond, I would follow up and make a junction with his (General Butler's) army on the James River; that, could I be certain he would be able to invest Richmond on the south side so as to have his left resting on the James, above the city, I would form the junction there; that circumstances might make this course advisable anyhow; that he should use every exertion to secure footing as far up the south side of the river as he could, and as soon as possible after the receipt of orders to move; that if he could not carry the city, he should at least detain as large a force as possible.

In cooperation with the main movements against Lee and Johnston, I was desirous of using all other troops necessarily kept in departments remote from the fields of immediate operations, and also those kept in the background for the protection of our extended lines between the loyal States and the armies operating against them.

A very considerable force, under command of Major-General Sigel, was so held for the protection of West Virginia, and the frontiers of Maryland and Pennsylvania. Whilst these troops could not be withdrawn to distant fields without exposing the North to invasion by comparatively small bodies of the enemy, they could act directly to their front and give better protection than if lying idle in garrison. By such movement they would either compel the enemy to detach largely for the protection of his supplies and lines of communication, or he would lose them. General Sigel was therefore directed to organize all his available force into two expeditions, to move from Beverly and Charleston, under command of Generals Ord and Crook, against the East Tennessee and Virginia Railroad. Subsequently, General Ord having been relieved at his own request, General Sigel was instructed, at his own suggestion,

to give up the expedition by Beverly, and to form two columns, one under General Crook, on the Kanawha, numbering about ten thousand men, and one on the Shenandoah, numbering about seven thousand men. The one on the Shenandoah to assemble between Cumberland and the Shenandoah, and the infantry and artillery advance to Cedar Creek with such cavalry as could be made available at the moment, to threaten the enemy in the Shenandoah Valley, and advance as far as possible; while General Crook would take possession of Lewisburg with part of his force and move down the Tennessee Railroad, doing as much damage as he could, destroying the New River bridge and salt works, at Saltville, Va.

Owing to the weather and bad condition of the roads, operations were delayed until the 1st of May, when, every thing being in readiness and the roads favorable, orders were given for a general movement of all the armies not later than the 4th of May.

My first object being to break the military power of the rebellion and capture the enemy's important strongholds, made me desirous that General Butler should succeed in his movement against Richmond, as that would tend more than any thing else, unless it were the capture of Lee's army, to accomplish this desired result in the East. If it failed, it was my determination, by hard fighting, either to compel Lee to retreat or to so cripple him that he could not detach a large force to go north and still retain enough for the defence of Richmond. It was well understood, by both Generals Butler and Meade, before starting on the campaign, that it was my intention to put both their armies south of the James River, in case of failure to destroy Lee without it.

Before giving General Butler his instructions, I visited him at Fort Monroe, and in conversation pointed out the apparent importance of getting possession of Petersburg and destroying railroad communication as far south as possible. Believing, however, in the practicability of capturing Richmond unless it was reinforced, I made that the objective point of his operations. As the Army of the Potomac was to move simultaneously with him, Lee could not detach from his army with safety, and the enemy did not have troops elsewhere to bring to the defence of the city in time to meet a rapid movement from the north of James River.

I may here state that, commanding all the armies as I did, I tried, as far as possible, to leave General Meade in independent command of the Army of the Potomac. My instructions for that army were all through him, and were general in their nature, leaving all the details and the execution to him. The campaigns that followed proved him to be the right man in the right place. His commanding always in the presence of an officer superior to him in rank, has drawn from him much of that public attention that his zeal and ability entitle him to, and which he would otherwise have received.

The movement of the Army of the Potomac commenced early on the morning of the 4th of May, under the immediate direction and orders of Major-General Meade, pursuant to instructions. Before night the whole army was across the Rapidan (the Fifth and Sixth Corps crossing at Germania Ford, and the Second Corps at United States Ford, the cavalry, under Major-General Sheridan, moving in advance), with the greater part of its trains, numbering about 4,000 wagons, meeting with but slight opposition. The average distance travelled by the troops that day was about twelve miles. This I regarded as a great success, and it removed from my mind the most serious apprehensions I had entertained, that of crossing the river in the face of an active, large, well-appointed, and ably-commanded army, and how so large a train was to be carried through a hostile country and protected. Early on the 5th, the advance corps (the Fifth, Major-General G. K. Warren commanding) met and engaged the enemy outside his intrenchments near Mine Run. The battle raged

furiously all day, the whole army being brought into the fight as fast as the corps could be got upon the field, which, considering the density of the forest and narrowness of the roads, was done with commendable promptness.

General Burnside, with the Ninth Corps, was, at the time the Army of the Potomac moved, left with the bulk of his corps at the crossing of the Rappahannock River and Alexandria Railroad, holding the road back to Bull Run, with instructions not to move until he received notice that a crossing of the Rapidan was secured, but to move promptly as soon as such notice was received. This crossing he was apprised of on the afternoon of the 4th. By six o'clock of the morning of the 6th, he was leading his corps into action near the Wilderness tavern, some of his troops having marched a distance of over thirty miles, crossing both the Rappahannock and Rapidan Rivers. Considering that a large proportion, probably two-thirds of his command, was composed of new troops, unaccustomed to marches and carrying the accoutrements of a soldier, this was a remarkable march.

The battle of the Wilderness was renewed by us at five o'clock on the morning of the 6th, and continued with unabated fury until darkness set in, each army holding substantially the same position that they had on the evening of the 5th. After dark, the enemy made a feeble attempt to turn our right flank, capturing several hundred prisoners, and creating considerable confusion. But the promptness of General Sedgwick, who was personally present and commanding that part of our line, soon reformed it and restored order. On the morning of the 7th, reconnoissances showed that the enemy had fallen behind his intrenched lines, with pickets to the front, covering a part of the battle-field. From this it was evident to my mind that the two days' fighting had satisfied him of his inability to further maintain the contest in the open field, notwithstanding his advantage of position, and that he would wait an attack behind his works. I therefore determined to push on and put my whole force between him and Richmond; and orders were at once issued for a movement by his right flank. On the night of the 7th the march was commenced toward Spottsylvania Court-House, the Fifth Corps moving on the most direct road. But the enemy having become apprised of our movement, and having the shorter line, was enabled to reach there first. On the 8th, General Warren met a force of the enemy, which had been sent out to oppose and delay his advance, to gain time to fortify the line taken up at Spottsylvania. This force was steadily driven back on the main force, within the recently constructed works, after considerable fighting, resulting in severe loss to both sides. On the morning of the 9th, General Sheridan started on a raid against the enemy's lines of communication with Richmond. The 9th, 10th, and 11th were spent in manoeuvring and fighting, without decisive results. Among the killed on the 9th was that able and distinguished soldier Major-General John Sedgwick, commanding the Sixth Army Corps. Major-General H. G. Wright succeeded him in command. Early on the morning of the 12th, a general attack was made on the enemy in position. The Second Corps, Major-General Hancock commanding, carried a salient of his line, capturing most of Johnston's division of Ewell's Corps and twenty pieces of artillery. But the resistance was so obstinate that the advantage gained did not prove decisive. The 13th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th, and 18th were consumed in manoeuvring and awaiting the arrival of reinforcements from Washington. Deeming it impracticable to make any further attack upon the enemy at Spottsylvania Court-House, orders were issued on the 18th with a view to a movement to the North Anna, to commence at 12 o'clock on the night of the 19th. Late in the afternoon of the 19th, Ewell's Corps came out of its works on our extreme right flank; but the attack was promptly repulsed, with heavy loss. This delayed the movement to the North

Anna until the night of the 21st, when it was commenced. But the enemy again having the shorter line, and being in possession of the main roads, was enabled to reach the North Anna in advance of us, and took position behind it. The Fifth Corps reached the North Anna on the afternoon of the 23d, closely followed by the Sixth Corps. The Second and Ninth Corps got up about the same time, the Second holding the railroad bridge and the Ninth lying between that and Jericho Ford. General Warren effected a crossing the same afternoon, and got a position without much opposition. Soon after getting into position he was violently attacked, but repulsed the enemy with great slaughter. On the 25th, General Sheridan rejoined the Army of the Potomac from the raid on which he started from Spottsylvania, having destroyed the depots at Beaver Dam and Ashland Stations, four trains of cars, large supplies of rations, and many miles of railroad track; recaptured about four hundred of our men on their way to Richmond as prisoners of war; met and defeated the enemy's cavalry at Yellow Tavern; carried the first line of works around Richmond (but finding the second line too strong to be carried by assault), recrossed to the north bank of the Chickahominy at Meadow's Bridge, under heavy fire, and moved by a détour to Haxall's landing, on the James River, where he communicated with General Butler. This raid had the effect of drawing off the whole of the enemy's cavalry force, and making it comparatively easy to guard our trains.

General Butler moved his main force up the James River, in pursuance of instructions, on the 4th of May, General Gillmore having joined with the Tenth Corps. At the same time he sent a force of 1,800 cavalry, by way of West Point, to form a junction with him wherever he might get a foothold, and a force of 3,000 cavalry, under General Kautz, from Suffolk, to operate against the road south of Petersburg and Richmond. On the 5th he occupied, without opposition, both City Point and Bermuda Hundred, his movement being a complete surprise. On the 6th he was in position with his main army, and commenced intrenching. On the 7th he made a reconnaissance against the Petersburg and Richmond Railroad, destroying a portion of it after some fighting. On the 9th he telegraphed as follows:

HEADQUARTERS NEAR BERMUDA LANDING, May 9, 1864.

Our operations may be summed up in a few words. With 1,700 cavalry we have advanced up the Peninsula, forced the Chickahominy, and have safely brought them to our present position. These were colored cavalry, and are now holding our advance pickets toward Richmond.

General Kautz, with 3,000 cavalry from Suffolk, on the same day with our movement up James River, forced the Blackwater, burned the railroad bridge at Stony Creek, below Petersburg, cutting in two Beauregard's force at that point.

We have landed here, intrenched ourselves, destroyed many miles of railroad, and got a position which, with proper supplies, we can hold out against the whole of Lee's army. I have ordered up the supplies.

Beauregard, with a large portion of his force, was left South by the cutting of the railroads by Kautz. That portion which reached Petersburg under Hill I have whipped to-day, killing and wounding many and taking many prisoners, after a severe and well-contested fight.

General Grant will not be troubled with any further reinforcements to Lee from Beauregard's force.

BENJAMIN F. BUTLER, Major-General.

Hon. E. M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

On the evening of the 13th and morning of the 14th he carried a portion of the enemy's first line of defence at Drury's Bluff, or Fort Darling, with small loss. The time thus consumed from the 6th lost to us the benefit of the surprise and capture of Richmond and Petersburg, enabling, as it did, Beauregard to collect his loose forces in North and South Carolina and bring them to the defence of those places. On the 16th the enemy attacked General Butler in his position in front of Drury's Bluff. He was forced back, or drew back, into his intrenchments between the forks of the James and Appomattox Rivers, the

enemy intrenching strongly in his front, thus covering his railroads, the city, and all that was valuable to him. His army, therefore, though in a position of great security, was as completely shut off from further operations directly against Richmond as if it had been in a bottle strongly corked. It required but a comparatively small force of the enemy to hold it there.

On the 12th General Kautz with his cavalry was started on a raid against the Danville Railroad, which he struck at Coalfield, Powhatan, and Chola Stations, destroying them, the railroad track, two freight trains, and one locomotive, together with large quantities of commissary and other stores; thence crossing to the South Side road, struck it at Wilson's, Wellsville, and Black and White Stations, destroying the road and station-houses; thence he proceeded to City Point, which he reached on the 18th.

On the 19th of April, and prior to the movement of General Butler, the enemy with a land force under General Hoke and an iron-clad ram, attacked Plymouth, N. C., commanded by General H. W. Wessels, and our gunboats there, and after severe fighting the place was carried by assault and the entire garrison and armament captured. The gunboat Smithfield was sunk and the Miami disabled.

The army sent to operate against Richmond having hermetically sealed itself up at Bermuda Hundred, the enemy was enabled to bring the most if not all the reinforcements brought from the South by Beauregard against the Army of the Potomac. In addition to this reinforcement, a very considerable one, probably not less than 15,000 men, was obtained by calling in the scattered troops under Breckinridge from the western part of Virginia.

The position at Bermuda Hundred was as easy to defend as it was difficult to operate from against the enemy. I determined, therefore, to bring from it all available forces, leaving enough only to secure what had been gained; and accordingly, on the 22d, I directed that they be sent forward, under command of Major-General W. F. Smith, to join the Army of the Potomac.

On the 24th of May the Ninth Army Corps, commanded by Major-General A. E. Burnside, was assigned to the Army of the Potomac, and from this time forward constituted a portion of Major-General Meade's command.

Finding the enemy's position on the North Anna stronger than either of his previous ones, I withdrew on the night of the 26th to the north bank of the North Anna, and moved *via* Hanover town to turn the enemy's position by his right.

Generals Torbert and Merritt's divisions of cavalry, under Sheridan, and the Sixth Corps led the advance; crossed the Pamunkey River at Hanover town after considerable fighting, and on the 28th the two divisions of cavalry had a severe but successful engagement with the enemy at Haw's shop. On the 29th and 30th we advanced, with heavy skirmishing, to the Hanover Court-House and Cold Harbor road, and developed the enemy's position north of the Chickahominy. Late on the evening of the last day the enemy came out and attacked our left, but was repulsed with very considerable loss. An attack was immediately ordered by General Meade along his whole line, which resulted in driving the enemy from a part of his intrenched skirmish line.

On the 31st General Wilson's division of cavalry destroyed the railroad bridges over the South Anna River, after defeating the enemy's cavalry. General Sheridan, on the same day, reached Cold Harbor, and held it until relieved by the Sixth Corps and General Smith's command, which had just arrived, *via* White House, from General Butler's army.

On the 1st day of June an attack was made at 5 p. m., by the Sixth Corps and the troops under General Smith, the other corps being held in readiness to advance on the receipt of orders. This resulted

in our carrying and holding the enemy's first line of works in front of the right of the Sixth Corps and in front of General Smith. During the attack the enemy made repeated assaults on each of the corps not engaged in the main attack, but were repulsed with heavy loss in every instance. That night he made several assaults to regain what he had lost in the day, but failed. The 2d was spent in getting troops into position for an attack on the 8d. On the 8d of June we again assaulted the enemy's works, in the hope of driving him from his position. In this attempt our loss was heavy, while that of the enemy, I have reason to believe, was comparatively light. It was the only general attack made from the Rapidan to the James which did not inflict upon the enemy losses to compensate for our own losses. I would not be understood as saying that all previous attacks resulted in victories to our arms, or accomplished as much as I had hoped from them; but they inflicted upon the enemy severe losses, which tended, in the end, to the complete overthrow of the rebellion.

From the proximity of the enemy to his defences around Richmond, it was impossible by any flank movement to interpose between him and the city. I was still in a condition to either move by his left flank and invest Richmond from the north side, or continue my move by his right flank to the south side of the James. While the former might have been better as a covering for Washington, yet a full survey of all the ground satisfied me that it would be impracticable to hold a line north and east of Richmond that would protect the Fredericksburg Railroad—a long, vulnerable line, which would exhaust much of our strength to guard, and that would have to be protected to supply the army, and would leave open to the enemy all his lines of communication on the south side of the James. My idea, from the start, had been to beat Lee's army north of Richmond if possible. Then, after destroying his lines of communication north of the James River, to transfer the army to the south side and besiege Lee in Richmond, or follow him south if he should retreat. After the battle of the Wilderness it was evident that the enemy deemed it of the first importance to run no risks with the army he then had. He acted purely on the defensive behind breastworks, or feebly on the offensive immediately in front of them, and where, in case of repulse, he could easily retire behind them. Without a greater sacrifice of life than I was willing to make, all could not be accomplished that I had designed north of Richmond; I therefore determined to continue to hold substantially the ground we then occupied, taking advantage of any favorable circumstances that might present themselves, until the cavalry could be sent to Charlottesville and Gordonsville to effectually break up the railroad connection between Richmond and the Shenandoah Valley and Lynchburg; and, when the cavalry got well off, to move the army to the south side of the James River, by the enemy's right flank, where I felt I could cut off all his sources of supply except by the canal.

On the 7th, two divisions of cavalry, under General Sheridan, got off on the expedition against the Virginia Central Railroad, with instructions to Hunter, whom I hoped he would meet near Charlottesville, to join his forces to Sheridan's, and after the work laid out for them was thoroughly done, to join the Army of the Potomac by the route laid down in Sheridan's instructions.

On the 10th of June, General Butler sent a force of infantry under General Gillmore, and cavalry under General Kautz, to capture Petersburg if possible, and destroy the railroad and common bridges across the Appomattox. The cavalry carried the works on the south side, and penetrated well toward the town, but were forced to retire. General Gillmore finding the works which he approached very strong, and deeming an assault impracticable, returned to Bermuda Hundred without attempting one.

Attaching great importance to the possession of

Petersburg, I sent back to Bermuda Hundred and City Point General Smith's command by water, via the White House, to reach there in advance of the Army of the Potomac. This was for the express purpose of securing Petersburg before the enemy, becoming aware of our intention, could reinforce the place.

The movement from Cold Harbor commenced after dark on the evening of the 12th; one division of cavalry, under General Wilson, and the Fifth Corps crossed the Chickahominy at Long Bridge, and moved out to White-Oak Swamp, to cover the crossings of the other corps. The advance corps reached James River, at Wilcox's Landing and Charles City Court-House, on the night of the 13th.

During three long years the Armies of the Potomac and Northern Virginia had been confronting each other. In that time they had fought more desperate battles than it probably ever before fell to the lot of two armies to fight, without materially changing the vantage ground of either. The Southern press and people, with more shrewdness than was displayed in the North, finding that they had failed to capture Washington and march on to New York, as they had boasted they would do, assumed that they only defended their capital and Southern territory. Hence, Antietam, Gettysburg, and all the other battles that had been fought, were by them set down as failures on our part, and victories for them. Their army believed this. It produced a morale which could only be overcome by desperate and continuous hard fighting. The battles of the Wilderness, Spottsylvania, North Anna, and Cold Harbor, bloody and terrible as they were on our side, were even more damaging to the enemy, and so crippled him as to make him wary ever after of taking the offensive. His losses in men were probably not so great, owing to the fact that we were, save in the Wilderness, almost invariably the attacking party; and when he did attack it was in the open field. The details of these battles, which for endurance and bravery on the part of the soldiery have rarely been surpassed, are given in the report of Major-General Meade, and the subordinate reports accompanying it.

During the campaign of forty-three days, from the Rapidan to the James River, the army had to be supplied from an ever-shifting base, by wagons, over narrow roads, through a densely-wooded country, with a lack of wharves at each new base from which to conveniently discharge vessels. Too much credit cannot therefore be awarded to the quartermaster and commissary departments for the zeal and efficiency displayed by them. Under the general supervision of the chief quartermaster, Brigadier-General R. Ingalls, the trains were made to occupy all the available roads between the army and our water base, and but little difficulty was experienced in protecting them.

The movement in the Kanawha and Shenandoah Valleys, under General Sigel, commenced on the first of May. General Crook, who had the immediate command of the Kanawha expedition, divided his forces into two columns, giving one, composed of cavalry, to General Averill. They crossed the mountains by separate routes. Averill struck the Tennessee and Virginia Railroad, near Wytheville, on the 10th, and proceeding to New River and Christiansburg, destroyed the road, several important bridges and depots, including New River Bridge, forming a junction with Crook at Union on the 15th. General Sigel moved up the Shenandoah Valley, met the enemy at New Market on the 15th, and, after a severe engagement, was defeated with heavy loss, and retired behind Cedar Creek. Not regarding the operations of General Sigel as satisfactory, I asked his removal from command, and Major-General Hunter was appointed to supersede him. His instructions were embraced in the following despatches to Major-General H. W. Halleck, chief of staff of the army:

NEAR SPOTTSYLVANIA COURT-HOUSE, VA., May 20, 1864.

The enemy are evidently relying for supplies greatly on such as are brought over the branch road running through Staunton. On the whole, therefore, I think it would be better for General Hunter to move in that direction; reach Staunton and Gordonsville or Charlottesville; if he does not meet too much opposition. If he can hold at bay a force equal to his own, he will be doing good service.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.
Major-General H. W. HALLECK.

JERICHO FORD, VA., May 25, 1864.

If Hunter can possibly get to Charlottesville and Lynchburg, he should do so, living on the country. The railroads and canal should be destroyed beyond the possibility of repairs for weeks. Completing this, he could find his way back to his original base, or from about Gordonsville join this army.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.
Major-General H. W. HALLECK.

General Hunter immediately took up the offensive, and moving up the Shenandoah Valley, met the enemy on the 5th of June at Piedmont, and after a battle of ten hours routed and defeated him, capturing on the field of battle 1,500 men, 8 pieces of artillery, and 300 stand of small-arms. On the 8th of the same month he formed a junction with Crook and Averill at Staunton, from which place he moved direct on Lynchburg, *via* Lexington, which place he reached and invested on the 16th day of June. Up to this time he was very successful, and but for the difficulty of taking with him sufficient ordnance stores over so long a march, through a hostile country, he would no doubt have captured that, to the enemy an important point. The destruction of the enemy's supplies and manufactories was very great. To meet this movement under General Hunter, General Lee sent a force, perhaps equal to a corps, a part of which reached Lynchburg a short time before Hunter. After some skirmishing on the 17th and 18th, General Hunter, owing to a want of ammunition to give battle, retired from before the place. Unfortunately, this want of ammunition left him no choice of route for his return but by way of Kanawha. This lost to us the use of his troops for several weeks from the defence of the North.

Had General Hunter moved by way of Charlottesville, instead of Lexington, as his instructions contemplated, he would have been in a position to have covered the Shenandoah Valley against the enemy, should the force he met have seemed to endanger it. If it did not, he would have been within easy distance of the James River Canal, on the main line of communication between Lynchburg and the force sent for its defence. I have never taken exception to the operations of General Hunter, and am not now disposed to find fault with him, for I have no doubt he acted within what he conceived to be the spirit of his instructions and the interests of the service. The promptitude of his movements and his gallantry should entitle him to the commendation of his country.

To return to the Army of the Potomac: The Second Corps commenced crossing the James River on the morning of the 14th by ferry-boats at Wilcox's Landing. The laying of the pontoon bridge was completed about midnight of the 14th, and the crossing of the balance of the army was rapidly pushed forward by both bridge and ferry.

After the crossing had commenced, I proceeded by steamer to Bermuda Hundred to give the necessary orders for the immediate capture of Petersburg.

The instructions to General Butler were verbal, and were for him to send General Smith immediately, that night, with all the troops he could give him without sacrificing the position he then held. I told him that I would return at once to the Army of the Potomac, hasten its crossing, and throw it forward to Petersburg by divisions as rapidly as it could be done; that we could reinforce our armies more rapidly there than the enemy could bring troops against us. General Smith got off as directed, and

confronted the enemy's pickets near Petersburg before daylight next morning, but for some reason, that I have never been able to satisfactorily understand, did not get ready to assault his main lines until near sundown. Then, with a part of his command only, he made the assault, and carried the lines northeast of Petersburg from the Appomattox River, for a distance of over two and a half miles, capturing fifteen pieces of artillery and three hundred prisoners. This was about 7 P.M. Between the line thus captured and Petersburg there were no other works, and there was no evidence that the enemy had reinforced Petersburg with a single brigade from any source. The night was clear—the moon shining brightly—and favorable to further operations. General Hancock, with two divisions of the Second Corps, reached General Smith just after dark, and offered the service of these troops as he (Smith) might wish, waiving rank to the named commander, whom he naturally supposed knew best the position of affairs, and what to do with the troops. But instead of taking these troops, and pushing at once into Petersburg, he requested General Hancock to relieve a part of his line in the captured works, which was done before midnight.

By the time I arrived the next morning the enemy was in force. An attack was ordered to be made at 6 o'clock that evening by the troops under Smith and the Second and Ninth Corps. It required until that time for the Ninth Corps to get up and into position. The attack was made as ordered, and the fighting continued with but little intermission until 6 o'clock the next morning, and resulted in our carrying the advance and some of the main works of the enemy to the right (our left) of those previously captured by General Smith, several pieces of artillery, and over four hundred prisoners.

The Fifth Corps having got up, the attacks were renewed and persisted in with great vigor on the 17th and 18th, but only resulted in forcing the enemy to an interior line, from which he could not be dislodged. The advantages in position gained by us were very great. The army then proceeded to envelop Petersburg toward the Southside Railroad, as far as possible without attacking fortifications.

On the 6th the enemy, to reinforce Petersburg, withdrew from a part of his intrenchment in front of Bermuda Hundred, expecting, no doubt, to get troops from north of the James to take the place of those withdrawn before we could discover it. General Butler, taking the advantage of this, at once moved a force on the railroad between Petersburg and Richmond. As soon as I was apprised of the advantage thus gained, to retain it I ordered two divisions of the Sixth Corps, General Wright commanding, that were embarking at Wilcox's Landing, under orders for City Point, to report to General Butler, at Bermuda Hundred, of which General Butler was notified, and the importance of holding a position in advance of his present line urged upon him.

About 2 o'clock in the afternoon General Butler was forced back to the line the enemy had withdrawn from in the morning. General Wright, with his two divisions, joined General Butler on the forenoon of the 17th, the latter still holding with a strong picket line the enemy's works. But instead of putting these divisions into the enemy's works to hold them, he permitted them to halt and rest some distance in the rear of his own line. Between 4 and 5 o'clock in the afternoon the enemy attacked and drove in his pickets and reoccupied his old line.

On the night of the 20th and morning of the 21st a lodgment was effected by General Butler, with one brigade of infantry, on the north bank of the James, at Deep Bottom, and connected the pontoon bridge with Bermuda Hundred.

On the 19th, General Sheridan, on his return from his expedition against the Virginia Central Railroad, arrived at the White House just as the enemy's cavalry was about to attack it, and compelled it to retire.

The result of this expedition was that General Sheridan met the enemy's cavalry near Trevillian Station, on the morning of the 11th of June, whom he attacked, and after an obstinate contest drove from the field in complete rout. He left his dead and nearly all his wounded in our hands, and about four hundred prisoners and several hundred horses. On the 12th he destroyed the railroad from Trevillian Station to Louisa Court-House. This occupied until 3 o'clock P. M., when he advanced in the direction of Gordonsville. He found the enemy reinforced by infantry, behind well-constructed rifle-pits, about five miles from the latter place, and too strong to successfully assault. On the extreme right, however, his reserve brigade carried the enemy's works twice, and was twice driven therefrom by infantry. Night closed the contest. Not having sufficient ammunition to continue the engagement, and his animals being without forage (the country furnishing but inferior grazing), and hearing nothing from General Hunter, he withdrew his command to the north side of the North Anna, and commenced his return march, reaching the White House at the time before stated. After breaking up the depot at that place he moved to the James River, which he reached safely after heavy fighting. He commenced crossing on the 25th, near Fort Powhatan, without further molestation, and rejoined the Army of the Potomac.

On the 23d, General Wilson, with his own division of cavalry of the Army of the Potomac, and General Kautz's division of cavalry of the Army of the James, moved against the enemy's railroads south of Richmond. Striking the Weldon Railroad at Ream's Station, destroying the depot and several miles of the road and the Southside road about fifteen miles from Petersburg, to near Nottaway Station, where he met and defeated a force of the enemy's cavalry, he reached Burkeville Station on the afternoon of the 23d, and from there destroyed the Danville Railroad to Roanoke bridge, a distance of twenty-five miles, where he found the enemy in force, and in a position from which he could not dislodge him. He then commenced his return march, and on the 28th met the enemy's cavalry in force at the Weldon Railroad crossing of Stony Creek, where he had a severe but not decisive engagement. Thence he made a détour from his left, with a view of reaching Ream's Station (supposing it to be in our possession). At this place he was met by the enemy's cavalry, supported by infantry, and forced to retire, with the loss of his artillery and trains. In this last encounter, General Kautz, with a part of his command, became separated, and made his way into our lines. General Wilson, with the remainder of his force, succeeded in crossing the Nottaway River and coming in safely on our left and rear. The damage to the enemy in this expedition more than compensated for the losses we sustained. It severed all connection by railroad with Richmond for several weeks.

With a view of cutting the enemy's railroad from near Richmond to the Anna Rivers and making him wary of the situation of his army in the Shenandoah, and, in the event of failure in this, to take advantage of his necessary withdrawal of troops from Petersburg, to explode a mine that had been prepared in front of the Ninth Corps and assault the enemy's lines at that place, on the night of the 26th of July the Second Corps and two divisions of the Cavalry corps and Kautz's cavalry were crossed to the north bank of the James River and joined the force General Butler had there. On the 27th the enemy was driven from his intrenched position, with the loss of four pieces of artillery. On the 28th our lines were extended from Deep Bottom to New Market road, but in getting this position were attacked by the enemy in heavy force. The fighting lasted for several hours, resulting in considerable loss on both sides. The first object of this move having failed, by reason of the very large force thrown there by the enemy, I determined to take advantage of the diversion made

by assaulting Petersburg before he could get his force back there. One division of the Second Corps was withdrawn on the night of the 28th, and moved during the night to the rear of the Eighteenth Corps, to relieve that corps in the line, that it might be foot loose in the assault to be made. The other two divisions of the Second Corps and Sheridan's cavalry were crossed over on the night of the 29th and moved in front of Petersburg. On the morning of the 30th, between four and five o'clock, the mine was sprung, blowing up a battery and most of a regiment, and the advance of the assaulting column, formed of the Ninth Corps, immediately took possession of the crater made by the explosion, and the line for some distance to the right and left of it, and a detached line in front of it, but for some cause failed to advance promptly to the ridge beyond. Had they done this, I have every reason to believe that Petersburg would have fallen. Other troops were immediately pushed forward, but the time consumed in getting them up enabled the enemy to rally from his surprise (which had been complete), and get forces to this point for its defence. The captured line thus held being untenable, and of no advantage to us, the troops were withdrawn, but not without heavy loss. Thus terminated in disaster what promised to be the most successful assault of the campaign.

Immediately upon the enemy's ascertaining that General Hunter was retreating from Lynchburg by way of the Kanawha River, thus laying the Shenandoah Valley open for raids into Maryland and Pennsylvania, he returned northward and moved down that valley. As soon as this movement of the enemy was ascertained, General Hunter, who had reached the Kanawha River, was directed to move his troops without delay, by river and railroad, to Harper's Ferry; but owing to the difficulty of navigation by reason of low water and breaks in the railroad, great delay was experienced in getting there. It became necessary, therefore, to find other troops to check this movement of the enemy. For this purpose the Sixth Corps was taken from the armies operating against Richmond, to which was added the Nineteenth Corps, then fortunately beginning to arrive in Hampton Roads from the Gulf Department, under orders issued immediately after the ascertainment of the result of the Red River expedition. The garrisons of Baltimore and Washington were at this time made up of heavy artillery regiments, hundred-days' men, and detachments from the invalid corps. One division under command of General Ricketts, of the Sixth Corps, was sent to Baltimore, and the remaining two divisions of the Sixth Corps, under General Wright, were subsequently sent to Washington. On the 8d of July the enemy approached Martinsburg; General Sigel, who was in command of our forces there, retreated across the Potomac at Shephardstown; and General Weber, commanding at Harper's Ferry, crossed the river, and occupied Maryland Heights. On the 6th the enemy occupied Hagerstown, moving in a strong column toward Frederick City. General Wallace with Ricketts' division and his own command, the latter mostly new and undisciplined troops, pushed out from Baltimore with great promptness, and met the enemy in force on the Monocacy, near the crossing of the railroad bridge. His force was not sufficient to insure success, but he fought the enemy nevertheless, and although it resulted in a defeat to our arms, yet it detained the enemy and thereby served to enable General Wright to reach Washington with two divisions of the Sixth Corps, and the advance of the Nineteenth Corps, before him. From Monocacy the enemy moved on Washington, his cavalry advance reaching Rockville on the evening of the 10th. On the 12th a reconnaissance was thrown out in front of Fort Stevens, to ascertain the enemy's position and force. A severe skirmish ensued, in which we lost about 280 in killed and wounded. The enemy's loss was probably greater. He commenced

retreating during the night. Learning the exact condition of affairs at Washington, I requested by telegraph at 11.45 p. m. on the 12th the assignment of Major-General H. G. Wright to the command of all the troops that could be made available to operate in the field against the enemy, and directed that he should get outside of the trenches with all the force he could, and push Early to the last moment. General Wright commenced the pursuit on the 18th; on the 18th the enemy was overtaken at Snicker's Ferry, on the Shenandoah, when a sharp skirmish occurred; and on the 20th General Averill encountered and defeated a portion of the rebel army at Winchester, capturing four pieces of artillery and several hundred prisoners.

Learning that Early was retreating south toward Lynchburg or Richmond, I directed that the Sixth and Nineteenth Corps be got back to the armies operating against Richmond, so that they might be used in a movement against Lee before the return of the troops sent by him into the valley; and that Hunter should remain in the Shenandoah Valley, keeping between any force of the enemy and Washington, acting on the defensive as much as possible. I felt that if the enemy had any notion of returning, the fact would be developed before the Sixth and Nineteenth Corps could leave Washington. Subsequently the Nineteenth Corps was excepted from the order to return to the James.

About the 25th it became evident that the enemy was again advancing upon Maryland and Pennsylvania, and the Sixth Corps, then at Washington, was ordered back to the vicinity of Harper's Ferry. The rebel force moved down the valley, and sent a raiding party into Pennsylvania, which, on the 30th, burned Chambersburg and then retreated, pursued by our cavalry toward Cumberland. They were met and defeated by General Kelly, and with diminished numbers escaped into the mountains of West Virginia. From the time of the first raid the telegraph wires were frequently down between Washington and City Point, making it necessary to transmit messages a part of the way by boat. It took from twenty-four to thirty-six hours to get despatches through and return answers back; so that often orders would be given, and then information would be received showing a different state of facts from those on which they were based, causing a confusion and apparent contradiction of orders that must have considerably embarrassed those who had to execute them, and rendered operations against the enemy less effective than they otherwise would have been. To remedy this evil, it was evident to my mind that some person should have the supreme command of all the forces in the Departments of West Virginia, Washington, Susquehanna, and the Middle Department, and I so recommended.

On the 2d of August I ordered General Sheridan to report in person to Major-General Halleck, chief of staff, at Washington, with a view to his assignment to the command of all the forces against Early. At this time the enemy was concentrated in the neighborhood of Winchester, while our forces, under General Hunter, were concentrated on the Monocacy, at the crossing of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, leaving open to the enemy Western Maryland and Southern Pennsylvania. From where I was I hesitated to give positive orders for the movement of our forces at Monocacy, lest by so doing I should expose Washington. Therefore, on the 4th I left City Point to visit Hunter's command, and determine for myself what was best to be done. On arrival there, and after consultation with General Hunter, I issued to him the following instructions:

MONOCACY BRIDGE, MD., August 5, 1864.—3 p. m.

GENERAL: Concentrate all your available force without delay in the vicinity of Harper's Ferry, leaving only such railroad guards and garrisons for public property as may be necessary. Use, in this concentrating, the railroads, if by so doing time can be saved. From Harper's Ferry, if it is found that the enemy has moved north of the Potomac in large

force, push north, following him and attacking him wherever found; follow him, if driven south of the Potomac, as long as it is safe to do so. If it is ascertained that the enemy has but a small force north of the Potomac, then push south, with the main force, detaching under a competent commander a sufficient force to look after the raiders, and drive them to their homes. In detaching such a force, the brigade of cavalry now *en route* from Washington *via* Rockville may be taken into account.

There are now on their way to join you three other brigades of the best cavalry, numbering at least 5,000 men and horses. These will be instructed, in the absence of further orders, to join you by the south side of the Potomac. One brigade will probably start to-morrow. In pushing up the Shenandoah Valley, where it is expected you will have to go first or last, it is desirable that nothing should be left to invite the enemy to return. Take all provisions, forage, and stock wanted for the use of your command; such as cannot be consumed, destroy. It is not desirable that the buildings should be destroyed—they should rather be protected; but the people should be informed that, so long as an army can subsist among them, recurrences of these raids must be expected, and we are determined to stop them at all hazards.

Bear in mind, the object is to drive the enemy south; and to do this, you want to keep him always in sight. Be guided in your course by the course he takes.

Make your own arrangements for supplies of all kinds, giving regular vouchers for such as may be taken from loyal citizens in the country through which you march.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General D. HUNTER.

The troops were immediately put in motion, and the advance reached Halton that night.

General Hunter having, in our conversation, expressed a willingness to be relieved from command, I telegraphed to have General Sheridan, then at Washington, sent to Harper's Ferry by the morning train, with orders to take general command of all the troops in the field, and to call on General Hunter at Monocacy, who would turn over to him my letter of instructions. I remained at Monocacy until General Sheridan arrived, on the morning of the 6th, and after a conference with him in relation to military affairs in that vicinity, I returned to City Point by way of Washington.

On the 7th of August the Middle Department and the Departments of West Virginia, Washington, and Susquehanna were constituted into the "Middle Military Division," and Major-General Sheridan was assigned to temporary command of the same.

Two divisions of cavalry, commanded by Generals Torbert and Wilson, were sent to Sheridan from the Army of the Potomac. The first reached him at Harper's Ferry about the 11th of August.

His operations during the month of August and the fore part of September were both of an offensive and defensive character, resulting in many severe skirmishes, principally by the cavalry, in which we were generally successful, but no general engagement took place. The two armies lay in such a position—the enemy on the west bank of the Opequan Creek covering Winchester, and our forces in front of Berryville—that either could bring on a battle at any time. Defeat to us would lay open to the enemy the States of Maryland and Pennsylvania for long distances before another army could be interposed to check him. Under these circumstances I hesitated about allowing the initiative to be taken. Finally, the use of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad and the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, which were both obstructed by the enemy, became so indispensably necessary to us, and the importance of relieving Pennsylvania and Maryland from continuously threatened invasion was so great, that I determined the risk should be taken. But fearing to telegraph the order for an attack without knowing more than I did of General Sheridan's feelings as to what would be the probable result, I left City Point on the 15th of September to visit him at his headquarters, to decide, after conference with him, what should be done. I met him at Charleston, and he pointed out so distinctly how each army lay; what he could do the moment he was authorized, and expressed such con-

sidence of success, that I saw there were but two words of instructions necessary—Go in! For the conveniences of forage, the teams for supplying the army were kept at Harper's Ferry. I asked him if he could get out his teams and supplies in time to make an attack on the ensuing Tuesday morning. His reply was, that he could before daylight on Monday. He was off promptly to time, and I may here add that the result was such that I have never since deemed it necessary to visit General Sheridan before giving him orders.

Early on the morning of the 19th General Sheridan attacked General Early at the crossing of the Opequan Creek, and after a most sanguinary and bloody battle, lasting until 5 o'clock in the evening, defeated him with heavy loss, carrying his entire position from Opequan Creek to Winchester, capturing several thousand prisoners and five pieces of artillery. The enemy rallied and made a stand in a strong position at Fisher's Hill, where he was attacked and again defeated with heavy loss on the 20th. Sheridan pursued him with great energy through Harrisonburg, Staunton, and the gaps of the Blue Ridge. After stripping the Upper Valley of most of the supplies and provisions for the rebel army, he returned to Strasburg, and took position on the north side of Cedar Creek.

Having received considerable reinforcements, General Early again returned to the Valley, and, on the 9th of October, his cavalry encountered ours near Strasburg, where the rebels were defeated, with the loss of eleven pieces of artillery and three hundred and fifty prisoners. On the night of the 18th the enemy crossed the mountains which separated the branches of the Shenandoah, forded the north fork, and early on the morning of the 19th, under cover of the darkness and the fog, surprised and turned our left flank, and captured the batteries which enfiladed our whole line. Our troops fell back with heavy loss and in much confusion, but were finally rallied between Middletown and Newtown. At this juncture General Sheridan, who was at Winchester when the battle commenced, arrived on the field, arranged his lines just in time to repulse a heavy attack of the enemy, and immediately assuming the offensive, he attacked in turn with great vigor. The enemy was defeated with great slaughter, and the loss of most of his artillery and trains and the trophies he had captured in the morning. The wreck of his army escaped during the night, and fled in the direction of Staunton and Lynchburg. Pursuit was made to Mount Jackson. Thus ended this, the enemy's last attempt to invade the North via the Shenandoah Valley. I was now enabled to return the Sixth Corps to the Army of the Potomac, and to send one division from Sheridan's army to the Army of the James, and another to Savannah, Georgia, to hold Sherman's new acquisitions on the sea-coast, and thus enable him to move without detaching from his force for that purpose.

Reports from various sources led me to believe that the enemy had detached three divisions from Petersburg to reinforce Early in the Shenandoah Valley. I therefore sent the Second Corps and Gregg's division of cavalry, of the Army of the Potomac, and a force of General Butler's army, on the night of the 18th of August, to threaten Richmond from the north side of the James, to prevent him from sending troops away, and, if possible, to draw back those sent. In this move we captured six pieces of artillery and several hundred prisoners, detained troops that were under marching orders, and ascertained that but one division (Kershaw's) of the three reputed detached, had gone.

The enemy having withdrawn heavily from Petersburg to resist this movement, the Fifth Corps, General Warren commanding, was moved out on the 18th and took possession of the Weldon Railroad. During the day he had considerable fighting. To regain possession of the road, the enemy made re-

peated and desperate assaults, but was each time repulsed with great loss. On the night of the 30th the troops on the north side of the James were withdrawn, and Hancock and Gregg returned to the front at Petersburg. On the 25th the Second Corps and Gregg's division of cavalry, while at Ream's Station destroying the railroad, were attacked, and after desperate fighting, a part of our line gave way, and five pieces of artillery fell into the hands of the enemy.

By the 12th of September a branch railroad was completed from the City Point and Petersburg Railroad to the Weldon Railroad, enabling us to supply, without difficulty, in all weather, the army in front of Petersburg.

The extension of our lines across the Weldon Railroad compelled the enemy to so extend his that it seemed he could have but few troops north of the James for the defence of Richmond. On the night of the 28th the Tenth Corps, Major-General Birney, and the Eighteenth Corps, Major-General Ord commanding, of General Butler's army, were crossed to the north side of the James, and advanced on the morning of the 29th, carrying the very strong fortifications and intrenchments below Chapin's Farm, known as Fort Harrison, capturing fifteen pieces of artillery, and the New Market road and intrenchments. This success was followed up by a gallant assault upon Fort Gillmore, immediately in front of the Chapin Farm fortifications, in which we were repulsed with heavy loss. Kautz's cavalry was pushed forward on the road to the right of this, supported by infantry, and reached the enemy's inner line, but was unable to get further. The position captured from the enemy was so threatening to Richmond that I determined to hold it. The enemy made several desperate attempts to dislodge us, all of which were unsuccessful, and for which he paid dearly. On the morning of the 30th General Meade sent out a reconnoissance, with a view to attacking the enemy's line if it was found sufficiently weakened by withdrawal of troops to the north side. In this reconnoissance we captured and held the enemy's works near Poplar Spring church. In the afternoon troops moving to get to the left of the point gained were attacked by the enemy in heavy force, and compelled to fall back until supported by the forces holding the captured works. Our cavalry under Gregg was also attacked, but repulsed the enemy with great loss.

On the 7th of October the enemy attacked Kautz's cavalry north of the James, and drove it back with heavy loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners, and the loss of all the artillery—eight or nine pieces. This he followed up by an attack on our intrenched infantry line, but was repulsed with severe slaughter. On the 13th a reconnoissance was sent out by General Butler, with a view to drive the enemy from some new works he was constructing, which resulted in a very heavy loss to us.

On the 27th the Army of the Potomac, leaving only sufficient men to hold its fortified line, moved by the enemy's right flank. The Second Corps, followed by two divisions of the Fifth Corps, with the cavalry in advance and covering our left flank, forced a passage of Hatcher's Run, and moved up the south side of it toward the South Side Railroad, until the Second Corps and part of the cavalry reached the Boydton plank road where it crosses Hatcher's Run. At this point we were six miles distant from the South Side Railroad, which I had hoped by this movement to reach and hold. But finding that we had not reached the end of the enemy's fortifications, and no place presenting itself for a successful assault by which he might be doubled up and shortened, I determined to withdraw to within our fortified line. Orders were given accordingly. Immediately upon receiving a report that General Warren had connected with General Hancock, I returned to my headquarters. Soon after I left, the enemy

moved out across Hatcher's Run, in the gap between Generals Hancock and Warren, which was not closed as reported, and made a desperate attack on General Hancock's right and rear. General Hancock immediately faced his corps to meet it, and after a bloody combat drove the enemy within his works, and withdrew that night to his old position.

In support of this movement General Butler made a demonstration on the north side of the James, and attacked the enemy on the Williamsburg road, and also on the York River Railroad. In the former he was unsuccessful; in the latter he succeeded in carrying a work which was afterwards abandoned, and his forces withdrawn to their former positions.

From this time forward the operations in front of Petersburg and Richmond, until the spring campaign of 1865, were confined to the defence and extension of our lines, and to offensive movements for crippling the enemy's lines of communication, and to prevent his detaching any considerable force to send south. By the 7th of February our lines were extended to Hatcher's Run, and the Weldon Railroad had been destroyed to Hicksford.

General Sherman moved from Chattanooga on the 6th of May, with the Armies of the Cumberland, Tennessee, and Ohio, commanded, respectively, by Generals Thomas, McPherson, and Schofield, upon Johnston's army at Dalton; but finding the enemy's positions at Buzzard Roost, covering Dalton, too strong to be assaulted, General McPherson was sent through Snake Gap to turn it, whilst Generals Thomas and Schofield threatened it in front and on the north. This movement was successful. Johnston, finding his retreat likely to be cut off, fell back to his fortified position at Resaca, where he was attacked on the afternoon of May 16th. A heavy battle ensued. During the night the enemy retreated south. Late on the 17th his rear guard was overtaken near Adairsville, and heavy skirmishing followed. The next morning, however, he had again disappeared. He was vigorously pursued, and was overtaken at Cassville on the 19th, but during the ensuing night retreated across the Etowah. Whilst these operations were going on, General Jefferson C. Davis's division of Thomas's army was sent to Rome, capturing it with its forts and artillery, and its valuable mills and foundries. General Sherman, having given his army a few days' rest at this point, again put it in motion on the 23d for Dallas, with a view of turning the difficult pass at Allatoona. On the afternoon of the 25th the advance under General Hooker had a severe battle with the enemy, driving him back to New Hope Church, near Dallas. Several sharp encounters occurred at this point. The most important was on the 28th, when the enemy assaulted General McPherson at Dallas, but received a terrible and bloody repulse.

On the 4th of June Johnston abandoned his entrenched position at New Hope Church, and retreated to the strong positions of Kenesaw, Pine, and Lost Mountains. He was forced to yield the two last-named places and concentrate his army on Kenesaw, where, on the 27th, Generals Thomas and McPherson made a determined but unsuccessful assault. On the night of the 2d of July Sherman commenced moving his army by the right flank, and on the morning of the 3d found that the enemy, in consequence of this movement, had abandoned Kenesaw and retreated across the Chattahoochee.

General Sherman remained on the Chattahoochee to give his men rest and get up stores until the 17th of July, when he resumed his operations, crossed the Chattahoochee, destroyed a large portion of the railroad to Augusta, and drove the enemy back to Atlanta. At this place General Hood succeeded General Johnston in command of the rebel army, and, assuming the offensive-defensive policy, made several severe attacks upon Sherman in the vicinity of Atlanta, the most desperate and determined of which was on the 22d of July. About 1 p. m. of this

day the brave, accomplished, and noble-hearted McPherson was killed. General Logan succeeded him, and commanded the Army of the Tennessee through this desperate battle, and until he was superseded by Major-General Howard, on the 26th, with the same success and ability that had characterized him in the command of a corps or division.

In all these attacks the enemy was repulsed with great loss. Finding it impossible to entirely invest the place, General Sherman, after securing his line of communications across the Chattahoochee, moved his main force round by the enemy's left flank upon the Montgomery and Macon roads, to draw the enemy from his fortifications. In this he succeeded, and, after defeating the enemy near Rough and Ready, Jonesboro', and Lovejoy's, forcing him to retreat to the south, on the 2d of September occupied Atlanta, the objective point of his campaign.

About the time of this move, the rebel cavalry, under Wheeler, attempted to cut his communications in the rear, but was repulsed at Dalton, and driven into East Tennessee, whence it proceeded west to McMinnville, Murfreesboro', and Franklin, and was finally driven south of the Tennessee. The damage done by this raid was repaired in a few days.

During the partial investment of Atlanta, General Rousseau joined General Sherman with a force of cavalry from Decatur, having made a successful raid upon the Atlanta and Montgomery Railroad, and its branches near Opelika. Cavalry raids were also made by Generals McCook, Garrard, and Stoneman, to cut the remaining railroad communication with Atlanta. The first two were successful—the latter disastrous.

General Sherman's movement from Chattanooga to Atlanta was prompt, skilful, and brilliant. The history of his flank movements and battles during that memorable campaign will ever be read with an interest unsurpassed by any thing in history.

His own report, and those of his subordinate commanders accompanying it, give the details of that most successful campaign.

He was dependent for the supply of his armies upon a single-track railroad from Nashville to the point where he was operating. This passed the entire distance through a hostile country, and every foot of it had to be protected by troops. The cavalry force of the enemy under Forrest, in Northern Mississippi, was evidently waiting for Sherman to advance far enough into the mountains of Georgia to make a retreat disastrous, to get upon his line and destroy it beyond the possibility of further use. To guard against this danger, Sherman left what he supposed to be a sufficient force to operate against Forrest in West Tennessee. He directed General Washburn, who commanded there, to send Brigadier-General S. D. Sturgis in command of this force to attack him. On the morning of the 10th of June General Sturgis met the enemy near Guntown, Mississippi, was badly beaten, and driven back in utter rout and confusion to Memphis, a distance of about one hundred miles, hotly pursued by the enemy. By this, however, the enemy was defeated in his designs upon Sherman's line of communications. The persistency with which he followed up this success exhausted him, and made a season for rest and repairs necessary. In the mean time Major-General A. J. Smith, with the troops of the Army of the Tennessee that had been sent by General Sherman to General Banks, arrived at Memphis on their return from Red River, where they had done most excellent service. He was directed by General Sherman to immediately take the offensive against Forrest. This he did with the promptness and effect which has characterized his whole military career. On the 14th of July he met the enemy at Tupelo, Mississippi, and whipped him badly. The fighting continued through three days. Our loss was small compared with that of the enemy. Having accomplished the object of his expedition, General Smith returned to Memphis.

During the months of March and April this same force under Forrest annoyed us considerably. On the 24th of March it captured Union City, Kentucky, and its garrison, and on the 24th attacked Paducah, commanded by Colonel S. G. Hicks, Fortieth Illinois Volunteers. Colonel H., having but a small force, withdrew to the forts near the river, from where he repulsed the enemy and drove him from the place.

On the 18th of April part of this force, under the rebel General Buford, summoned the garrison of Columbus, Kentucky, to surrender, but received for reply from Colonel Lawrence, Thirty-fourth New Jersey Volunteers, that, being placed there by his Government, with adequate force to hold his post and repel all enemies from it, surrender was out of the question.

On the morning of the same day Forrest attacked Fort Pillow, Tennessee, garrisoned by a detachment of Tennessee cavalry and the First Regiment Alabama colored troops, commanded by Major Booth. The garrison fought bravely until about 3 o'clock in the afternoon, when the enemy carried the works by assault; and, after our men threw down their arms, proceeded to an inhuman and merciless massacre of the garrison.

On the 14th, General Buford, having failed at Columbus, appeared before Paducah, but was again driven off.

Guerrillas and raiders, seemingly emboldened by Forrest's operations, were also very active in Kentucky. The most noted of these was Morgan. With a force of from two to three thousand cavalry he entered the State through Pound Gap in the latter part of May. On the 11th of June he attacked and captured Cynthiana, with its entire garrison. On the 12th he was overtaken by General Burbridge, and completely routed with heavy loss, and was finally driven out of the State. This notorious guerrilla was afterwards surprised and killed near Greenville, Tennessee, and his command captured and dispersed by General Gillem.

In the absence of official reports at the commencement of the Red River expedition, except so far as relates to the movements of the troops sent by General Sherman under A. J. Smith, I am unable to give the date of its starting. The troops under General Smith, comprising two divisions of the Sixteenth and a detachment of the Seventeenth Army Corps, left Vicksburg on the 10th of March and reached the designated point on Red River one day earlier than that appointed by General Banks. The rebel forces at Fort De Russey, thinking to defeat him, left the fort on the 14th to give him battle in the open field; but, while occupying the enemy with skirmishing and demonstrations, Smith pushed forward to Fort De Russey, which had been left with a weak garrison, and captured it with its garrison—about 850 men, 11 pieces of artillery, and many small-arms. Our loss was but slight. On the 15th he pushed forward to Alexandria, which place he reached on the 18th. On the 21st he had an engagement with the enemy at Henderson Hill, in which he defeated him, capturing 210 prisoners and 4 pieces of artillery.

On the 28th he again attacked and defeated the enemy under the rebel General Taylor, at Cane River. By the 26th General Banks had assembled his whole army at Alexandria and pushed forward to Grand Ecore. On the morning of April 6th he moved from Grand Ecore. On the afternoon of the 7th his advance engaged the enemy near Pleasant Hill and drove him from the field. On the same afternoon the enemy made a stand eight miles beyond Pleasant Hill, but was again compelled to retreat. On the 8th, at Sabine Cross-Roads and Peach Hill, the enemy attacked and defeated his advance, capturing nineteen pieces of artillery and an immense amount of transportation and stores. During the night General Banks fell back to Pleasant Hill, where another battle was fought on the 9th, and the enemy repulsed with great loss. During the night General Banks

continued his retrograde movement to Grand Ecore, and thence to Alexandria, which he reached on the 27th of April. Here a serious difficulty arose in getting Admiral Porter's fleet, which accompanied the expedition, over the rapids, the water having fallen so much since they passed up as to prevent their return. At the suggestion of Colonel (now Brigadier-General) Bailey, and under his superintendence, wing-dams were constructed, by which the channel was contracted so that the fleet passed down the rapids in safety.

The army evacuated Alexandria on the 14th of May, after considerable skirmishing with the enemy's advance, and reached Morganza and Point Coupée near the end of the month. The disastrous termination of this expedition, and the lateness of the season, rendered impracticable the carrying out of my plan of a movement in force sufficient to insure the capture of Mobile.

On the 23d of March, Major-General Steele left Little Rock with the Seventh Army Corps to coöperate with General Banks's expedition on Red River, and reached Arkadelphia on the 28th. On the 16th of April, after driving the enemy before him, he was joined, near Elkin's Ferry, in Washita County, by General Thayer, who had marched from Fort Smith. After several severe skirmishes, in which the enemy was defeated, General Steele reached Camden, which he occupied about the middle of April.

On learning the defeat and consequent retreat of General Banks on Red River, and the loss of one of his own trains at Mark's mill, in Dallas County, General Steele determined to fall back to the Arkansas River. He left Camden on the 26th of April, and reached Little Rock on the 2d of May. On the 30th of April, the enemy attacked him while crossing Saline River at Jenkins's Ferry, but was repulsed with considerable loss. Our loss was about 600 in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

Major-General Canby, who had been assigned to the command of the "Military Division of the West Mississippi," was therefore directed to send the Nineteenth Army Corps to join the armies operating against Richmond, and to limit the remainder of his command to such operations as might be necessary to hold the positions and lines of communications he then occupied.

Before starting General A. J. Smith's troops back to Sherman, General Canby sent a part of them to disperse a force of the enemy that was collecting near the Mississippi River. General Smith met and defeated this force near Lake Chicot on the 6th of June. Our loss was about forty killed and seventy wounded.

In the latter part of July General Canby sent Major-General Gordon Granger, with such forces as he could collect to coöperate with Admiral Farragut against the defences of Mobile Bay. On the 8th of August Fort Gaines surrendered to the combined naval and land forces. Fort Powell was blown up and abandoned.

On the 9th, Fort Morgan was invested, and, after a severe bombardment, surrendered on the 23d. The total captures amounted to 1,464 prisoners, and 104 pieces of artillery.

About the last of August, it being reported that the rebel General Price, with a force of about 10,000 men, had reached Jacksonport, on his way to invade Missouri, General A. J. Smith's command, then en route from Memphis to join Sherman, was ordered to Missouri. A cavalry force was also, at the same time, sent from Memphis, under command of Colonel Winslow. This made General Rosecrans's forces superior to those of Price, and no doubt was entertained he would be able to check Price and drive him back; while the forces under General Steele, in Arkansas, would cut off his retreat. On the 26th day of September Price attacked Pilot Knob and forced the garrison to retreat, and thence moved north to the Missouri River, and continued up that river toward Kansas. General Curtis, commanding department

of Kansas, immediately collected such forces as he could to repel the invasion of Kansas, while General Rosecrans's cavalry was operating in his rear.

The enemy was brought to battle on the Big Blue and defeated, with the loss of nearly all his artillery and trains and a large number of prisoners. He made a precipitate retreat to Northern Arkansas. The impunity with which Price was enabled to roam over the State of Missouri for a long time, and the incalculable mischief done by him, shows to how little purpose a superior force may be used. There is no reason why General Rosecrans should not have concentrated his forces, and beaten and driven Price before the latter reached Pilot Knob.

September 20th, the enemy's cavalry, under Forrest, crossed the Tennessee near Waterloo, Alabama, and on the 23d attacked the garrison at Athens, consisting of six hundred men, which capitulated on the 24th. Soon after the surrender two regiments of reinforcements arrived, and after a severe fight were compelled to surrender. Forrest destroyed the railroad westward, captured the garrison at Sulphur Branch trestle, skirmished with the garrison at Pulaski on the 27th, and on the same day cut the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad near Tullahoma and Dechard. On the morning of the 30th one column of Forrest's command, under Buford, appeared before Huntsville, and summoned the surrender of the garrison. Receiving an answer in the negative, he remained in the vicinity of the place until next morning, when he again summoned its surrender, and received the same reply as on the night before. He withdrew in the direction of Athens, which place had been regarrisoned, and attacked it on the afternoon of the 1st of October, but without success. On the morning of the 2d he renewed his attack, but was handsomely repulsed.

Another column under Forrest appeared before Columbia on the morning of the 1st, but did not make an attack. On the morning of the 3d he moved toward Mount Pleasant. While these operations were going on, every exertion was made by General Thomas to destroy the forces under Forrest before he could recross the Tennessee, but was unable to prevent his escape to Corinth, Mississippi.

In September, an expedition under General Burbridge was sent to destroy the salt works at Saltville, Virginia. He met the enemy on the 2d of October, about three miles and a half from Saltville, and drove him into his strongly intrenched position around the salt works, from which he was unable to dislodge him. During the night he withdrew his command and returned to Kentucky.

General Sherman, immediately after the fall of Atlanta, put his armies in camp in and about the place, and made all preparations for refitting and supplying them for future service. The great length of road from Atlanta to the Cumberland River, however, which had to be guarded, allowed the troops but little rest.

During this time Jefferson Davis made a speech in Macon, Georgia, which was reported in the papers of the South, and soon became known to the whole country, disclosing the plans of the enemy, thus enabling General Sherman to fully meet them. He exhibited the weakness of supposing that an army that had been beaten and fearfully decimated in a vain attempt at the defensive, could successfully undertake the offensive against the army that had so often defeated it.

In execution of this plan, Hood, with his army, was soon reported to the southwest of Atlanta. Moving far to Sherman's right, he succeeded in reaching the railroad about Big Shanty, and moved north on it.

General Sherman, leaving a force to hold Atlanta, with the remainder of his army fell upon him and drove him to Gadston, Alabama. Seeing the constant annoyance he would have with the roads to his rear if he attempted to hold Atlanta, General Sher-

man proposed the abandonment and destruction of that place, with all the railroads leading to it, and telegraphed me as follows:

CENTREVILLE, GA., October 10—noon.

Despatch about Wilson just received. Hood is now crossing Coosa River, twelve miles below Rome, bound west. If he passes over the Mobile and Ohio road, had I not better execute the plan of my letter sent by Colonel Porter, and leave General Thomas, with the troops now in Tennessee, to defend the State? He will have an ample force when the reinforcements ordered reach Nashville.

W. T. SHERMAN, Major-General.

Lieutenant-General GRANT.

For a full understanding of the plan referred to in this despatch, I quote from the letter sent by Colonel Porter: "I will therefore give my opinion, that your army and Canby's should be reinforced to the maximum; that after you get Wilmington, you strike for Savannah and the river; that Canby be instructed to hold the Mississippi River, and send a force to get Columbus, Georgia, either by the way of the Alabama or the Appalachicola, and that I keep Hood employed and put my army in final order for a march on Augusta, Columbia, and Charleston, to be ready as soon as Wilmington is sealed as to commerce, and the city of Savannah is in our possession." This was in reply to a letter of mine of date September 12th, in answer to a despatch of his containing substantially the same proposition, and in which I informed him of a proposed movement against Wilmington, and of the situation in Virginia, etc.

CITY POINT, VA., October 11, 1864—11 A. M.

Your despatch of October 10th received. Does it not look as if Hood was going to attempt the invasion of Middle Tennessee, using the Mobile and Ohio and Memphis and Charleston roads to supply his base on the Tennessee River, about Florence or Decatur? If he does this, he ought to be met and prevented from getting north of the Tennessee River. If you were to cut loose, I do not believe you would meet Hood's army, but would be hushwhacked by all the old men and little boys, and such railroad guards as are still left at home. Hood would probably strike for Nashville, thinking that by going north he could inflict greater damage upon us than we could upon the rebels by going south. If there is any way of getting at Hood's army I would prefer that; but I must trust to your own judgment. I find I shall not be able to send a force from here to act with you on Savannah. Your movements, therefore, will be independent of mine; at least until the fall of Richmond takes place. I am afraid Thomas, with such lines of road as he has to protect, could not prevent Hood from going north. With Wilson turned loose, with all your cavalry, you will find the rebels put much more on the defensive than heretofore.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General W. T. SHERMAN.

KINGSTON, GA., October 11—11 A. M.

Hood moved his army from Palmetto Station across by Dallas and Cedartown, and is now on the Coosa River, south of Rome. He threw one corps on my road at Acworth, and I was forced to follow. I hold Atlanta with the Twentieth Corps, and have strong detachments along my line. This reduces my active force to a comparatively small army. We cannot remain here on the defensive. With the 25,000 men, and the bold cavalry he has, he can constantly break my roads. I would infinitely prefer to make a wreck of the road, and of the country from Chattanooga to Atlanta, including the latter city—send back all my wounded and worthless, and, with my effective army, move through Georgia, smashing things, to the sea. Hood may turn into Tennessee and Kentucky, but I believe he will be forced to follow me. Instead of my being on the defensive, I would be on the offensive; instead of guessing at what he means to do, he would have to guess at my plans. The difference in war is full twenty-five per cent. I can make Savannah, Charleston, or the mouth of the Chattahoochee.

Answer quick, as I know we will not have the telegraph long.

W. T. SHERMAN, Major-General.

Lieutenant-General GRANT.

CITY POINT, VA., October 11, 1864—11:30 P. M.

Your despatch of to-day received. If you are satisfied the trip to the sea-coast can be made, holding the line of the Tennessee River firmly, you may make it, destroying all the railroad south of Dalton or Chattanooga, as you think best.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General W. T. SHERMAN.

It was the original design to hold Atlanta, and by getting through to the coast, with a garrison left on the southern railroads, leading east and west, through Georgia, to effectually sever the east from the west. In other words, cut the would-be Confederacy in two again, as it had been cut once by our gaining possession of the Mississippi River. General Sherman's plan virtually effected this object.

General Sherman commenced at once his preparations for his proposed movement, keeping his army in position in the mean time to watch Hood. Becoming satisfied that Hood had moved westward from Gadsden across Sand Mountain, General Sherman sent the Fourth Corps, Major-General Stanley commanding, and the Twenty-third Corps, Major-General Schofield commanding, back to Chattanooga to report to Major-General Thomas, at Nashville, whom he had placed in command of all the troops of his military division, save the four army corps and cavalry division he designed to move with through Georgia. With the troops thus left at his disposal, there was little doubt that General Thomas could hold the line of the Tennessee, or in the event Hood should force it, would be able to concentrate and beat him in battle. It was therefore readily consented to that Sherman should start for the sea-coast.

Having concentrated his troops at Atlanta by the 14th of November, he commenced his march, threatening both Augusta and Macon. His coming-out point could not be definitely fixed. Having to gather his subsistence as he marched through the country, it was not impossible that a force inferior to his own might compel him to head for such point as he could reach, instead of such as he might prefer. The blindness of the enemy, however, in ignoring this movement, and sending Hood's army, the only considerable force he had west of Richmond and east of the Mississippi River, northward on an offensive campaign, left the whole country open, and Sherman's route to his own choice.

How that campaign was conducted, how little opposition was met with, the condition of the country through which the armies passed, the capture of Fort McAllister, on the Savannah River, and the occupation of Savannah on the 21st of December, are all clearly set forth in General Sherman's admirable report.

Soon after General Sherman commenced his march from Atlanta, two expeditions, one from Baton Rouge, Louisiana, and one from Vicksburg, Mississippi, were started by General Canby to cut the enemy's line of communication with Mobile and detain troops in that field. General Foster, commanding Department of the South, also sent an expedition, *via* Broad River, to destroy the railroad between Charleston and Savannah. The expedition from Vicksburg, under command of Brevet Brigadier-General E. D. Osband (Colonel Third United States colored cavalry), captured, on the 27th of November, and destroyed the Mississippi Central railroad bridge and trestle-work over Big Black River, near Canton, thirty miles of the road, and two locomotives, besides large amounts of stores. The expedition from Baton Rouge was without favorable results. The expedition from the Department of the South, under the immediate command of Brigadier-General John P. Hatch, consisting of about five thousand men of all arms, including a brigade from the navy, proceeded up Broad River and debarked at Boyd's Neck on the 29th of November, from where it moved to strike the railroad at Grahamsville. At Honey Hill, about three miles from Grahamsville, the enemy was found and attacked in a strongly fortified position, which resulted, after severe fighting, in our repulse with a loss of 746 in killed, wounded, and missing. During the night General Hatch withdrew. On the 6th of December General Foster obtained a position covering the Charleston and Savannah Railroad, between the Coosawatchie and Tallfinny Rivers.

Hood, instead of following Sherman, continued his

move northward, which seemed to me to be leading to his certain doom. At all events, had I had the power of commanding both armies, I should not have changed the orders under which he seemed to be acting. On the twenty-sixth of October the advance of Hood's army attacked the garrison at Decatur, Alabama, but failing to carry the place, withdrew toward Cortland, and succeeded, in the face of our cavalry, in effecting a lodgment on the north side of the Tennessee River, near Florence. On the 28th Forrest reached the Tennessee, at Fort Hieman, and captured a gunboat and three transports. On the second of November he planted batteries above and below Johnsonville, on the opposite side of the river, isolating three gunboats and eight transports. On the 4th the enemy opened his batteries upon the place, and was replied to from the gunboats and the garrison. The gunboats becoming disabled were set on fire, as also were the transports, to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy. About a million and a half dollars' worth of stores and property on the levee and in storehouses was consumed by fire. On the fifth the enemy disappeared and crossed to the north side of the Tennessee River, above Johnsonville, moving toward Clifton, and subsequently joined Hood. On the night of the 5th General Schofield, with the advance of the Twenty-third Corps, reached Johnsonville, but finding the enemy gone, was ordered to Pulaski, and put in command of all the troops there, with instructions to watch the movements of Hood and retard his advance, but not to risk a general engagement until the arrival of General A. J. Smith's command from Missouri, and until General Wilson could get his cavalry remounted.

On the 19th General Hood continued his advance. General Thomas, retarding him as much as possible, fell back toward Nashville for the purpose of concentrating his command and gaining time for the arrival of reinforcements. The enemy coming up with our main force, commanded by General Schofield, at Franklin, on the 30th, assaulted our works repeatedly during the afternoon until late at night, but were in every instance repulsed. His loss in this battle was 1,750 killed, 702 prisoners, and 2,800 wounded. Among his losses were six general officers killed, six wounded, and one captured. Our entire loss was 2,800. This was the first serious opposition the enemy met with, and I am satisfied was the fatal blow to all his expectations. During the night General Schofield fell back toward Nashville. This left the field to the enemy—not lost by battle, but voluntarily abandoned—so that General Thomas's whole force might be brought together. The enemy followed up and commenced the establishment of his line in front of Nashville on the second of December.

As soon as it was ascertained that Hood was crossing the Tennessee River, and that Price was going out of Missouri, General Rosecrans was ordered to send to General Thomas the troops of General A. J. Smith's command and such other troops as he could spare. The advance of this reinforcement reached Nashville on the 30th November.

On the morning of the 15th December General Thomas attacked Hood in position, and, in a battle lasting two days, defeated and drove him from the field in the utmost confusion, leaving in our hands most of his artillery and many thousand prisoners, including four general officers.

Before the battle of Nashville I grew very impatient over, as it appeared to me, the unnecessary delay. This impatience was increased upon learning that the enemy had sent a force of cavalry across the Cumberland into Kentucky. I feared Hood would cross his whole army and give us great trouble there. After urging upon General Thomas the necessity of immediately assuming the offensive, I started west to superintend matters there in person. Reaching Washington City, I received General Thomas's despatch announcing his attack upon the enemy, and the result as far as the battle had progressed. I was

delighted. All fears and apprehensions were dispelled. I am not yet satisfied but that General Thomas, immediately upon the appearance of Hood before Nashville, and before he had time to fortify, should have moved out with his whole force and given him battle, instead of waiting to remount his cavalry, which delayed him until the inclemency of the weather made it impracticable to attack earlier than he did. But his final defeat of Hood was so complete that it will be accepted as a vindication of that distinguished officer's judgment.

After Hood's defeat at Nashville he retreated, closely pursued by cavalry and infantry, to the Tennessee River, being forced to abandon many pieces of artillery and most of his transportation. On the 23th of December our advance forces ascertained that he had made good his escape to the south side of the river.

About this time, the rains having set in heavily in Tennessee and North Alabama, making it difficult to move army transportation and artillery, General Thomas stopped the pursuit by his main force at the Tennessee River. A small force of cavalry, under Colonel W. J. Palmer, Fifteenth Pennsylvania Volunteers, continued to follow Hood for some distance, capturing considerable transportation and the enemy's pontoon bridge. The details of these operations will be found clearly set forth in General Thomas's report.

A cavalry expedition, under Brevet Major-General Grierson, started from Memphis on the 21st of December. On the 25th he surprised and captured Forrest's dismounted camp at Verona, Mississippi, on the Mobile and Ohio Railroad, destroyed the railroad, sixteen cars loaded with wagons and pontoons for Hood's army, 4,000 new English carbines, and large amounts of public stores. On the morning of the 28th he attacked and captured a force of the enemy at Egypt, and destroyed a train of fourteen cars; thence turning to the southwest, he struck the Mississippi Central Railroad at Winona, destroyed the factories and large amounts of stores at Bankston, and the machine shops and public property at Grenada, arriving at Vicksburg January 5th.

During these operations in Middle Tennessee, the enemy, with a force under General Breckinridge, entered East Tennessee. On the 18th of November, he attacked General Gillem, near Morristown, capturing his artillery and several hundred prisoners. Gillem, with what was left of his command, retreated to Knoxville. Following up his success, Breckinridge moved to near Knoxville, but withdrew on the 18th, followed by General Ammen. Under the directions of General Thomas, General Stoneman concentrated the commands of Generals Burbridge and Gillem near Bean's Station, to operate against Breckinridge, and destroy or drive him into Virginia—destroy the salt works at Saltville, and the railroad into Virginia as far as he could go without endangering his command. On the 12th of December he commenced his movement, capturing and dispersing the enemy's force wherever he met them. On the 16th he struck the enemy, under Vaughn, at Marion, completely routing and pursuing him to Wytheville, capturing all his artillery, trains, and one hundred and ninety-eight prisoners; and destroyed Wytheville, with its stores and supplies, and the extensive lead works near there. Returning to Marion, he met a force under Breckinridge, consisting, among other troops, of the garrison of Saltville, that had started in pursuit. He at once made arrangements to attack it the next morning; but morning found Breckinridge gone. He then moved directly to Saltville, and destroyed the extensive salt works at that place, a large amount of stores, and captured eight pieces of artillery. Having thus successfully executed his instructions, he returned General Burbridge to Lexington and General Gillem to Knoxville.

Wilmington, North Carolina, was the most important sea-coast port left to the enemy through which

to get supplies from abroad, and send cotton and other products out by blockade-runners, besides being a place of great strategic value. The navy had been making strenuous exertions to seal the harbor of Wilmington, but with only partial effect. The nature of the outlet of Cape Fear River was such that it required watching for so great a distance that, without possession of the land north of New Inlet, or Fort Fisher, it was impossible for the navy to entirely close the harbor against the entrance of blockade-runners.

To secure the possession of this land required the coöperation of a land force, which I agreed to furnish. I immediately commenced the assemblage in Hampton Roads, under Admiral D. D. Porter, of the most formidable armada ever collected for concentration upon one given point. This necessarily attracted the attention of the enemy, as well as that of the loyal North; and through the imprudence of the public press, and very likely of officers of both branches of service, the exact object of the expedition became a subject of common discussion in the newspapers both North and South. The enemy, thus warned, prepared to meet it. This caused a postponement of the expedition until the latter part of November, when, being again called upon by Hon. G. V. Fox, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, I agreed to furnish the men required at once, and went myself, in company with Major-General Butler, to Hampton Roads, where we had a conference with Admiral Porter as to the force required and the time of starting. A force of six thousand five hundred men was regarded as sufficient. The time of starting was not definitely arranged, but it was thought all would be ready by the 6th of December, if not before. Learning, on the 30th of November, that Bragg had gone to Georgia, taking with him most of the forces about Wilmington, I deemed it of the utmost importance that the expedition should reach its destination before the return of Bragg, and directed General Butler to make all arrangements for the departure of Major-General Weitzel, who had been designated to command the land forces, so that the navy might not be detained one moment.

On the 6th of December, the following instructions were given:

CITY POINT, VA., December 6, 1864.

GENERAL: The first object of the expedition under General Weitzel is to close to the enemy the port of Wilmington. If successful in this, the second will be to capture Wilmington itself. There are reasonable grounds to hope for success, if advantage can be taken of the absence of the greater part of the enemy's forces now looking after Sherman in Georgia. The directions you have given for the numbers and equipment of the expedition are all right, except in the unimportant matter of where they embark and the amount of intrenching tools to be taken. The object of the expedition will be gained by effecting a landing on the main land between Cape Fear River and the Atlantic, north of the north entrance to the river. Should such landing be effected whilst the enemy still holds Fort Fisher and the batteries guarding the entrance to the river, then the troops should intrench themselves, and, by coöperating with the navy, effect the reduction and capture of those places. These in our hands, the navy could enter the harbor, and the port of Wilmington could be sealed. Should Fort Fisher and the point of land on which it is built fall into the hands of our troops immediately on landing, then it will be worth the attempt to capture Wilmington by a forced march and surprise. If time is consumed in gaining the first object of the expedition, the second will become a matter of after consideration.

The details for execution are intrusted to you and the officer immediately in command of the troops.

Should the troops under General Weitzel fail to effect a landing at or near Fort Fisher, they will be returned to the armies operating against Richmond without delay.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General B. F. BUTLER.

General Butler, commanding the army from which the troops were taken for this enterprise, and the territory within which they were to operate, military courtesy required that all orders and instructions should go through him. They were so sent; but

General Weitzel has since officially informed me that he never received the foregoing instructions, nor was he aware of their existence until he read General Butler's published official report of the Fort Fisher failure, with my endorsement and papers accompanying it. I had no idea of General Butler's accompanying the expedition until the evening before it got off from Bermuda Hundred, and then did not dream but that General Weitzel had received all the instructions, and would be in command. I rather formed the idea that General Butler was actuated by a desire to witness the effect of the explosion of the powder-boat. The expedition was detained several days at Hampton Roads, awaiting the loading of the powder-boat.

The importance of getting the Wilmington expedition off without any delay, with or without the powder-boat, had been urged upon General Butler, and he advised to so notify Admiral Porter.

The expedition finally got off on the 13th of December, and arrived at the place of rendezvous, off New Inlet, near Fort Fisher, on the evening of the 15th. Admiral Porter arrived on the evening of the 18th, having put in at Beaufort to get ammunition for the monitors. The sea becoming rough, making it difficult to land troops, and the supply of water and coal being about exhausted, the transport fleet put back to Beaufort to replenish; this, with the state of the weather, delayed the return to the place of rendezvous until the 24th. The powder-boat was exploded on the morning of the 24th, before the return of General Butler from Beaufort; but it would seem, from the notice taken of it in the Southern newspapers, that the enemy were never enlightened as to the object of the explosion until they were informed by the Northern press.

On the 25th a landing was effected without opposition, and a reconnaissance, under Brevet Brigadier-General Curtis, pushed up toward the fort. But before receiving a full report of the result of this reconnaissance, General Butler, in direct violation of the instructions given, ordered the reembarkation of the troops and the return of the expedition. The reembarkation was accomplished by the morning of the 27th.

On the return of the expedition, officers and men—among them Brevet Major-General (then Brevet Brigadier-General) M. R. Curtis, First Lieutenant G. W. Ross, — regiment Vermont Volunteers, First Lieutenant George W. Walling, and Second Lieutenant George Simpson, One Hundred and Forty-second New York Volunteers—voluntarily reported to me that when recalled they were nearly into the fort, and, in their opinion, it could have been taken without much loss.

Soon after the return of the expedition, I received a despatch from the Secretary of the Navy, and a letter from Admiral Porter, informing me that the fleet was still off Fort Fisher, and expressing the conviction that, under a proper leader, the place could be taken. The natural supposition with me was, that when the troops abandoned the expedition the navy would do so also. Finding it had not, however, I answered on the 30th of December, advising Admiral Porter to hold on, and that I would send a force and make another attempt to take the place. This time I selected Brevet Major-General (now Major-General) A. H. Terry to command the expedition. The troops composing it consisted of the same that composed the former, with the addition of a small brigade, numbering about 1,500, and a small siege train. The latter it was never found necessary to land. I communicated direct to the commander of the expedition the following instructions:

CITY POINT, VA., January 3, 1865.

GENERAL: The expedition intrusted to your command has been fitted out to renew the attempt to capture Fort Fisher, N. C., and Wilmington ultimately, if the fort falls. You will then proceed with as little delay as possible to the naval fleet lying off Cape Fear River, and report the arrival

of yourself and command to Admiral D. D. Porter, commanding North Atlantic Blockading Squadron.

It is exceedingly desirable that the most complete understanding should exist between yourself and the naval commander. I suggest, therefore, that you consult with Admiral Porter freely, and get from him the part to be performed by each branch of the public service, so that there may be unity of action. It would be well to have the whole programme laid down in writing. I have served with Admiral Porter, and know that you can rely on his judgment and his nerve to undertake what he proposes. I would, therefore, defer to him as much as is consistent with your own responsibilities. The first object to be attained is to get a firm position on the spit of land on which Fort Fisher is built, from which you can operate against that fort. You want to look to the practicability of receiving your supplies, and to defending yourself against superior forces sent against you by any of the avenues left open to the enemy. If such a position can be obtained, the siege of Fort Fisher will not be abandoned until its reduction is accomplished, or another plan of campaign is ordered from these headquarters.

My own views are that, if you effect a landing, the navy ought to run a portion of their fleet into Cape Fear River, while the balance of it operates on the outside. Land forces cannot invest Fort Fisher, or cut it off from supplies or reinforcements, while the river is in the possession of the enemy.

A siege train will be loaded on vessels and sent to Fort Monroe, in readiness to be sent to you if required. All other supplies can be drawn from Beaufort as you need them.

Keep the fleet of vessels with you until your position is assured. When you find they can be spared, order them back, or such of them as you can spare, to Fort Monroe, to report for orders.

In case of failure to effect a landing, bring your command back to Beaufort, and report to these headquarters for further instructions. You will not debark at Beaufort until so directed.

General Sheridan has been ordered to send a division of troops to Baltimore, and place them on sea-going vessels. These troops will be brought to Fort Monroe and kept there on the vessels until you are heard from. Should you require them, they will be sent to you.

"U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

"Brevet Major-General A. H. TERRY."

Lieutenant-Colonel C. B. Comstock, aide-de-camp (now brevet brigadier-general), who accompanied the former expedition, was assigned in orders as chief engineer to this.

It will be seen that these instructions did not differ materially from those given for the first expedition; and that in neither instance was there an order to assault Fort Fisher. This was a matter left entirely to the discretion of the commanding officer.

The expedition sailed from Fort Monroe on the morning of the 6th, arriving on the rendezvous, off Beaufort, on the 8th, where, owing to the difficulties of the weather, it lay until the morning of the 12th, when it got under way and reached its destination that evening. Under cover of the fleet the disembarkation of the troops commenced on the morning of the 13th, and by 3 o'clock P. M. was completed without loss. On the 14th a reconnaissance was pushed to within five hundred yards of Fort Fisher, and a small advance work taken possession of and turned into a defensive line against any attempt that might be made from the fort. This reconnaissance disclosed the fact that the front of the work had been seriously injured by the navy fire. In the afternoon of the 15th the fort was assaulted, and after most desperate fighting was captured, with its entire garrison and armament. Thus was secured, by the combined efforts of the navy and army, one of the most important successes of the war. Our loss was: killed, one hundred and ten; wounded, five hundred and thirty-six. On the 16th and 17th the enemy abandoned and blew up Fort Caswell and the works on Smith's Island, which were immediately occupied by us. This gave us entire control of the mouth of the Cape Fear River.

At my request, Major-General B. F. Butler was relieved, and Major-General E. O. C. Ord assigned to the command of the Department of Virginia and North Carolina.

The defence of the line of the Tennessee no longer

requiring the force which had beaten and nearly destroyed the only army threatening it, I determined to find other fields of operation for General Thomas's surplus troops—fields from which they would cooperate with other movements. General Thomas was therefore directed to collect all troops, not essential to hold his communications at Eastport, in readiness for orders. On the 7th of January General Thomas was directed, if he was assured of the departure of Hood south from Corinth, to send General Schofield with his corps east with as little delay as possible. This direction was promptly complied with, and the advance of the corps reached Washington on the 23d of the same month, whence it was sent to Fort Fisher and Newbern. On the 26th he was directed to send General A. J. Smith's command and a division of cavalry to report to General Canby. By the 7th of February the whole force was *en route* for its destination.

The State of North Carolina was constituted into a military department, and General Schofield assigned to command, and placed under the orders of Major-General Sherman. The following instructions were given him:

CITY POINT, VA., January 31, 1865.
GENERAL: * * * Your movements are intended as cooperative with Sherman through the States of South and North Carolina. The first point to be attained is to secure Wilmington. Goldsboro' will then be your objective point, moving either from Wilmington or Newbern, or both, as you deem best. Should you not be able to reach Goldsboro', you will advance on the line or lines of railway connecting that place with the sea-coast—as near to it as you can, building the road behind you. The enterprise under you has two objects: the first is to give General Sherman material aid, if needed, in his march north; the second, to open a base of supplies for him on his line of march. As soon, therefore, as you can determine which of the two points, Wilmington or Newbern, you can best use for throwing supplies from to the interior, you will commence the accumulation of twenty days' rations and forage for 60,000 men and 20,000 animals. You will get of these as many as you can house and protect to such point in the interior as you may be able to occupy. I believe General Palmer has received some instructions direct from General Sherman on the subject of securing supplies for his army. You can learn what steps he has taken, and be governed in your requisitions accordingly. A supply of ordnance stores will also be necessary.

Make all requisitions upon the chiefs of their respective departments in the field with me at City Point. Communicate with me by every opportunity; and should you deem it necessary at any time, send a special boat to Fortress Monroe, from which point you can communicate by telegraph.

The supplies referred to in these instructions are exclusive of those required for your own command.

The movements of the enemy may justify, or even make it your imperative duty, to cut loose from your base and strike for the interior to aid Sherman. In such case you will act on your own judgment, without waiting for instructions. You will report, however, what you purpose doing. The details for carrying out these instructions are necessarily left to you. I would urge, however, if I did not know that you are already fully alive to the importance of it, prompt action. Sherman may be looked for in the neighborhood of Goldsboro' any time from the 22d to the 28th of February; this limits your time very materially.

If rolling stock is not secured in the capture of Wilmington, it can be supplied from Washington. A large force of railroad men have already been sent to Beaufort, and other mechanics will go to Fort Fisher in a day or two. On this point I have informed you by telegraph.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

"Major-General J. M. Schofield."

Previous to giving these instructions I had visited Fort Fisher, accompanied by General Schofield, for the purpose of seeing for myself the condition of things, and personally conferring with General Terry and Admiral Porter as to what was best to be done.

Anticipating the arrival of General Sherman at Savannah—his army entirely foot-loose, Hood being then before Nashville, Tennessee, the Southern railroads destroyed, so that it would take several months to reestablish a through line from west to east, and regarding the capture of Lee's army as the most important operation toward closing the rebellion—I sent orders to General Sherman on the 6th of Decem-

ber, that after establishing a base on the sea-coast, with necessary garrison, to include all his artillery and cavalry, to come by water to City Point with the balance of his command.

On the 18th of December, having received information of the defeat and utter rout of Hood's army by General Thomas, and that, owing to the great difficulty of procuring ocean transportation, it would take over two months to transport Sherman's army, and doubting whether he might not contribute as much toward the desired result by operating from where he was, I wrote to him to that effect, and asked him for his views as to what would be best to do. A few days after this I received a communication from General Sherman, of date 16th December, acknowledging the receipt of my order of the 6th, and informing me of his preparations to carry it into effect as soon as he could get transportation. Also that he had expected, upon reducing Savannah, instantly to march to Columbia, South Carolina, thence to Raleigh, and thence to report to me; but that this would consume about six weeks' time after the fall of Savannah, whereas by sea he could probably reach me by the middle of January. The confidence he manifested in this letter of being able to march up and join me pleased me, and, without waiting for a reply to my letter of the 18th, I directed him, on the 28th of December, to make preparations to start, as he proposed, without delay, to break up the railroads in North and South Carolina and join the armies operating against Richmond as soon as he could.

On the 21st of January I informed General Sherman that I had ordered the Twenty-third Corps, Major-General Schofield commanding, east; that it numbered about 21,000 men; that we had at Fort Fisher about 8,000 men; at Newbern about 4,000; that if Wilmington was captured, General Schofield would go there; if not, he would be sent to Newbern; that, in either event, all the surplus force at both points would move to the interior toward Goldsboro', in cooperation with his movement; that from either point railroad communication could be run out; and that all these troops would be subject to his orders as he came into communication with them.

In obedience to his instructions, General Schofield proceeded to reduce Wilmington, North Carolina, in cooperation with the navy under Admiral Porter, moving his forces up both sides of the Cape Fear River. Fort Anderson, the enemy's main defence on the west bank of the river, was occupied on the morning of the 19th, the enemy having evacuated it after our appearance before it.

After fighting on the 20th and 21st, our troops entered Wilmington on the morning of the 22d, the enemy having retreated toward Goldsboro' during the night. Preparations were at once made for a movement on Goldsboro' in two columns—one from Wilmington, and the other from Newbern—and to repair the railroad leading there from each place, as well as to supply General Sherman by Cape Fear River, toward Fayetteville, if it became necessary. The column from Newbern was attacked on the 8th of March at Wise's Forks, and driven back with the loss of several hundred prisoners. On the 11th the enemy renewed his attack upon our intrenched position, but was repulsed with severe loss, and fell back during the night. On the 14th the Neuse River was crossed and Kinston occupied, and on the 21st Goldsboro' was entered. The column from Wilmington reached Cox's bridge, on the Neuse River, ten miles above Goldsboro', on the 22d.

By the 1st of February General Sherman's whole army was in motion from Savannah. He captured Columbia, South Carolina, on the 17th; thence moved on Goldsboro', North Carolina, *via* Fayetteville, reaching the latter place on the 12th of March, opening up communication with General Schofield by way of Cape Fear River. On the 15th he resumed his march on Goldsboro'. He met a force of the enemy at Averysboro', and after a severe fight de-

feated and compelled it to retreat. Our loss in the engagement was about 600. The enemy's loss was much greater. On the 18th the combined forces of the enemy, under Joe Johnston, attacked his advance at Bentonville, capturing three guns and driving it back upon the main body. General Slocum, who was in the advance, ascertaining that the whole of Johnston's army was in the front, arranged his troops on the defensive, intrenched himself and awaited reinforcements, which were pushed forward. On the night of the 21st the enemy retreated to Smithfield, leaving his dead and wounded in our hands. From there Sherman continued to Goldsboro', which place had been occupied by General Schofield on the 21st (crossing the Neuse River ten miles above there, at Cox's bridge, where General Terry had got possession and thrown a pontoon bridge on the 22d), thus forming a junction with the columns from Newbern and Wilmington.

Among the important fruits of this campaign was the fall of Charleston, South Carolina. It was evacuated by the enemy on the night of the 17th of February, and occupied by our forces on the 18th.

On the morning of the 31st of January General Thomas was directed to send a cavalry expedition, under General Stoneman, from East Tennessee, to penetrate South Carolina well down toward Columbia, to destroy the railroads and military resources of the country, and return, if he was able, to East Tennessee by way of Salisbury, North Carolina, releasing our prisoners there, if possible. Of the feasibility of this latter, however, General Stoneman was to judge. Sherman's movements, I had no doubt, would attract the attention of all the force the enemy could collect and facilitate the execution of this. General Stoneman was so late in making his start on this expedition (and Sherman having passed out of the State of South Carolina), on the 27th of February I directed General Thomas to change his course, and ordered him to repeat his raid of last fall, destroying the railroad toward Lynchburg as far as he could. This would keep him between our garrisons in East Tennessee and the enemy. I regarded it not impossible that in the event of the enemy being driven from Richmond he might fall back to Lynchburg and attempt a raid north through East Tennessee. On the 14th of February the following communication was sent to General Thomas:

CITY POINT, VA., February 14, 1865.

General Canby is preparing a movement from Mobile Bay against Mobile and the interior of Alabama. His force will consist of about 20,000 men, besides A. J. Smith's command. The cavalry you have sent to Canby will be debarked at Vicksburg. It, with the available cavalry already in that section, will move from there eastward, in cooperation. Hood's army has been terribly reduced by the severe punishment you gave it in Tennessee, by desertion consequent upon their defeat, and now by the withdrawal of many of them to oppose Sherman. (I take it a large portion of the Infantry has been so withdrawn. It is so asserted in the Richmond papers, and a member of the rebel Congress said a few days since in a speech, that one-half of it had been brought to South Carolina to oppose Sherman.) This being true, or even if it is not true, Canby's movement will attract all the attention of the enemy, and leave the advance from your stand-point easy. I think it advisable, therefore, that you prepare as much of a cavalry force as you can spare, and hold it in readiness to go south. The object would be threefold: first, to attract as much of the enemy's force as possible to insure success to Canby; second, to destroy the enemy's line of communications and military resources; third, to destroy or capture their forces brought into the field. Tuscaloosa and Selma would probably be the points to direct the expedition against. This, however, would not be so important as the mere fact of penetrating deep into Alabama. Discretion should be left to the officer commanding the expedition to go where, according to the information he may receive, he will best secure the objects named above.

Now that your force has been so much depleted, I do not know what number of men you can put into the field. If not more than 5,000 men, however, all cavalry, I think it will be sufficient. It is not desirable that you should start this expedition until the one leaving Vicksburg has been three or four days out, or even a week. I do not know when it will

start, but will inform you by telegraph as soon as I learn. If you should hear through other sources before hearing from me, you can act on the information received.

To insure success, your cavalry should go with as little wagon train as possible, relying upon the country for supplies. I would also reduce the number of guns to a battery, or the number of batteries, and put the extra teams to the guns taken. No guns or caissons should be taken with less than eight horses.

Please inform me by telegraph, on receipt of this, what force you think you will be able to send under these directions.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.
Major-General G. H. THOMAS.

On the 15th, he was directed to start the expedition as soon after the 20th as he could get it off.

I deemed it of the utmost importance, before a general movement of the armies operating against Richmond, that all communications with the city, north of James River, should be cut off. The enemy having withdrawn the bulk of his force from the Shenandoah Valley and sent it south, or replaced troops sent from Richmond, and desiring to reinforce Sherman, if practicable, whose cavalry was greatly inferior in numbers to that of the enemy, I determined to make a move from the Shenandoah, which, if successful, would accomplish the first at least, and possibly the latter of these objects. I therefore telegraphed General Sheridan as follows:

CITY POINT, VA., February 20, 1865.—I. P. M.

GENERAL: As soon as it is possible to travel I think you will have no difficulty about reaching Lynchburg with a cavalry force alone. From there you could destroy the railroad and canal in every direction, so as to be of no further use to the rebellion. Sufficient cavalry should be left behind to look after Mosby's gang. From Lynchburg, if information you might get there would justify it, you could strike south, heading the streams in Virginia to the westward of Danville, and push on and join General Sherman. This additional raid, with one now about starting from East Tennessee under Stoneman, numbering four or five thousand cavalry, one from Vicksburg, numbering seven or eight thousand cavalry, one from Eastport, Mississippi, ten thousand cavalry, Canby from Mobile Bay, with about thirty-eight thousand mixed troops, these three latter pushing for Tuscaloosa, Selma, and Montgomery, and Sherman with a large army cutting out the vitals of South Carolina, is all that will be wanted to leave nothing for the rebellion to stand upon. I would advise you to overcome great obstacles to accomplish this. Charleston was evacuated on Tuesday last.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.
Major-General P. H. SHERIDAN.

On the 25th I received a despatch from General Sheridan, inquiring where Sherman was aiming for, and if I could give him definite information as to the points he might be expected to move on this side of Charlotte, North Carolina. In answer, the following telegram was sent him:

CITY POINT, VA., February 25, 1865.

GENERAL: Sherman's movements will depend on the amount of opposition he meets with from the enemy. If strongly opposed, he may possibly have to fall back to Georgetown, S. C., and fit out for a new start. I think, however, all danger for the necessity of going to that point has passed. I believe he has passed Charlotte. He may take Fayetteville on his way to Goldsboro'. If you reach Lynchburg, you will have to be guided in your after movements by the information you obtain. Before you could possibly reach Sherman, I think you would find him moving from Goldsboro' toward Raleigh, or engaging the enemy strongly posted at one or the other of these places, with railroad communications opened from his army to Wilmington or Newbern.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.
Major-General P. H. SHERIDAN.

General Sheridan moved from Winchester on the 27th of February, with two divisions of cavalry, numbering about 5,000 each. On the first of March he secured the bridge, which the enemy attempted to destroy, across the middle fork of the Shenandoah, at Mount Crawford, and entered Staunton on the 2d, the enemy having retreated on Waynesboro'. Thence he pushed on to Waynesboro', where he found the enemy in force in an intrenched position, under General Early. Without stopping to make a reconnaissance, an immediate attack was made, the position

was carried, and sixteen hundred prisoners, eleven pieces of artillery, with horses and caissons complete, two hundred wagons and teams loaded with subsistence, and seventeen battle-flags, were captured. The prisoners, under an escort of fifteen hundred men, were sent back to Winchester. Thence he marched on Charlottesville, destroying effectually the railroad and bridges as he went, which place he reached on the 8d. Here he remained two days, destroying the railroad toward Richmond and Lynchburg, including the large iron bridges over the north and south forks of the Rivanna River, and awaiting the arrival of his trains. This necessary delay caused him to abandon the idea of capturing Lynchburg. On the morning of the 6th, dividing his force into two columns, he sent one to Scottsville, whence it marched up the James River Canal to New Market, destroying every lock, and in many places the bank of the canal. From here a force was pushed out from this column to Duiguidsville, to obtain possession of the bridge across the James River at that place, but failed. The enemy burned it on our approach. The enemy also burned the bridge across the river at Hardwickville. The other column moved down the railroad toward Lynchburg, destroying it as far as Amherst Court-House, sixteen miles from Lynchburg; thence across the country, uniting with the column at New Market. The river being very high, his pontoons would not reach across it; and the enemy having destroyed the bridges by which he had hoped to cross the river and get on the South Side Railroad about Farmville, and destroy it to Appomattox Court-House, the only thing left for him was to return to Winchester or strike a base at the White House. Fortunately, he chose the latter. From New Market he took up his line of march, following the canal toward Richmond, destroying every lock upon it and cutting the banks wherever practicable, to a point eight miles east of Goochland, concentrating the whole force at Columbia on the 10th. Here he rested one day, and sent through by scouts information of his whereabouts and purposes, and a request for supplies to meet him at White House, which reached me on the night of the 12th. An infantry force was immediately sent to get possession of White House, and supplies were forwarded. Moving from Columbia in a direction to threaten Richmond, to near Ashland Station, he crossed the Annas, and after having destroyed all the bridges and many miles of the railroad, proceeded down the north bank of the Pamunkey to White House, which place he reached on the 19th.

Previous to this the following communication was sent to General Thomas:

CITY POINT, VA., March 7, 1865—9:30 A. M.
GENERAL: I think it will be advisable now for you to repair the railroad in East Tennessee, and throw a good force up to Bull's Gap and fortify there. Supplies at Knoxville could always be got forward as required. With Bull's Gap fortified, you can occupy as outposts about all of East Tennessee, and be prepared, if it should be required of you in the spring, to make a campaign toward Lynchburg, or into North Carolina. I do not think Stoneman should break the road until he gets into Virginia, unless it should be to cut off rolling stock that may be caught west of that.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General G. H. THOMAS.

Thus it will be seen that in March, 1865, General Canby was moving an adequate force against Mobile and the army defending it under General Dick Taylor; Thomas was pushing out two large and well-appointed cavalry expeditions—one from Middle Tennessee under Brevet Major-General Wilson, against the enemy's vital points in Alabama, the other from East Tennessee under Major-General Stoneman toward Lynchburg—and assembling the remainder of his available forces, preparatory to offensive operations from East Tennessee; General Sheridan's cavalry was at White House; the Armies of the Potomac and James were confronting the enemy, under Lee, in his defences of Richmond and

Petersburg; General Sherman with his armies, reinforced by that of General Schofield, was at Goldsboro'; General Pope was making preparations for a spring campaign against the enemy under Kirby Smith and Price, west of the Mississippi; and General Hancock was concentrating a force in the vicinity of Winchester, Virginia, to guard against invasion or to operate offensively, as might prove necessary.

After the long march by General Sheridan's cavalry over winter roads, it was necessary to rest and refit at White House. At this time the greatest source of uneasiness to me was the fear that the enemy would leave his strong lines about Petersburg and Richmond for the purpose of uniting with Johnston, before he was driven from them by battle, or I was prepared to make an effectual pursuit. On the 24th of March General Sheridan moved from White House, crossed the James River at Jones' Landing, and formed a junction with the Army of the Potomac in front of Petersburg on the 27th. During this move, General Ord sent forces to cover the crossings of the Chickahominy.

On the 24th of March the following instructions for a general movement of the armies operating against Richmond were issued:

CITY POINT, VA., March 24, 1865.

GENERAL: On the 29th instant the armies operating against Richmond will be moved by our left, for the double purpose of turning the enemy out of his present position around Petersburg, and to insure the success of the cavalry under General Sheridan, which will start at the same time, in its efforts to reach and destroy the South Side and Danville Railroads. Two corps of the Army of the Potomac will be moved first in two columns, taking the two roads crossing Hatcher's Run, nearest where the present line held by us strikes that stream, both moving toward Dinwiddie Court-House.

The cavalry under General Sheridan, joined by the division now under General Davies, will move at the same time by the Weldon road and the Jerusalem plank road, turning west from the latter before crossing the Nottaway, and west with the whole column before reaching Stony Creek. General Sheridan will then move independently, under other instructions which will be given him. All dismounted cavalry belonging to the Army of the Potomac, and the dismounted cavalry from the middle military division not required for guarding property belonging to their arm of service, will report to Brigadier-General Benham, to be added to the defences of City Point. Major-General Parke will be left in command of all the army left for holding the lines about Petersburg and City Point, subject, of course, to orders from the commander of the Army of the Potomac. The Ninth Army Corps will be left intact to hold the present line of works so long as the whole line now occupied by us is held. If, however, the troops to the left of the Ninth Corps are withdrawn, then the left of the corps may be thrown back so as to occupy the position held by the army prior to the capture of the Weldon roads. All troops to the left of the Ninth Corps will be held in readiness to move at the shortest notice by such route as may be designated when the order is given.

General Ord will detach three divisions, two white and one colored, or so much of them as he can and hold his present lines, and march for the present left of the Army of the Potomac. In the absence of further orders, or until further orders are given, the white divisions will follow the left column of the Army of the Potomac, and the colored division the right column. During the movement Major-General Weitzel will be left in command of all the forces remaining behind from the Army of the James.

The movement of troops from the Army of the James will commence on the night of the 27th instant. General Ord will leave behind the minimum number of cavalry necessary for picket duty, in the absence of the main army. A cavalry expedition from General Ord's command will also be started from Suffolk, to leave there on Saturday, the first of April, under Colonel Sumner, for the purpose of cutting the railroad about Hicksford. This, if accomplished, will have to be a surprise, and therefore from three to five hundred men will be sufficient. They should, however, be supported by all the infantry that can be spared from Norfolk and Portsmouth, as far out as to where the cavalry crosses the Blackwater. The crossing should probably be at Union. Should Colonel Sumner succeed in reaching the Weldon road, he will be instructed to do all the damage possible to the triangle of roads between Hicksford, Weldon, and Gaston. The railroad bridge at Weldon being fitted up for the passage of carriages, it might be practicable to destroy any accumulation of sur-

plies the enemy may have collected south of the Roanoke. All the troops will move with four days' rations in haversacks, and eight days' in wagons. To avoid as much hauling as possible, and to give the Army of the James the same number of days' supply with the Army of the Potomac, General Ord will direct his commissary and quartermaster to have sufficient supplies delivered at the terminus of the road to fill up the passing. Sixty rounds of ammunition per man will be taken in wagons, and as much grain as the transportation on hand will carry, after taking the specified amount of other supplies. The densely wooded country in which the army has to operate making the use of much artillery impracticable, the amount taken with the army will be reduced to six or eight guns to each division, at the option of the army commanders.

All necessary preparations for carrying these directions into operation may be commenced at once. The reserves of the Ninth Corps should be massed as much as possible. Whilst I would not now order an unconditional attack on the enemy's line by them, they should be ready, and should make the attack if the enemy weakens his line in their front, without waiting for orders. In case they carry the line, then the whole of the Ninth Corps could follow up so as to join or coöperate with the balance of the army. To prepare for this, the Ninth Corps will have rations issued to them, same as the balance of the army. General Weitzel will keep vigilant watch upon his front, and if found at all practicable to break through at any point, he will do so. A success north of the James should be followed up with great promptness. An attack will not be feasible unless it is found that the enemy has detached largely. In that case it may be regarded as evident that the enemy are relying upon their local reserves, principally for the defence of Richmond. Preparations may be made for abandoning all the line north of the James, except enclosed works—only to be abandoned, however, after a break is made in the lines of the enemy.

By those instructions a large part of the armies operating against Richmond is left behind. The enemy, knowing this, may, as an only chance, strip their lines to the merest skeleton, in the hope of advantage not being taken of it, whilst they hurl every thing against the moving column, and return. It cannot be impressed too strongly upon commanders of troops left in the trenches not to allow this to occur without taking advantage of it. The very fact of the enemy coming out to attack, if he does so, might be regarded as almost conclusive evidence of such a weakening of his lines. I would have it particularly enjoined upon corps commanders that, in case of an attack from the enemy, those not attacked are not to wait for orders from the commanding officer of the army to which they belong, but that they will move promptly, and notify the commander of their action. I would also enjoin the same action on the part of division commanders when other parts of their corps are engaged. In like manner, I would urge the importance of following up a repulse of the enemy.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-Generals MEADE, ORD, and SHERIDAN.

Early on the morning of the 25th the enemy assailed our lines in front of the Ninth Corps (which held from the Appomattox River toward our left) and carried Fort Steadman, and a part of the line to the right and left of it, established themselves and turned the guns of the fort against us; but our troops on either flank held their ground until the reserves were brought up, when the enemy was driven back with a heavy loss in killed and wounded, and 1,900 prisoners. Our loss was sixty-eight killed, three hundred and thirty-seven wounded, and five hundred and six missing. General Meade at once ordered the other corps to advance and feel the enemy in their respective fronts. Pushing forward, they captured and held the enemy's strongly entrenched picket line in front of the Second and Sixth Corps, and eight hundred and thirty-four prisoners. The enemy made desperate attempts to retake this line, but without success. Our loss in front of these was fifty-two killed, eight hundred and sixty-four wounded, and two hundred and seven missing. The enemy's loss in killed and wounded was far greater.

General Sherman having got his troops all quietly in camp about Goldsboro', and his preparations for furnishing supplies to them perfected, visited me at City Point on the 27th of March, and stated that he would be ready to move, as he had previously written me, by the 10th of April, fully equipped and rationed for twenty days, if it should become necessary to bring his command to bear against Lee's army, in coöperation with our forces in front of Richmond and

Petersburg. General Sherman proposed in this movement to threaten Raleigh, and then, by turning suddenly to the right, reach the Roanoke at Gaston or thereabouts, whence he could move on to the Richmond and Danville Railroad, striking it in the vicinity of Burkesville, or join the armies operating against Richmond, as might be deemed best. This plan he was directed to carry into execution, if he received no further directions in the mean time. I explained to him the movement I had ordered to commence on the 29th of March. That if it should not prove as entirely successful as I hoped, I would cut the cavalry loose to destroy the Danville and South Side Railroads, and thus deprive the enemy of further supplies, and also prevent the rapid concentration of Lee's and Johnston's armies.

I had spent days of anxiety lest each morning should bring the report that the enemy had retreated the night before. I was firmly convinced that Sherman's crossing the Roanoke would be the signal for Lee to leave. With Johnston and him combined, a long, tedious, and expensive campaign, consuming most of the summer, might become necessary. By moving out I would put the army in better condition for pursuit, and would at least, by the destruction of the Danville road, retard the concentration of the two armies of Lee and Johnston, and cause the enemy to abandon much material that he might otherwise save. I therefore determined not to delay the movement ordered.

On the night of the 27th, Major-General Ord, with two divisions of the Twenty-fourth Corps, Major-General Gibbon commanding, and one division of the Twenty-fifth Corps, Brigadier-General Birney commanding, and McKenzie's cavalry, took up his line of march in pursuance of the foregoing instructions, and reached the position assigned him near Hatcher's Run on the morning of the 29th. On the 28th the following instructions were given to General Sheridan:

CITY POINT, VA., March 28, 1863.

GENERAL: The Fifth Army Corps will move by the Vaughan road at 3 A. M. to-morrow morning. The Second moves at about 9 A. M., having but about three miles to march to reach the point designated for it to take on the right of the Fifth Corps, after the latter reaching Dinwiddie Court-House. Move your cavalry at as early an hour as you can, and without being confined to any particular road or roads. You may go out by the nearest roads in the rear of the Fifth Corps, pass by its left, and passing near to or through Dinwiddie, reach the right and rear of the enemy as soon as you can. It is not the intention to attack the enemy in his entrenched position, but to force him out, if possible. Should he come out and attack us, or get himself where he can be attacked, move in with your entire force in your own way, and with full reliance that the army will engage or follow, as circumstances will dictate. I shall be on the field, and will probably be able to communicate with you. Should I not do so, and you find that the enemy keeps within his main entrenched line, you may cut loose and push for the Danville road. If you find it practicable, I would like you to cross the South Side road, between Petersburg and Burkesville, and destroy it to some extent. I would not advise much detention, however, until you reach the Danville road, which I would like you to strike as near to the Appomattox as possible. Make your destruction on that road as complete as possible. You can then pass on to the South Side road, west of Burkesville, and destroy that in like manner.

After having accomplished the destruction of the two railroads, which are now the only avenues of supply to Lee's army, you may return to this army, selecting your road further south, or you may go on into North Carolina and join General Sherman. Should you select the latter course, get the information to me as early as possible, so that I may send orders to meet you at Goldsboro'.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General P. H. SHERIDAN.

On the morning the 29th the movement commenced. At night the cavalry was at Dinwiddie Court-House, and the left of our infantry line extended to the Quaker road, near its intersection with the Boydton plank road. The position of the troops, from left to right, was as follows: Sheridan, Warren, Humphreys, Ord, Wright, Parke.

Every thing looked favorable to the defeat of the

enemy and the capture of Petersburg and Richmond, if the proper effort was made. I therefore addressed the following communication to General Sheridan, having previously informed him verbally not to cut loose for the raid contemplated in his orders until he received notice from me to do so:

GRAVELLY CREEK, March 29, 1865.

GENERAL: Our line is now unbroken from the Appomattox to Dinwiddie. We are all ready, however, to give up all from the Jerusalem plank road to Hatcher's Run, whenever the forces can be used advantageously. After getting into line south of Hatcher's, we pushed forward to find the enemy's position. General Griffin was attacked near where the Quaker road intersects the Boydton road, but repulsed it easily, capturing about one hundred men. Humphreys reached Dabney's mill, and was pushing on when last heard from.

I now feel like ending the matter, if it is possible to do so, before going back. I do not want you, therefore, to cut loose and go after the enemy's roads at present. In the morning push around the enemy, if you can, and get on to his right rear. The movements of the enemy's cavalry may, of course, modify your action. We will act all together as one army here until it is seen what can be done with the enemy. The signal officer at Cobb's Hill reported, at 11:30 A. M., that a cavalry column had passed that point from Richmond toward Petersburg, taking forty minutes to pass.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General P. H. SHERIDAN.

From the night of the 29th to the morning of the 31st the rain fell in such torrents as to make it impossible to move a wheeled vehicle, except as corduroy roads were laid in front of them. During the 30th, Sheridan advanced from Dinwiddie Court-House toward Five Forks, where he found the enemy in force. General Warren advanced and extended his line across the Boydton plank road to near the White Oak road, with a view of getting across the latter; but, finding the enemy strong in his front and extending beyond his left, was directed to hold on where he was and fortify. General Humphreys drove the enemy from his front into his main line on the Hatcher, near Burgess's Mills. Generals Ord, Wright, and Parke made examinations in their fronts to determine the feasibility of an assault on the enemy's lines. The two latter reported favorably. The enemy confronting us, as he did, at every point from Richmond to our extreme left, I conceived his lines must be weakly held, and could be penetrated if my estimate of his forces was correct. I determined, therefore, to extend my line no further, but to reinforce General Sheridan with a corps of infantry, and thus enable him to cut loose and turn the enemy's right flank, and with the other corps assault the enemy's lines. The result of the offensive effort of the enemy the week before, when he assaulted Fort Steadman, particularly favored this. The enemy's intrenched picket line captured by us at that time threw the lines occupied by the belligerents so close together at some points that it was but a moment's run from one to the other. Preparations were at once made to relieve General Humphreys' corps, to report to General Sheridan; but the condition of the roads prevented immediate movement. On the morning of the 31st, General Warren reported favorably to getting possession of the White Oak road, and was directed to do so. To accomplish this, he moved with one division, instead of his whole corps, which was attacked by the enemy in superior force and driven back on the second division before it had time to form, and it, in turn, forced back upon the third division, when the enemy was checked. A division of the Second Corps was immediately sent to his support, the enemy driven back with heavy loss, and possession of the White Oak road gained. Sheridan advanced, and with a portion of his cavalry got possession of the Five Forks; but the enemy, after the affair with the Fifth Corps, reinforced the rebel cavalry, defending that point with infantry, and forced him back toward Dinwiddie Court-House. Here General Sheridan displayed great generalship. Instead of retreating with his whole command on

the main army, to tell the story of superior forces encountered, he deployed his cavalry on foot, leaving only mounted men enough to take charge of the horses. This compelled the enemy to deploy over a vast extent of woods and broken country, and make his progress slow. At this juncture he despatched to me what had taken place, and that he was dropping back slowly on Dinwiddie Court-House. General McKenzie's cavalry and one division of the Fifth Corps were immediately ordered to his assistance. Soon after, receiving a report from General Meade that Humphreys could hold our position on the Boydton road, and that the other two divisions of the Fifth Corps could go to Sheridan, they were so ordered at once. Thus the operations of the day necessitated the sending of Warren, because of his accessibility, instead of Humphreys, as was intended, and precipitated intended movements. On the morning of the 1st of April, General Sheridan, reinforced by General Warren, drove the enemy back on Five Forks, where, late in the evening, he assaulted and carried his strongly fortified position, capturing all his artillery and between 5,000 and 6,000 prisoners.

About the close of this battle, Brevet Major-General Charles Griffin relieved Major-General Warren in command of the Fifth Corps. The report of this reached me after nightfall. Some apprehensions filled my mind lest the enemy might desert his lines during the night, and by falling upon General Sheridan before assistance could reach him, drive him from his position and open the way for retreat. To guard against this, General Miles' division of Humphreys' corps was sent to reinforce him, and a bombardment was commenced and kept up until 4 o'clock in the morning (April 2), when an assault was ordered on the enemy's lines. General Wright penetrated the lines with his whole corps, sweeping every thing before him, and to his left toward Hatcher's Run, capturing many guns and several thousand prisoners. He was closely followed by two divisions of General Ord's command, until he met the other division of General Ord's that had succeeded in forcing the enemy's lines near Hatcher's Run. Generals Wright and Ord immediately swung to the right, and closed all of the enemy on that side of them in Petersburg, while General Humphreys pushed forward with two divisions and joined General Wright on the left. General Parke succeeded in carrying the enemy's main line, capturing guns and prisoners, but was unable to carry his inner line. General Sheridan, being advised of the condition of affairs, returned General Miles to his proper command. On reaching the enemy's lines immediately surrounding Petersburg, a portion of General Gibbon's corps, by a most gallant charge, captured two strong, enclosed works—the most salient and commanding south of Petersburg—thus materially shortening the line of investment necessary for taking in the city. The enemy south of Hatcher's Run retreated westward to Sutherland's Station, where they were overtaken by Miles's division. A severe engagement ensued, and lasted until both his right and left flanks were threatened by the approach of General Sheridan, who was moving from Ford's Station toward Petersburg, and a division sent by General Meade from the front of Petersburg, when he broke in the utmost confusion, leaving in our hands his guns and many prisoners. This force retreated by the main road along the Appomattox River. During the night of the 2d the enemy evacuated Petersburg and Richmond, and retreated toward Danville. On the morning of the 3d pursuit was commenced. General Sheridan pushed for the Danville road, keeping near the Appomattox, followed by General Meade with the Second and Sixth Corps, while General Ord moved for Burkesville along the South Side road; the Ninth Corps stretched along that road behind him. On the 4th, General Sheridan struck the Danville road near Jettersville, where he learned that Lee was at Amelia Court-House. He immediately

intrenched himself and awaited the arrival of General Meade, who reached there the next day. General Ord reached Burkesville on the evening of the 5th. On the morning of the 5th, I addressed Major-General Sherman the following communication:

WILSON'S STATION, April 5, 1865.

GENERAL: All indications now are that Lee will attempt to reach Danville with the remnant of his force. Sheridan, who was up with him last night, reports all that is left, horse, foot, and dragoons, at 20,000, much demoralized. We hope to reduce this number one-half. I shall push on to Burkesville, and, if a stand is made at Danville, will in a very few days go there. If you can possibly do so, push on from where you are, and let us see if we cannot finish the job with Lee's and Johnston's armies. Whether it will be better for you to strike for Greensboro', or nearer to Danville, you will be better able to judge when you receive this. Rebel armies now are the only strategic points to strike at.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Major-General W. T. SHERMAN.

On the morning of the 6th it was found that General Lee was moving west of Jetersville, toward Danville. General Sheridan moved with his cavalry (the Fifth Corps having been returned to General Meade on his reaching Jetersville), to strike his flank, followed by the Sixth Corps, while the Second and Fifth Corps pressed hard after, forcing him to abandon several hundred wagons and several pieces of artillery. General Ord advanced from Burkesville toward Farmville, sending two regiments of infantry, and a squadron of cavalry, under Brevet Brigadier-General Theodore Read, to reach and destroy the bridges. This advance met the head of Lee's column near Farmville, which it heroically attacked and detained until General Read was killed and his small force overpowered. This caused a delay in the enemy's movements, and enabled General Ord to get well up with the remainder of his force, on meeting which the enemy immediately intrenched himself. In the afternoon General Sheridan struck the enemy south of Sailor's Creek, captured sixteen pieces of artillery and about four hundred wagons, and detained him until the Sixth Corps got up, when a general attack of infantry and cavalry was made, which resulted in the capture of six or seven thousand prisoners, among whom were many general officers. The movements of the Second Corps and General Ord's command contributed greatly to the day's success.

On the morning of the 7th the pursuit was renewed, the cavalry, except one division, and the Fifth Corps moving by Prince Edward's Court-House; the Sixth Corps, General Ord's command, and one division of cavalry, on Farmville, and the Second Corps by the High Bridge Road. It was soon found that the enemy had crossed to the north side of the Appomattox, but so close was the pursuit that the Second Corps got possession of the common bridge at High Bridge before the enemy could destroy it, and immediately crossed over. The Sixth Corps and a division of cavalry crossed at Farmville to its support.

Feeling now that General Lee's chance of escape was utterly hopeless, I addressed him the following communication from Farmville:

April 7, 1865.

GENERAL: The result of the last week must convince you of the hopelessness of further resistance on the part of the Army of Northern Virginia in this struggle. I feel that it is so, and regard it as my duty to shift from myself the responsibility of any further effusion of blood, by asking of you the surrender of that portion of the Confederate States army known as the Army of Northern Virginia.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

General R. E. LEE.

Early on the morning of the 8th, before leaving, I received at Farmville the following:

April 7, 1865.

GENERAL: I have received your note of this date. Though I am entertaining the opinion you express on the hopelessness of further resistance on the part of the Army of Northern Virginia, I reciprocate your desire to avoid useless effusion of blood, and therefore, before considering your proposition, ask the terms you will offer on condition of its surrender.

R. E. LEE, General.

Lieutenant-General U. S. GRANT.

To this I immediately replied:

April 8, 1865.

GENERAL: Your note of last evening, in reply to mine of same date, asking the condition on which I will accept the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, is just received. In reply I would say that, peace being my great desire, there is but one condition I would insist upon, namely: That the men and officers surrendered shall be disqualified for taking up arms again against the Government of the United States until properly exchanged. I will meet you, or will designate officers to meet any officers you may name for the same purpose, at any point agreeable to you, for the purpose of arranging definitely the terms upon which the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia will be received.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

General R. E. LEE.

Early on the morning of the 8th the pursuit was resumed. General Meade followed north of the Appomattox, and General Sheridan, with all the cavalry, pushed straight for Appomattox Station, followed by General Ord's command and the Fifth Corps. During the day General Meade's advance had considerable fighting with the enemy's rear guard, but was unable to bring on a general engagement. Late in the evening General Sheridan struck the railroad at Appomattox Station, drove the enemy from there, and captured twenty-five pieces of artillery, a hospital train, and four trains of cars loaded with supplies for Lee's army. During this day I accompanied General Meade's column, and about midnight received the following communication from General Lee:

April 8, 1865.

GENERAL: I received at a late hour your note of to-day. In mine of yesterday I did not intend to propose the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, but to ask the terms of your proposition. To be frank, I do not think the emergency has arisen to call for the surrender of this army; but as the restoration of peace should be the sole object of all, I desired to know whether your proposals would lead to that end. I cannot, therefore, meet you with a view to surrender the Army of Northern Virginia; but as far as your proposal may affect the Confederate States forces under my command, and tend to the restoration of peace, I should be pleased to meet you at 10 A. M. to-morrow on the old stage road to Richmond, between the picket lines of the two armies.

R. E. LEE, General.

Lieutenant-General U. S. GRANT.

Early on the morning of the 9th I returned him an answer as follows, and immediately started to join the column south of the Appomattox:

April 9, 1865.

GENERAL: Your note of yesterday is received. I have no authority to treat on the subject of peace; the meeting proposed for A. M. to-day could lead to no good. I will say, however, General, that I am equally anxious for peace with yourself, and the whole North entertains the same feeling. The terms upon which peace can be had are well understood. By the South laying down their arms they will hasten that most desirable event, save thousands of human lives, and hundreds of millions of property not yet destroyed. Seriously hoping that all our difficulties may be settled without the loss of another life, I subscribe myself, &c.,

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

General R. E. LEE.

On the morning of the 9th General Ord's command and the Fifth Corps reached Appomattox Station just as the enemy was making a desperate effort to break through our cavalry. The infantry was at once thrown in. Soon after a white flag was received, requesting a suspension of hostilities pending negotiations for a surrender.

Before reaching General Sheridan's headquarters, I received the following from General Lee:

April 9, 1865.

GENERAL: I received your note of this morning on the picket line, whither I had come to meet you, and ascertain definitely what terms were embraced in your proposal of yesterday with reference to the surrender of this army. I now ask an interview in accordance with the offer contained in your letter of yesterday for that purpose.

R. E. LEE, General.

Lieutenant-General U. S. GRANT.

The interview was held at Appomattox Court-House, the result of which is set forth in the following correspondence:

APPOMATTOX COURT-HOUSE, VA., April 9, 1865.

GENERAL: In accordance with the substance of my letter to you of the 8th instant, I propose to receive the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia on the following terms, to wit: Rolls of the officers and men to be made in duplicate, one copy to be given to an officer to be designated by me, the other to be retained by such officer or officers as you may designate. The officers to give their individual paroles not to take up arms against the Government of the United States until properly exchanged; and each company or regimental commander sign a like parole for the men of their commands. The arms, artillery, and public property to be packed and stacked, and turned over to the officers appointed by me to receive them. This will not embrace the side-arms of the officers, nor their private horses or baggage. This done, each officer and man will be allowed to return to their homes, not to be disturbed by United States authority so long as they observe their paroles and the laws in force where they may reside.

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

General R. E. LEE.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF NORTHERN VIRGINIA, {

April 9, 1865.

GENERAL: I received your letter of this date containing the terms of the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia as proposed by you. As they are substantially the same as those expressed in your letter of the 8th instant, they are accepted. I will proceed to designate the proper officers to carry the stipulations into effect.

R. E. LEE, General.

Lieutenant-General U. S. GRANT.

The command of Major-General Gibbon, the Fifth Army Corps under Griffin, and McKenzie's cavalry, were designated to remain at Appomattox Court-House until the paroling of the surrendered army was completed, and to take charge of the public property. The remainder of the army immediately returned to the vicinity of Burkesville.

General Lee's great influence throughout the whole South caused his example to be followed, and to-day the result is that the armies lately under his leadership are at their homes, desiring peace and quiet, and their arms are in the hands of our ordnance officers.

On the receipt of my letter of the 5th, General Sherman moved directly against Joe Johnston, who retreated rapidly on and through Raleigh, which place General Sherman occupied on the morning of the 13th. The day preceding news of the surrender of General Lee reached him at Smithfield.

On the 14th a correspondence was opened between General Sherman and General Johnston, which resulted on the 18th in an agreement for the suspension of hostilities, and a memorandum or basis for peace, subject to the approval of the President. This agreement was disapproved by the President on the 21st, which disapproval, together with your instructions, was communicated to General Sherman by me in person on the morning of the 24th, at Raleigh, North Carolina, in obedience to your orders. Notice was at once given by him to General Johnston for the termination of the truce that had been entered into. On the 25th another meeting between them was agreed upon, to take place on the 26th, which terminated in the surrender and disbandment of Johnston's army upon substantially the same terms as were given to General Lee.

The expedition under General Stoneman from East Tennessee got off on the 20th of March, moving by way of Boone, North Carolina, and struck the railroad at Wytheville, Chambersburg, and Big Lick. The force striking it at Big Lick pushed on to within a few miles of Lynchburg, destroying the important bridges, while with the main force he effectually destroyed it between New River and Big Lick, and then turned for Greensboro' on the North Carolina Railroad; struck that road and destroyed the bridges between Danville and Greensboro', and between Greensboro' and the Yadkin, together with the depots of supplies along with it, and captured four hundred prisoners. At Salisbury he attacked and defeated a force of the enemy under General Gardner, capturing fourteen pieces of artillery and one

thousand three hundred and sixty-four prisoners, and destroyed large amounts of army stores. At this place he destroyed fifteen miles of railroad and the bridges toward Charlotte. Thence he moved to Slatersville.

General Canby, who had been directed in January to make preparations for a movement from Mobile Bay against Mobile and the interior of Alabama, commenced his movement on the 20th of March. The Sixteenth Corps, Major-General A. J. Smith commanding, moved from Fort Gaines by water to Fish River; the Thirteenth Corps, under Major-General Gordon Granger, moved from Fort Morgan and joined the Sixteenth Corps on Fish River, both moving thence on Spanish Fort and investing it on the 27th; while Major-General Steele's command moved from Pensacola, cut the railroad leading from Tensas to Montgomery, effected a junction with them, and partially invested Fort Blakely. After a severe bombardment of Spanish Fort a part of its line was carried on the 8th of April. During the night the enemy evacuated the fort. Fort Blakely was carried by assault on the 9th, and many prisoners captured; our loss was considerable. These successes practically opened to us the Alabama River, and enabled us to approach Mobile from the North. On the night of the 11th the city was evacuated, and was taken possession of by our forces on the morning of the 12th.

The expedition under command of Brevet Major-General Wilson, consisting of 12,500 mounted men, was delayed by rains until March 23d, when it moved from Chickasaw, Alabama. On the 1st of April General Wilson encountered the enemy in force under Forrest near Ebenezer Church, drove him in confusion, captured 800 prisoners and three guns, and destroyed the central bridge over the Cahawba River. On the 2d he attacked and captured the fortified city of Selma, defended by Forrest with 7,000 men and thirty-two guns, destroyed the arsenal, armory, naval foundry, machine shops, vast quantities of stores, and captured 8,000 prisoners. On the 4th he captured and destroyed Tuscaloosa. On the 10th he crossed the Alabama River, and after sending information of his operations to General Canby, marched on Montgomery, which place he occupied on the 14th, the enemy having abandoned it. At this place many stores and five steamboats fell into our hands. Thence a force marched direct on Columbus, and another on West Point, both of which places were assaulted and captured on the 16th. At the former place we got 1,500 prisoners and fifty-two field guns, destroyed two gunboats, the navy yard, foundries, arsenal, many factories, and much other public property. At the latter place we got three hundred prisoners, four guns, and destroyed nineteen locomotives and three hundred cars. On the 20th he took possession of Macon, Georgia, with sixty field guns, 1,200 militia, and five generals, surrendered by General Howell Cobb. General Wilson, hearing that Jeff. Davis was trying to make his escape, sent forces in pursuit, and succeeded in capturing him on the morning of May 11th.

On the 4th day of May General Dick Taylor surrendered to General Canby all the remaining rebel forces east of the Mississippi.

A force sufficient to insure an easy triumph over the enemy under Kirby Smith, west of the Mississippi, was immediately put in motion for Texas, and Major-General Sheridan designated for its immediate command; but on the 26th day of May, and before they reached their destination, General Kirby Smith surrendered his entire command to Major-General Canby. This surrender did not take place, however, until after the capture of the rebel President and Vice-President; and the bad faith was exhibited of first disbanding most of his army and permitting an indiscriminate plunder of public property.

Owing to the report that many of those lately in arms against the Government had taken refuge upon

the soil of Mexico, carrying with them arms rightfully belonging to the United States, which had been surrendered to us by agreement—among them some of the leaders who had surrendered in person—and the disturbed condition of affairs on the Rio Grande, the orders for troops to proceed to Texas were not changed.

There have been severe combats, raids, expeditions, and movements to defeat the designs and purposes of the enemy, most of them reflecting great credit on our arms, and which contributed greatly to our final triumph, that I have not mentioned. Many of these will be found clearly set forth in the reports herewith submitted; some in the telegrams and brief despatches announcing them, and others, I regret to say, have not as yet been officially reported.

For information touching our Indian difficulties, I would respectfully refer to the reports of the commanders of departments in which they have occurred.

It has been my fortune to see the armies of both the West and East fight battles, and from what I have seen I know there is no difference in their fighting qualities. All that it was possible for men to do in battle they have done. The Western armies commenced their battles in the Mississippi Valley, and

received the final surrender of the remnant of the principal army opposed to them in North Carolina. The armies of the East commenced their battles on the river from which the Army of the Potomac derived its name, and received the final surrender of their old antagonist at Appomattox Court-House, Virginia. The splendid achievements of each have nationalized our victories, removed all sectional jealousies (of which we have unfortunately experienced too much), and the cause of crimination and recrimination that might have followed had either section failed in its duty. All have a proud record, and all sections can well congratulate themselves and each other for having done their full share in restoring the supremacy of law over every foot of territory belonging to the United States. Let them hope for perpetual peace and harmony with that enemy, whose manhood, however mistaken the cause, drew forth such herculean deeds of valor.

I have the honor to be,

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

U. S. GRANT, Lieutenant-General.

Hon. E. M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE, November 18, 1863.
[Official copy], E. D. TOWNSEND,

Assistant Adjutant-General.

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RAILROADS. The following is the mileage of the roads proposed and completed; their cost, including equipment; and the average cost per mile, in the United States:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MILEAGE.		COST OF RAILROADS.	
	Proposed.	Completed.	Total.	Per mile.
Maine.....	641	509	\$18,592,000	\$36,500
New Hampshire.....	659	659	22,758,000	34,500
Vermont.....	597	597	24,189,000	40,500
Massachusetts.....	1,367	1,824	61,318,000	46,800
Rhode Island.....	152	152	5,011,000	32,900
Connecticut.....	759	668	25,209,000	37,700
New York.....	2,346	2,956	149,391,000	50,500
New Jersey.....	902	867	49,798,000	57,400
Pennsylvania.....	4,599	3,967	201,819,000	50,700
Delaware.....	172	140	5,209,000	37,600
Maryland and District of Columbia.....	728	487	29,102,000	59,900
West Virginia.....	865	865	24,874,000	68,100
Kentucky.....	941	614	21,839,000	35,500
Ohio.....	4,032	3,393	137,388,000	40,500
Michigan.....	1,734	959	41,319,000	43,100
Indiana.....	2,480	2,196	74,198,000	39,800
Illinois.....	3,760	3,206	131,501,000	41,000
Wisconsin.....	1,358	1,045	42,862,000	41,000
Minnesota.....	1,608	281	9,541,000	35,000
Iowa.....	2,196	1,001	41,327,000	41,200
Missouri.....	1,572	925	50,232,000	54,300
Kansas.....	694	112	8,850,000	34,400
Nebraska Territory.....	1,290	108	5,000,000	46,800
California.....	1,235	307	17,301,000	56,300
Oregon.....	1,000	20	500,000	25,000
Virginia.....	2,054	1,379	45,146,000	32,800
North Carolina.....	1,852	977	19,308,000	19,800
South Carolina.....	1,073	999	22,420,000	22,700
Georgia.....	1,635	1,421	29,160,000	20,500
Florida.....	536	402	8,628,000	21,500
Alabama.....	1,402	898	21,977,000	23,000
Mississippi.....	1,072	867	24,112,000	27,800
Tennessee.....	1,392	1,318	38,977,000	25,800
Arkansas.....	701	38	3,800,000	31,100
Louisiana.....	828	836	13,627,000	40,500
Texas.....	2,757	452	16,509,000	30,607
Aggregate in U. States.	53,060	35,935	\$1,482,649,000	\$39,599

Distributed to geographical sections as follows, viz.:

Six New England States.....	4,173	3,900	\$187,072,000	\$41,200
Five Middle Atlantic ".....	9,637	8,417	494,974,000	51,700
Twelve Northern Interior States, etc.....	21,931	14,205	584,226,000	41,100
Two Pacific States.....	2,255	837	17,901,000	54,400
Five Southern Atlantic States.....	6,700	5,168	194,674,000	24,100
Six Gulf and South Interior States.....	8,239	3,909	114,008,000	29,200

RAILROAD ACCIDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR A SERIES OF YEARS.—The total number of casualties by railroad accidents in 1865 was 1,762, of which 335 resulted in death, and 1,427 in wounds. In 1864 the number of casualties was 1,890, viz.: killed, 404; wounded, 1,486—a decrease in 1865 of casualties 128; deaths, 69; wounded, 59. These figures do not include accidents where no lives were lost, accidents to individuals which were caused by their own carelessness or design, or deaths or injuries resulting from the recklessness of persons in crossing or standing upon railroad tracks when trains were in motion. The following table exhibits the number of railroad accidents, with the number of persons killed and injured by such casualties, during the past thirteen years:

YEARS.	Accidents.	Killed.	Wounded.
1858.....	133	234	496
1854.....	198	156	590
1855.....	142	110	583
1856.....	143	105	629
1857.....	126	180	586
1858.....	82	119	417
1859.....	79	129	411
1860.....	74	57	315
1861.....	63	101	459
1862.....	99	264	577
1863.....	89	264	671
1864.....	140	404	1,486
1865.....	133	335	1,427

New York.—In 1850 the Legislature of New York enacted a law requiring all railroad companies in the State to file with the State Engineer, by the first of December in each year, statements of their condition and business operations for the fiscal year ending September 30th, and it was made the duty of the State Engineer to make abstracts of these reports in consolidated form, and to lay the same before the Legislature on its assembling in January. In 1854 this law was amended by providing for the appointment of a Board of Railroad Commissioners, consisting of the State Engineer, one commissioner to be selected by the railroad companies, and one to be appointed by the Governor. These commissioners held office two years, when, on their own recommendation, the law was repealed, and the law of 1850 was reenacted. That law is still in force. Under this law the State Engineer lays before the Legislature annually the reports of all the railroad companies of the State, with compilations of the same. But his reports contain no recommendations or suggestions to the Legislature, nor is it made his duty to visit or inspect any of the roads of the State. The only object gained by the Legislature of New York through this law is uniform and full reports from all the railroad companies.

From the reports of the New York State Engineer for the past six years we take the following figures, showing the number of persons car-

ried on the railroads (steam) of the State, with the number of persons killed and injured:

YEARS.	No. Passengers.	Killed.	Injured.
1850.....	12,188,059	119	77
1860.....	9,805,978	148	71
1861.....	8,684,189	147	88
1862.....	8,707,789	141	84
1863.....	10,765,681	193	91
1864.....	14,192,056	285	181

From the annual reports of the Auditor-General for the past five years we take the following figures:

YEARS.	No. Passengers.	Killed.	Injured.
1860.....	5,726,597
1861.....	5,925,501	118	83
1862.....	7,057,805	175	226
1863.....	10,135,189	208	314
1864.....	14,252,218	325	366

Massachusetts.—From the reports of the Secretary of the Commonwealth for the past six years, we take the following summary of passengers carried and accidents on the railroads:

YEARS.	No. Passengers.	Killed.	Injured.
1859.....	10,856,686	52	28
1860.....	10,801,097	46	23
1861.....	11,252,631	48	24
1862.....	12,020,315	72	15
1863.....	14,043,554	75	25
1864.....	18,906,028	83	81

BRITISH AND NEW YORK RAILROADS.

The following tables relating to the United Kingdom are constructed from the returns made annually to the British Board of Trade, and those relating to New York from the returns made to the State Engineer and Surveyor. Both cover the decennial period 1855-'64:

BRITISH RAILROADS.

YEARS.	Miles of road.	Stocks, Bonds, and Floating Debt.	Passengers carried.	ACCOUNTS OF OPERATIONS.		
				Receipts.	Expenses.	Profits.
1855.....	8,280	£297,594,709	118,595,185	£21,807,599	£10,299,709	£11,507,890
1856.....	8,797	307,595,086	129,847,592	23,165,491	10,887,456	12,278,035
1857.....	9,094	315,157,253	189,008,858	24,174,610	11,940,289	12,234,321
1858.....	9,542	325,375,507	189,198,609	23,956,749	11,663,925	12,292,824
1859.....	10,009	384,362,928	149,807,148	25,743,503	12,598,218	13,145,285
1860.....	10,488	348,180,127	168,498,572	27,766,623	12,187,863	15,578,760
1861.....	10,869	302,827,838	173,778,218	23,565,855	12,843,889	14,721,965
1862.....	11,551	385,213,498	180,485,727	29,128,558	14,368,409	14,760,149
1863.....	12,322	404,215,802	201,099,466	31,156,897	15,027,284	16,129,613
1864.....	12,739	425,458,498	229,348,664	34,015,564	16,000,806	17,915,258
1855-'64.....	108,589	£3,505,450,681	1,624,743,109	£269,180,447	£128,965,498	£140,214,949
1855-'64 (dollars).....		\$17,527,258,155		\$1,345,902,285	\$644,927,490	\$701,074,745

Dividing the above figures by the miles of road, the following are the resulting averages:

1855.....	£35,989	14,823	£2,597	£1,244	1,338
1856.....	35,327	14,855	2,660	1,244	1,316
1857.....	34,655	15,295	2,669	1,286	1,423
1858.....	34,099	14,587	2,516	1,223	1,293
1859.....	38,486	14,950	2,573	1,253	1,315
1860.....	35,869	15,660	2,661	1,264	1,397
1861.....	33,386	15,988	2,628	1,273	1,355
1862.....	33,850	15,625	2,522	1,285	1,287
1863.....	32,804	16,612	2,528	1,219	1,309
1864.....	33,270	17,983	2,660	1,251	1,409
1855-'64 (ten years).....	£33,340	15,693	£2,598	£1,245	£1,338
1855-'64 (dollars).....	\$169,200		\$12,990	\$6,225	\$6,765

NEW YORK RAILROADS.

YEARS.	Miles of road.	Stock, Bonds, & Floating Debits.	Passengers carried.	ACCOUNTS OF OPERATIONS.		
				Receipts.	Expenses.	Profits.
1854-'55.....	2,682	\$144,585,217	10,917,618	\$30,590,650	\$12,102,861	\$8,487,830
1855-'56.....	2,682	144,351,597	11,101,919	28,881,077	13,649,565	9,681,513
1856-'57.....	2,641	144,688,596	12,558,559	28,098,819	14,547,910	8,550,909
1857-'58.....	2,644	145,482,578	10,250,078	19,790,908	12,618,053	7,107,156
1858-'59.....	2,644	144,770,988	10,183,059	19,504,974	12,043,803	7,356,633
1859-'60.....	2,701	146,918,712	10,905,978	20,477,599	12,652,705	7,894,933
1860-'61.....	2,783	149,411,782	9,684,189	21,211,348	13,766,066	7,445,177
1861-'62.....	2,729	146,203,113	12,870,455	27,168,119	16,029,914	11,138,305
1862-'63.....	2,852	145,954,880	10,765,651	28,704,142	20,387,390	13,886,713
1863-'64.....	2,852	151,861,768	14,192,066	41,807,104	29,193,748	12,613,356
1855-'64.....	27,209	\$1,464,278,676	118,079,680	\$250,508,985	\$156,941,625	\$93,567,311

Dividing the above figures by the length of the roads, the following results are obtained :

1854-'55.....	\$53,029	4,146	\$7,391	\$4,600	\$3,221
1855-'56.....	54,848	4,218	8,948	5,196	3,662
1856-'57.....	54,783	4,755	8,746	5,509	3,237
1857-'58.....	55,028	8,877	7,459	4,770	2,689
1858-'59.....	54,754	8,984	7,889	4,557	2,732
1859-'60.....	54,414	8,817	7,584	4,686	2,898
1860-'61.....	58,707	8,479	7,694	4,948	2,676
1861-'62.....	51,692	4,549	9,601	5,966	3,635
1862-'63.....	51,176	8,775	11,813	7,181	4,637
1863-'64.....	58,949	4,976	14,659	10,237	4,423
1855-'64.....	\$58,816	4,156	\$9,207	\$5,768	\$3,439

REFORMED CHURCHES. The German Reformed Church of the United States reported for the year 1865 the following statistics: General synod, 1; synods, 2; classes, 27; ministers, 460; congregations, 1,134; members, 107,394; unconfirmed members, 73,576; baptisms, 10,829; confirmations, 4,903; received on certificate, 1,612; communion, 89,115; excommunicated, 160; dismissed, 674; deaths, 4,675; Sabbath-schools, 852; Sabbath-school scholars (one synod only reported), 20,551; benevolent contributions, \$97,041.80. This, as compared with the report of the previous year, shows an increase of 1 classis, 13 ministers, 35 congregations, 8,619 members, 7,275 unconfirmed members, 1,744 communion, and \$77,512.46 contributions for benevolent objects. The Church has two "classes" in the late Confederate States, those of Virginia and North Carolina. The great majority of both ministers and people, in these classes, have expressed a desire to remain in connection with the synods in the Northern States.

The fifty-ninth annual meeting of the General Synod of the Dutch Reformed Church of the United States, was opened on June 7th at New Brunswick, N. J. The Synod passed the following resolutions on the state of the country:

Resolved, That we recognize, in the situation in which the war has left the Southern States, a loud and imperative call to philanthropic and Christian effort; and pledge ourselves to use our utmost exertions for the harmonizing and evangelizing of the population, the amelioration of the condition of the freedmen, and the restoring of the waste places in Zion by our domestic missionary operations.

Resolved, That while we have no sympathy with that false spirit of charity, born of Universalism and Humanitarianism, that would arrest the vindication of justice and the punishment of guilt, we counsel the largest possible exercise of clemency toward the

deluded and the repentant, forgiving their trespasses as Christ has forgiven us.

Resolved, That in the sudden and violent death of our tried and trusted President, Abraham Lincoln, we recognize, with a submission of faith, a mystery which says, "Be still, and know that I am God;" a chastisement which shows that even four years of civil war have not sufficiently humbled and purified us as a nation; and a call to all of us to be ready at our posts of duty for the Master's summons, whether it come in the middle watch of the night or at the cock-crowing. We bless God for the incalculable service that our late beloved President rendered to the cause of the Union and liberty, and for the testimony for Christianity which he left behind him; and over his new-made grave we consecrate ourselves afresh to the country and the cause for which he lived and died, and to the Saviour whom he honored.

The Church had, in 1865, 32 classes, 427 churches, 436 ministers, 54,286 communicants.

The Committee on Domestic Missions presented a favorable report. They had aided 75 churches and mission stations, of which 22 are in the West. These contain 4,239 members, of which 501 were received during the last year. Connected with these were 88 Sabbath-schools, with 5,890 pupils. Receipts from all sources during the year amounted to \$24,315.83, leaving a balance in the treasury of nearly \$5,000. The church-building fund amounts to \$8,630. The Synod resolved to make a special effort to raise \$50,000 for the church-building fund. On motion of the Committee of Correspondence, it was resolved to appoint delegates for a National Protestant Convention to meet delegates appointed from the Presbyterian General Assemblies and the Congregational National Convention.

In the Reformed State Church of France, the contest between the "Evangelical" ("Orthodox," "Conservative") and "Liberal" ("Rationalistic," "Unitarian") schools continued

with great animosity. At the elections for the Presbyterian Councils in January, the "Liberals" came off victorious at Havre and Rouen, but in Paris the "Orthodox" ticket, one of whose candidates was M. Guizot, was elected by a small majority. The Presbyterian Council of Paris also showed its determination to exclude "Liberal" pastors from the pulpits by rejecting a minister presented to it by A. Coquerel, Senior, as his assistant.

The Reformed Church of France numbered, in 1865, 105 consistories, 489 parishes, 692 *annezes*, 895 churches, 1,304 schools, 661 pastors.

The controversy between the Evangelical and Liberal schools continues also to divide the Dutch Reformed Church in Holland and in South Africa. In Holland considerable sensation was produced by the resignation of Dr. Pierson, of Rotterdam, one of the leaders of the "Liberal" party, who, in a memoir addressed to his congregation, expressed the opinion that clergymen of the Liberal school who continue to baptize and adhere apparently to the old doctrinal standard of the Church, are guilty of the worst kind of equivocation and artifice, and can, therefore, not fail to exercise a most demoralizing influence upon society. In the Reformed Dutch Church of South Africa, the Rev. Mr. Kotze had declared (1862), in Synod, that what the catechism said of natural depravity, namely, that "man is inclined to all evil," is not true, and not fit for even a heathen, yea, that the devil only could say so. He was told to retract this assertion, but declined, whereupon, by a vote of Synod, he was deposed from office. He appealed to the Supreme Court of the colony, and this court, at the close of 1864, pronounced the deposing act of the Synod illegal, and reinstated him in office. This brought on a bitter controversy between the two parties in the Church.

REUSS, the name of two German principalities. All the males, members of the princely house, since the commencement of the eleventh century, have been called Heinrich. The individuals are distinguished by figures, which run on to a hundred, beginning afterwards again at one. I. REUSS GREIZ. Reigning Prince, Heinrich XXII., born March 28, 1864, succeeded his father November 8, 1859. There is no representation of the people. Population in 1864, 43,924 (in 1861, 42,130). Area, 148 square miles. Revenue, about 200,000 thalers; contingent to the Federal army 334 men. II. REUSS SCHLEIZ, reigning Prince, Heinrich LXVII., born October 20, 1789, succeeded his brother, Heinrich LXVI. on June 19, 1854. Heir apparent, Prince Heinrich XIV., born May 28, 1832. A representative form of government was introduced by decree of November 30, 1849, but modified, April 14, 1852, and again June 20, 1856. Population in 1864, 86,472 (in 1861, 83,360); area, 297 square miles. Contingent to Federal army, 783 men. In the Budget for the financial period of 1868-'65, the annual revenue is fixed at 281,850 thalers.

RHODE ISLAND. The second session of the Legislature elected in 1864 met at Providence in January, 1865, and adjourned *sine die* on March 18th. Among the measures passed was a joint resolution, by an almost unanimous vote, ratifying the antislavery amendment to the Constitution; an act authorizing a loan of a million of dollars, payable in thirty years; and an act, which, by providing that six per cent. shall be the legal rate of interest unless some other sum is expressly stipulated, practically abolished the usury laws.

The political canvass of the State commenced in March. The Republican Convention assembled at Providence on the 15th, and renominated for Governor the present incumbent of the office, James Y. Smith. Their resolutions were as follows:

Resolved, That it is our paramount duty, as citizens of the United States, to preserve and perpetuate the Union and Constitution, and that this duty has become only the more sacred by reason of all the patriot lives, and of all the blood and treasure, which during the past four years have been sacrificed in its fulfillment.

Resolved, That we approve the measures adopted by the Federal administration for the prosecution of the war, and that we pledge ourselves to support its continued prosecution unto the complete extinguishment of the rebellion.

Resolved, That we congratulate the soldiers and sailors of the army and navy upon the brilliant successes which they have recently achieved, and that we render them our most hearty thanks for all their glorious and inestimable services to the cause of the Union.

Resolved, That in order to avoid the inequalities of a draft, it is the true policy of the State to fill its military quotas by voluntary enlistments, and to that end to make provision for the payment of liberal bounties to volunteer recruits.

Resolved, That the thanks of the people of the State are due to His Excellency James Y. Smith for his fidelity in the discharge of his office, and especially for his untiring efforts to fill the quotas of the State by voluntary enlistments.

The Providence "Journal," one of the leading Republican papers of the State, refused to support the nomination of Gov. Smith, on the ground that his administration had been "so pernicious to the State that it would be at once a disgrace and disaster to Rhode Island to continue it." A committee of colored voters also published an address, adopting all the Republican nominations except those of Governor and Lieut.-Governor. In place of these they nominated the Hon. Edward Harris for Governor, and Rowland Hazard for Lieut.-Governor, who were pledged to support the colored population on the following issue presented by the address:

It has been the policy and interest of this slavery to prescribe all colored men, to heap contempt upon their heads—to act unjustly by them—to treat them as if they had no rights that white men were bound to respect. In keeping with this policy the school authorities of Providence and Newport have unjustly, in disregard of the Constitution, forced colored persons into separate schools—schools which are very poor in comparison to those which have been sustained for others, sustained in part by taxes exacted from colored men. We object to this, not only because of its obvious unjustness, but because it con-

times to foster this proscribing of us on account of our color, even now when the North is ceasing almost entirely to pay any deference to slavery, the enemy of the Government. We say that this adjunct to slavery ought to die with slavery; that Rhode Island should not be disgraced with this, its relic; that in all matters in which the States have control, no such distinction should be known, leaving individuals to do as they may in social relations, which is their right—but where the law has sway, as in public schools, all should be equal, with no disparaging distinctions. This is the issue we present. We have been urging the point for twelve years; we have succeeded in carrying our prayer before the lower House, and needed but four votes to success in the Senate, and believe that we would have succeeded there but for undue interference.

The Democratic Convention met at Providence on March 22d, and nominated a State ticket, headed by Charles S. Bradley for Governor. All the candidates having refused to accept the nominations tendered to them, Alfred Anthony was nominated for Governor and Gen. Olney Arnold for Lieut.-Governor, together with the remainder of the ticket originally nominated. Resolutions were passed in favor of filling the quotas of the State by voluntary enlistment instead of by draft, and tendering thanks to the soldiers of Rhode Island in the national service; also the following on national affairs:

Resolved, That the Democratic party, now as heretofore, is based upon and recognizes only the Constitution as the supreme authority in political affairs, and is determined, so far as its influence extends, to maintain the Union and the supremacy of the laws; and we enter our solemn protest against bribery and corruption in State and national affairs, which is so ruinous to public morals.

The election took place on April 5th, and in consequence of the withdrawal of the Democratic candidates, resulted in favor of the Republicans by the following vote:

Governor.	Number of votes.
James Y. Smith.....	10,061
Scattering.....	788
Majority for Smith.....	9,808

The total vote was 10,814 against 22,162 in the Presidential election in the preceding November. The Legislature elected was largely Republican, less than a dozen Democrats having been chosen to both Houses. Thomas A. Jenckes and Nathan F. Dixon, Republicans, were also elected members of Congress, the former almost unanimously, and the latter by a majority of 1,590 over his Democratic competitor.

The Legislature met at Newport on May 30, 1865, and the new State Government was inaugurated. The following resolution was adopted in the course of the session by a nearly unanimous vote:

Resolved, That it is the sense of the General Assembly and people of this State, that in the reconstruction of the government of the States lately in rebellion against the Government and authority of the United States, the usual power and legal authority vested in the Federal Government should be executed to secure equal rights, without respect to color, to all citizens residing in those States, including herein the right of the elective franchise.

At the commencement of the late war, the public debt of Rhode Island was only about \$4,000, and at its close it amounted to \$4,000,000, the whole of which was accumulated for war purposes. The following is an official statement of the funded debt of the State, with the date of the authorizing acts and the time of payment:

Date of Act.	Amount of Debt.	Principal payable.
August, 1861.....	\$500,000.....	October 1, 1871
August, 1862.....	1,200,000.....	September 1, 1871
January, 1863.....	800,000.....	April 1, 1863
June, 1863.....	1,000,000.....	January 1, 1868
May, 1864.....	1,000,000.....	February 1, 1894

The interest is at the rate of six per cent, payable semi-annually. The million dollars' loan, authorized by the act of January, 1865, has never been issued, and probably never will be. During 1865, bonds to the amount of \$111,000 were paid, leaving the outstanding debt on January 1, 1866, \$3,889,000. There has been no regular sinking fund provided for the extinction of the debt; but from a law passed by the General Assembly, authorizing any surplus money in the Treasury to be used for the purchase of the bonds, it is thought that after another year the State will be in the market as a purchaser, and that before the time expires for the payment of them they will all be retired.

The Adjutant-General of Rhode Island reports that the State furnished to the war an aggregate of 25,355 men, as follows:

Three months' men.....	8,147
Nine months' men.....	2,069
One year's men.....	1,013
Two years' men.....	11
Three years' men.....	12,110

Reduced to a three years' standard, these would number 20,236. These were comprised in one regiment and two independent batteries of light artillery, three regiments and one squadron of cavalry, three regiments of heavy artillery, one of which was colored, and eight regiments and one company of infantry. The prepared claims against the United States for expenses growing out of the war amount to nearly \$330,000, the settlement of which is protracted on account of certain questions affecting their legal character.

A census was taken in 1865, from a partial report of which it appears that the State is making steady progress in population and wealth. The total population is 184,695, of whom 112,207 were born in Rhode Island, 32,585 in other States of the Union, and 39,903 in foreign countries. This shows a gain of 10,075, or nearly six per cent. over the United States census of 1860. The whole number of persons who can neither read nor write is 10,181, of whom 1,552 are of American parentage, 7,313 of Irish parentage, and the remainder were born in various foreign countries. The State supports 543 paupers, and the average number of convicts is somewhat over one hundred. In 1865 there were 87,786 acres of ploughed land, 101,243 of mowing land, 152,457 of pasture land, and 201,000 of unimproved

land. The chief agricultural products of the previous year were as follows:

Hay.....	70,565 tons.
Wheat.....	758 bushels.
Rye.....	29,161 "
Indian Corn.....	466,638 "
Oats.....	176,944 "
Barley.....	46,500 "
Buckwheat.....	2,869 "
Potatoes.....	710,627 "

In 1865 the State contained 11,133 horses; 40,717 sheep, from which were obtained 114,781 pounds of wool; 16,269 swine, and 17,517 milch cows, which yielded 2,223,272 gallons of milk, from which were made 857,466 pounds of butter, and 136,130 pounds of cheese.

RICHARDSON, CHARLES, an English philologist and author, born July, 1775; died at Feltham, England, October 6, 1865. He was intended for the law, but quitted it early for literary pursuits. His first production, published in 1805, was "Illustrations of English Philology," a critical examination of Dr. Johnson's Dictionary, and remarks on Dugald Stewart's essay "On the Tendency of some late Philological Speculations," in which he strenuously advocated Horne Tooke's "Principles of Language." Shortly afterwards he undertook the lexicographical portion of the "Encyclopædia Metropolitana." The first part of this work was published in January, 1811; but in consequence of the failure of the original proprietors, it was suspended for some years. In January, 1835, the work was resumed, and completed in the spring of 1837. One of its most attractive features is Dr. Richardson's Dictionary, which is in every way different in plan and arrangement from all its predecessors; its great merit lying in the careful tracing of each word to its true root, and in placing the chief derivative words under their respective primitives; also, in the historical illustrations of the meaning of the words arranged chronologically, affording ample facilities to all who would master the niceties of the language. In 1854 he published a volume on the "Study of Language." He was also the author of an "Historical Essay on English Grammar and English Grammarians," and another on "Fancy and Imagination," and a contributor to "Notes and Queries." He deserves great credit as a philologist, for the impulse which he gave to etymological inquiry; and though some of his etymologies have been discarded by later philologists, yet his principles of investigation and their results will remain as his most enduring monument.

RICHARDSON, Sir JOHN, an eminent scientific writer and explorer, born in Dumfries, Scotland, in 1787; died at Lancrigg, Grasmere, June 5, 1865. He was educated at the grammar school in his native town, studied medicine at the University of Edinburgh, in 1801, and in 1807 entered the navy as an assistant surgeon. Before the completion of his twenty-first year he was raised to the rank of acting surgeon of the Hercules, and in 1819 accompanied Sir John Franklin in his Arctic expedition as surgeon and naturalist. His scientific

life began with the publication, in 1823, of Sir John Franklin's Narrative, accompanied with "Geognostical Observations, Remarks on the Aurora Borealis, Notices of Fishes, and a Botanical Appendix." In 1825 he sailed a second time with Franklin to the polar regions, from whose command he was detached on the special duty of surveying the coast between the Mackenzie and Coppermine Rivers, a work which he resumed twenty-two years later, under more favorable auspices. The chief scientific fruit of this expedition, so far as Dr. Richardson was concerned, is represented by the truly valuable work, *Fauna Boreali-Americana*, which appeared in several quarto volumes from 1829 to 1837. From 1828 to 1838 Dr. Richardson was connected with the Melville Hospital, and the ten years following was physician of the fleet. In 1846 he was created a knight, and in 1848, when 61 years of age, he commanded one of the expeditions which went in search of Sir John Franklin, an account of which he published in the "Boat Voyage," two volumes. Returning in 1849, he spent another half dozen years at Hasler, and receiving no further appointment from the Government, retired from the service. The remaining ten years of his life were spent mainly in literary and scientific pursuits. He took great interest in ethnological and linguistic studies, and the investigations of forty years in zoology and its kindred sciences made him a true and trustworthy anthropologist. Among his latest works is "The Polar Regions," a moderate-sized octavo volume, published in 1860. His life was one of rare kindness and charity.

RINDERPEST. (See CATTLE PLAGUE.)

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH. The "Pontifical Annual" for 1866, published in Rome, gives the following details on the present condition of the Roman Catholic Church: "Pius IX., born at Sinigaglia, on the 13th May, 1792, was elected Pope on the 16th June, 1846; he is consequently in the 74th year of his age, and the twentieth of his Pontificacy. The Sacred College at the present time includes 57 cardinals, 6 members of the order of bishops, 43 that of priests, and 8 of deacons. Of that number 29 reside habitually at Rome, and the others abroad; 17 were created by Gregory XVI. and 42 by Pius IX. The most ancient cardinal (Mario Mattei) has worn the purple for the last 34 years; the eldest (Antonio Tosti) is aged 90, and the youngest (Giuseppe Milesi-Pironi-Ferretti) only 49. There are eleven hats at present vacant. Throughout the globe are 12 patriarchal sees, 154 archiepiscopal, and 692 episcopal. To those numbers must be added 226 sees *in partibus infidelium* (30 archbishoprics and 196 bishoprics). Of the patriarchs, 5 belong to the Eastern and 7 to the Latin Churches; of the archbishops, 24 to the former and 134 to the latter; and of the bishops, 46 are Eastern and 646 Latin. In the five parts of the world are 96 sees, which hold their authority directly from Rome. The number of

apostolic vicars is 101; of delegations, 5; prefectures, 21; of abbeys and prelatships of no diocese, 14. Pius IX. has raised 12 cathedrals to the rank of metropolitan churches; has erected 4 archbishoprics and 96 bishoprics, and has created 15 vicarates, 1 delegation, and 6 prefectures."

The Roman Catholic Church in the United States was divided, in 1865, into the following provinces:

1. The Province of Baltimore, embracing the dioceses of Baltimore, Charleston, Erie, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Richmond, Savannah, Wheeling, and the Vicariate Apostolic of Florida, covers the States of Maryland and Virginia, with the District of Columbia, and the States of North and South Carolina, Delaware, Pennsylvania, Georgia, and Florida. Over these States are located 600 churches, chapels, and stations; 29 theological seminaries and colleges; 154 academies and schools of various grades; 88 convents; 8 monasteries; 82 orphan and other asylums, and 14 hospitals.

2. The Province of New York, embracing the dioceses of New York, Albany, Boston, Burlington, Brooklyn, Buffalo, Hartford, Newark, and Portland, covers the States of New York, New Jersey, and New England. In the province are planted 875 churches, chapels, and stations; 12 theological seminaries and colleges; 422 academies and other schools; 60 convents; 12 monasteries; 25 asylums; and 11 hospitals.

3. The Province of Cincinnati, embracing the dioceses of Cincinnati, Cleveland, Covington, Detroit, Fort Wayne, Louisville, Saint Louis, and Vincennes, covers the States of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, and Kentucky. Here are located 964 churches, chapels, and stations; 8 theological seminaries and colleges; 496 academies and schools; 89 convents; 18 monasteries; 17 asylums; and 8 hospitals.

4. The Province of St. Louis, embracing the dioceses of St. Louis, Alton, Chicago, Dubuque, Milwaukee, Nashville, Santa Fé, St. Paul, the Vicariate Apostolic east of the Rocky Mountains, and the Vicariate Apostolic of Nebraska, covers the States of Missouri, Illinois, Tennessee, Wisconsin, Iowa, Kansas, the Territories of Nebraska, New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, and the Indian Territory. This section has its 1,111 churches, chapels, and stations; 17 theological seminaries and colleges; 269 academies and other schools; 60 convents; 12 monasteries; 29 asylums; and 8 hospitals.

5. The Province of San Francisco, embracing the dioceses of San Francisco and Monterey, and the Vicariate Apostolic of Marysville, includes the States of California, Nevada, and all the Territories east of the Rio Colorado, having 126 churches, chapels, and stations; 3 theological seminaries and colleges; 27 academies and other schools; 9 convents; 3 monasteries; 6 asylums; and 2 hospitals.

6. The Province of Oregon City has 2 dioceses, Oregon City and Nesqueally; 88 churches,

chapels, and stations; 1 seminary; 1 college; 14 academies; 1 convent; 8 asylums; and 1 hospital. It comprises the State of Oregon and the Territories of Idaho and Washington.

7. The Province of New Orleans, embracing the dioceses of New Orleans, Galveston, Little Rock, Mobile, Natchez, Natchitoches, covers the States of Louisiana, Alabama, Mississippi, Texas, and Arkansas. In this province are 105 churches, chapels, and stations; and 22 academies and schools; 6 convents; 1 monastery; and 2 asylums.

The grand total of all the establishments as above given, embracing a vast amount of property, is as follows: 3,884 churches, chapels, and stations; 74 theological seminaries and colleges; 1,404 academies and schools, with an aggregate of about 80,000 pupils; 213 convents; 49 monasteries; 150 orphan asylums, containing nearly 9,000 orphans, and about 150 other benevolent institutions; and 49 hospitals.

By a decree of the Congregation of Propaganda, confirmed by Pope Pius IX., on the 25th July, 1858, the prerogative of place is granted to the See of Baltimore, so that in councils, assemblies, and meetings of every kind, precedence is given to the Archbishop of Baltimore for the time being, and the seat of honor above any Archbishops of these provinces that may be present, without regard to the order of promotion or consecration.

The Roman Catholic population of the United States is estimated at from 4,000,000 to 5,000,000 inhabitants. The following table exhibits the progress from 1808 to 1861:

YEARS.	Prefectures.	Dioceses.	Vicariates.	Bishops.	Priests.	Churches.	Stations and Chapels.	Religious Institutions.
1808..	1	1	..	2	68	80	9
1830..	1	11	..	10	292	230	9
1840..	1	16	..	17	482	454	356	18
1850..	8	27	..	27	1,081	1,073	505	29
1854..	7	41	9	39	1,574	1,719	746	34
1855..	7	41	9	40	1,714	1,824	678	37
1856..	7	41	9	40	1,761	1,910	805	37
1857..	7	41	9	32	1,872	2,058	829	36
1858..	7	43	9	43
1859..	7	43	9	46	2,108	2,334
1860..	7	43	8	49	2,225	2,385	1,128	43
1861..	7	43	8	45	2,317	2,517	1,278	49

In England and Scotland, the Roman Catholic Church has increased, from 1842 to 1865, as follows:

	1842.	1865.	Incr. in 23 Yrs.
ENGLAND AND WALES.—Priests.....	634	1836*	714
Churches, Chapels, & Stations.....	487	941	454
Convents.....	20	187	167
Houses for Men.....	8	58	55
Colleges.....	8	10	2
SCOTLAND....Priests.....	56	158†	97
Churches, Chapels, & Stations.....	69	191	122
Convents.....	1	14	13
Colleges.....	1	2	1

* Includes 17 bishops.

† Includes 4 bishops.

The number of Roman Catholics in England and Scotland is from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000. Ireland had, in 1865, 4 ecclesiastical provinces (Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, Tuam), 81 archbishops and bishops (exclusive of 5 bishops with no local jurisdiction in Scotland; 1,070 parishes, 984 parish priests, 1,631 administrators, curates, and others (including chaplains and professors, etc., in colleges and schools), 340 regular clergy, total priests (including bishops, private chaplains, those in asylums, etc.), about 3,120; 73 communities of priests, 67 communities of men, 189 communities of women. According to the official census of 1861, there were in Ireland 4,490,583 Roman Catholics in a total population of 5,764,543. At the election of a new House of Commons, in 1865, 34 Roman Catholics were chosen; 31 in Ireland, and 3 in England (Sir John D. Acton for Bridgnorth, Lord Edward F. Howard for Arundel, Sir John Simeon for Isle of Wight. Sir John D. Acton received only one majority, and, some error being discovered in the count of votes, was unseated by resolution of the House of Commons).

The agitation arising at the close of the year 1864, out of the publication of the "Encyclical," of December 8, 1864, subsided soon after the beginning of the new year, without producing any of the collisions with the civil governments that were anticipated. Only in France there was a transient difficulty between the Government, which forbade the bishops to publish the Encyclical, and the bishops who disobeyed this order. Some of the bishops were censured by the Council of State for having violated the laws of the State, but the Government refraining from taking any further measures against the bishops, the interest in the controversy soon died out. The Government of Italy entered into negotiations with the Pope on the filling of the vacant episcopal sees, and a reduction of the number of dioceses, but no result was obtained. At the election of a new Italian Parliament in October, that political party which supported the demands of Rome suffered a defeat, not more than half a dozen of its candidates being elected. The Government announced its intention to bring in a bill for the total separation of Church and State. In the United States, a difficulty arose in consequence of the new State constitution of Missouri, which demanded of all clergymen an oath of loyalty to the State Government. The Archbishop of St. Louis issued a letter to the clergy of the State, expressing strong dissatisfaction with the oath, and instructing them, in case the civil power should exact the oath, to inform him of the "particular circumstances" of their position, in order that he might be able to give them council and assistance. Several priests, who refused to take the oath, were arrested, and the difficulty had not been settled at the close of the year. In Mexico, the decrees of the Emperor Maximilian confirming and ratifying the sales of Church property, and granting religious toleration, called forth re-

monstrances on the part of the Bishops of Mexico and the Pope. The bishops in an address to the Emperor denied the authority of the State Government over Church property, and, with regard to religious toleration, declared: "We can see nothing that renders it, not to say urgent, but even excusable." The Pope, in a letter to Maximilian, had previously given this advice:

"Your Majesty is well aware that, in order effectively to repair the evils occasioned by the revolution, and to bring back as soon as possible happy days for the Church, the Catholic religion must above all things continue to be the glory and the mainstay of the Mexican nation, to the exclusion of every other dissenting worship; that the bishops must be perfectly free in the exercise of their pastoral ministry; that the religious orders should be reestablished or reorganized, conformably with the instructions and the powers which we have given; that the patrimony of the Church and the rights which attach to it may be maintained and protected; that no person may obtain the faculty of teaching and publishing false and subversive tenets; that instruction, whether public or private, should be directed and watched over by the ecclesiastical authority; and that, in short, the chains may be broken which, up to the present time, have held down the Church in a state of dependence, and subject to the arbitrary rule of the civil government."

When, notwithstanding this advice, the Emperor adhered to his policy, and issued the decrees above mentioned, the Papal Nuncio was recalled from Mexico. The Emperor of Russia on December 12th (new style 26th) issued a decree, taking the administration of all the revenue of the Roman Catholic clergy in the kingdom of Poland, out of the hands of the ecclesiastical authorities, and intrusting it to the Central Commission of the Finances and the Treasury. All the revenue continues to be used for Roman Catholic Church purposes. The dime is not abolished, but made optional with the payer. The salary of the Archbishop of Warsaw is fixed at 24,000 francs. The parish priests are divided into two classes (as in France), those of the first class receiving 2,000 francs, and those of the second 1,600 francs annually. The decree was to take effect on December 20, 1865 (new style January 1, 1866). The Archbishop of Warsaw still remained in exile at the close of the year.

Monastic communities are rapidly increasing in the Roman Catholic Church. The Jesuits, according to an official statement published by the Order, numbered at the close of 1864, 7,728 members, being 129 more than in 1863. The Order is divided into 21 provinces, of which four belong to France, five to Germany, Belgium, and Holland, two to Spain, five to Italy, one to Mexico, and the other four are distributed in England, Ireland, and the United States. In 1864 there were 1,582 Jesuits employed in foreign missions, being an increase of 242 over the year 1863. The European missions amounted to 28; the Asiatic, to 296; the African, to 218; the North American, to 276; the South American, to 199; the Oceanian, to 55; and 15 were on passage. Twenty-five years ago,

namely, in 1841, there were but 8,568 Jesuits, so that since that period the number has been more than doubled. In the Comarea alone there are 475 Jesuits, of whom 385 reside in Rome, and the remainder in the Colleges of Velletri, Frosinone, and Viterbo. There are 178 Jesuits superintending the Roman College; 15 are engaged in directing the journal "*Civiltà Cattolica*," 18 in the German College, 11 in the College dei Nobili, 13 in the South American College, 54 live in the House of Profession, 79 are assigned to the novitiate, and 28 remain in the House of Refuge. The Franciscan Order, according to the "*Monde*," of Paris, also increases in number every year, and now reckons 200,000 men and 300,000 sisters, including the Tertiaries. It possesses 252 provinces, and 26,000 convents, of which five are in Palestine and 80 in Turkey.

The Catholic Congress of Belgium did not meet in 1865. That of Germany held its annual meeting in September, at Treves. The Baron of Andlaw, of Baden, was chosen President, and A. Reichensberger, late Vice-President of the Prussian Chamber of Representatives, first Vice-President. The Society for Circulating Catholic Books, which owes its origin to one of the former Congresses, was reported to be an entire success. Progress was also reported as to the project of a Free Catholic University, to which large pecuniary aid had been contributed by the ladies. A long debate was called forth by a proposition to constitute a central office for the Catholic press of Germany, for the purpose of concentrating the literary forces of the best publicists, of rewarding them according to their merits, and utilizing them for the establishment of an autographic correspondence. The proposition was deemed by a majority of the Congress impracticable, and withdrawn.

RUSSIA, an empire in Europe and Asia. Present Emperor, Alexander II., born 1818; succeeded his father in 1855. His apparent, Alexander, born in 1845. The area in 1862 was estimated at 7,770,882 English square miles. The population was, according to the latest dates, as follows:

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.	Population.	Years.
European Russia.....	61,061,901	1864
Caucasian ".....	4,237,704	1858
Asiatic ".....	4,070,988	"
Poland.....	4,840,466	1860
Finland.....	1,798,909	1863
American Russia.....	24,200
	76,054,013

Caucasian Russia was, in 1862, divided into five governments (Kutais, Stavropol, Tiflis, Shemakha, Erivan), and three territories (Kuban Terek, and Daghestan). Asiatic Russia, in the same year, consisted of four governments (Tobolsk, Tomsk, Yenisseisk, Irkutsk), and seven territories (Transbaik, Yakutsk, Amoor, East Siberian Coast, Semipalatinsk, Siberian Kirghee, Orenburg Kirghee). Since then Russia has made steady and considerable progress in Central Asia, and in February, 1865, the newly

conquered provinces were organized into the province of Turkestan. The total population was estimated, in 1865, at about 80,000,000. The largest cities, in 1861, were the following: Petersburg, 586,293; Moscow, 377,838; Odessa, 117,999; Kishineff, 93,359; Saratoff, 83,763; Riga, 78,958. The revenue was estimated, in the budget for 1865, at 880,093,514 rubles. The public debt, on January 1, 1864, was 64,338,583 rubles. The exports of Russia in 1863 were valued at \$152,094,268, and the imports at \$154,159,030. The movement of shipping on the Baltic, White, Black, and Azov Seas, was, in 1863, as follows: Entered, 9,893 vessels; cleared, 9,945 vessels. The number of vessels running between Russian and Finnish ports was 1,658; and the number of coasting vessels, 19,066. The Russian army, on January 1, 1863, numbered 812,196 men; on the outbreak of the insurrection in Poland, it was increased to 1,350,090; and after the suppression of the insurrection, it was again reduced to 800,000 men. The fleet, in June, 1863, consisted of 248 steamers, carrying 2,387 guns, and 62 sailing vessels, carrying 1,304 guns. In 1865, according to a report of the Minister of the Navy, the fleet consisted of 258 steamers and 43 sailing vessels.

The hereditary Grand-duke Nicholas Alexandrovitch died at Nice, on April 24th, at the age of 22 years. Only a few weeks before, his betrothal to the Princess Dagmar, of Denmark, sister to the Princess of Wales, had been officially announced in Russia. The princess was present with the grand-duke during the closing hours of his life.

The year 1865 witnessed the convocation of the first Provincial Diets of the empire, which had been established by an Imperial ukase of January 21, 1864. The Provincial Diets consist of deputies elected by the district assemblies, which were provided for by the same ukase, and are composed of the representatives of the landed gentry, the towns and the villages. The deputies are elected for three years, and their number is regulated by that of the representatives in each district, according to a table annexed to the law. These provincial assemblies are under the presidency of the provincial marshals of nobility, in cases where the Emperor does not appoint another president. Provincial rural courts, composed of a president and six members, chosen for three years, are established by the provincial assemblies. The payment of the members of these courts is optional with the provincial assemblies. The president of the provincial rural court must be confirmed in his office by the Minister of the Interior. The assemblies thus constituted have an administrative power, and a general supervision over rural affairs, while the rural courts exercise the executive power, and a closer supervision of matters relating to the rural body. The provincial and district assemblies meet once a year; the district assemblies not later than September, the provincial

assemblies not later than December. The district assemblies sit ten days, the provincial twenty days; but the sessions may be prolonged by the permission severally of the Governor of the province and the Minister of the Interior, who may also convene extraordinary assemblies.

A Petersburg letter in the Paris "Moniteur" of December 9th, gives the following account of one of the most important of these assemblies, that of Moscow:

After the preliminary business had been got through, the Assembly received communication of several motions touching the general interests of the province of Moscow. The first was intended to show the necessity of establishing a bank, designed to aid in relieving the wants of the province. Another had reference to the situation of the Russian clergy. The law accords to each parish about thirty-three acres of land, to provide for the subsistence of all the members of its clergy; but, according to the proposer of the motion, those resources rarely suffice for the maintenance of a great number of persons attached to the parish, and often encumbered with large families. Some remedy was therefore declared to be necessary for such a state of things, and the wishes expressed on the subject were referred to the examination of a committee. Mention must also be made of observations presented by several speakers on the subject of the obstacles which impede agricultural labors in the government of Moscow, in consequence of the difficulty of settling disputes between the workmen and the landowners. Other members called attention to the state of the roads, to the reorganization of the local police, and to the necessity of establishing a medical service in the villages. This last proposition was also referred to a committee, with an injunction to present its report next session. The Provincial Assembly of Moscow, composed of seventy-one members, was presided over by Prince Metschersky. The aristocratic element was predominant, but as that circumstance was the result of election, it may be regarded as an exact representation of the interests of the country. In closing its labors the Assembly, by a decision inserted in the minutes, came to a resolution to present to the Emperor the expression of its gratitude for the rights accorded by his Majesty, and the session was then closed, as it had been opened, by the Governor of Moscow.

The Diet of the Province of St. Petersburg was opened on December 9th. It consisted of 60 members, one-third noblemen of German extraction, and was presided over by M. de Platonoff. Communications were received from two district assemblies, strongly complaining of the paucity of the rights vested in the Provincial Diets, and of the "intrinsic contradictoriness" of the act calling the new establishments into existence. The majority of the Assembly sympathized with these complaints, but deemed it best to confine themselves to the passage of a report adopting the contents of the two reports *in toto*, instead of presenting a petition to the Emperor.

A much bolder and determined opposition to the institution of the provincial assemblies was made by the Assemblies of Nobles. These assemblies had been consulted by the Government before the law establishing the provincial diets was issued. Most of them had expressed the opinion that the projected law established a basis far too democratic, and would, there-

fore, tend to paralyze the influence of the upper classes, and particularly that of the landed gentry. This objection was most strongly expressed by the Assemblies of St. Petersburg, Simbirsk, Kostroma, Novgorod, and Orenburg, which protested against what they called the dissolving principle of absolute democracy, so strongly infused by the Government into the projected law. Their objections and remonstrances were, however, of no effect.

A similar result attended the representations of the nobility, marshals, and mayors who had been invited to take a consultative part in the deliberations. Prince Gregory Stcherbatoff, Provincial Marshal of St. Petersburg, asked for a better guaranty against arbitrary authority than the law provided. Prince Gagarin, provincial marshal, and Prince Alexander Stcherbatoff, mayor of Moscow, protested against the "levelling and demagogic" project of the Government. But their objections were overruled, and, with the exception of a few insignificant modifications, the law passed in the form originally proposed by the Government.

The Assemblies of the Nobles, held in 1865, also gave, in several instances, an emphatic expression to their opposition. That of Moscow adopted, by a vote of 270 to 37, the following address to the Czar:

Most Gracious Sire: The nobility of Moscow cannot at their present meeting refrain from expressing to your Majesty their feelings of deep devotion and gratitude for your Majesty's wise initiations invariably directed toward the welfare of our country. We are ready, Sire, to cooperate with you, by word and by deed, in the difficult but glorious path which you have chosen. We are convinced, Sire, that you will not halt in that path, and that you will proceed in it, leaning on your faithful nobility and on the whole Russian nation. The strength of our country lies in its friendly unity and integrity. By gathering your hitherto divided Russia into a single body, by welding it firmly together and replacing the separate rights of some of its parts by general rights for all, you will eliminate forever all possibility of revolt and civil war. The new rural institutions which your Majesty has called into life are destined when fully developed to make durable the glory and strength of Russia. Complete, therefore, Sire, the edifice of the State of which you have laid the foundation, by convoking a general assembly of men elected by the whole of Russia for the discussion of requirements common to the empire. Command your faithful nobility, with the same object, to elect the best men from amidst their ranks. The nobility have always been firm supporters of the Russian throne. Without being considered in the service of the State, without enjoying the rewards connected with it, fulfilling their duty without remuneration, to the advantage of the country and of general order, those men will, by their position, be called upon to guard the moral and political principles on which the State reposes, and which are so inestimable to the people and so indispensable to their real well-being. By that means, Sire, you will ascertain the wants of our country in their true light, you will restore confidence in the executive, you will attain a strict observance of the law by all and each, and its applicability to the requirements of the country. The truth will reach your throne unimpeded, enemies at home and abroad will be silenced, when the people, in the persons of their representatives, shall with love surround the throne, and watch constantly that no

treason approach it from any quarter. Most gracious Sire! the nobility of Moscow appear before your Majesty at the call of their sacred duty as faithful subjects, having only the advantage of the State in view. We speak, Sire, in the full conviction that our words correspond with your own policy, and with the spirit of your great reforms.

A commission of four members, headed by Count Orloff Davidoff, grand master of ceremonies at the imperial court, was named to present the petition. By the Czar it was received most ungraciously, and the following rescript was sent in reply:

The reforms which have been prepared, and those already realized, sufficiently prove my solicitude for the improvement, as far as possible, of the political organization of the country. The past must be a guaranty for the future. No subject has a right to anticipate my resolutions, nor is any class legally entitled to speak in the name of others. Such violations of the law can but retard my plans. I am fully convinced that I shall never again meet with such obstacles on the part of my faithful nobility.

The Minister of the Interior was instructed to communicate the rescript to all the governors of provinces, in order to communicate it to the Assemblies of Nobles on their meeting. This severe censure of the Moscow nobility did not, however, have the desired effect. Other provincial assemblies openly declared their concurrence in the resolutions passed at Moscow. The Government was so much incensed at this course, that when eighteen members of the Assembly of Nobles in the government of Pskoff joined the request of the Moscow nobility for a national representation to be granted to Russia, legal proceedings were taken against them. The editor of a Moscow newspaper, the *Viezi* (Despatch), which published the Moscow address, and Count Orloff Davidoff, the chief of the deputation, were sentenced by the first tribunal to two months' imprisonment.

The progress of the Russians in Central Asia, an account of which was given in the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* for 1864, is also a marked feature of the history of Russia in 1865. In October, 1864, the town of Chemkend was occupied by the Russians, who thus became the masters of the region which in official reports is described as "the granary of all the country between the Chu and the Syr-Daria." In the succeeding month, Prince Gortchakoff drew up a circular to the diplomatic agents of Russia, instructing them to represent to the Governments near which they were accredited, the advance of Russia in Central Asia as proceeding not from a desire of conquest, but of rectifying the frontier, and securing it against unceasing attacks from uncivilized hordes. In February, 1865, the province of Toorkestan was constituted under Gen. Tcherniaieff. On May 9th, the same general defeated and slew the Khokand leader, the regent during the Khan's minority, close to Tashkend. On June 15th this important place itself was taken by assault, and with it the independent State of Khokand ceased to exist. The "Invalid" of St. Petersburg gave the fol-

lowing account of the occupation of this town, and of the events following the capture:

Tashkend was occupied in accordance with the expressed desire of the inhabitants. The latter, finding it impossible to shake off the yoke of Zadyk Kenisarin, a Khokand chief of mountaineers, who had made himself master of their quiet and industrious town, had repeatedly sent to Gen. Tcherniaieff, soliciting his protection and interference. The general at first would not meddle with the internal affairs of the Turkish tribes, although, as he was well aware, Russian exports to Tashkend had considerably fallen off in consequence of the ascendancy of Zadyk Kenisarin; but when he found that the people of Tashkend, rather than submit to the arbitrary rule of their new master, were inviting the Emir of Bokhara to come and take possession of the town, he, very much against his will, discovered the necessity of protecting his own interests in a more forcible way, and took Tashkend by storm. The Russian columns were headed by a priest, carrying aloft a crucifix, and the enemy, after some resistance, evacuated the place. The Russians had twenty-five men killed, eighty-nine wounded, and twenty-eight bruised. This occurred in the night of the 27th of June (old style), and as the Russian general hoped and trusted, was to be the last and concluding scene of his military activity in those parts. But the Emir of Bokhara, the proud chief of a fierce and fanatic tribe, resented the capture of the contested city as an insult offered to him and his race, and in most offensive language claimed Tashkend, which, it is true, had asked for his assistance a few weeks before, as a place to which he had a lawful title. His troops appeared at the same time in the neighborhood of the city, and things looked as though he was going to vindicate his claim by force of arms. To have diplomatized with an Asiatic prince would have been useless under these circumstances, and so the Russian general resolved to have recourse to reprisals without loss of time. The Bokhara merchants in Orenburg were placed under arrest, their goods sequestered, and those on their way to Nijni Novgorod prevented from proceeding on their journey. The Emir was visibly overawed by the energy of the Russian general, and in his intercourse with M. Tcherniaieff began to observe again the ordinary forms of politeness, which he had neglected for a time. His troops have since been withdrawn, and his claims, it is possible, will be abandoned for good.

Later Russian accounts state that on the 30th August (12th September) General Tcherniaieff gave a grand banquet, at which 30,000 persons were present, without any disorder whatever taking place; that this event made a great impression upon the inhabitants; that industry began to recover from the consequences of the former internal dissensions; that the population was rapidly increasing, already numbering more than 100,000; and that Tashkend was becoming the commercial metropolis of Central Asia. The Khan of Bokhara, according to the same accounts, was peaceably disposed, and had sent presents to Gen. Tcherniaieff.

A great concession was made, in 1865, to the principle of religious toleration. Twenty years ago the Emperor Nicholas caused some 50,000 Livonians and Esthonians to secede from the Protestant Church, to which their ancestors had been converted centuries ago by the Teutonic Knights. The proselytes were regarded as orthodox ever after, and a law was enacted at the same time that a Greek church should be built whenever sixty believers could be col-

lected to attend divine service. It soon became, however, apparent that the converts were not pleased with the change, and refused to have their marriages celebrated and their children baptized by the Russian priests. Moved by their demoralized condition, the Emperor Alexander permitted these people in 1865 to bring up their children in the Protestant faith.

In February, the Governor of Poland received the official instructions of the Russian Government for the reorganization of that kingdom. Under these instructions, the imperial commissions for special purposes and the existing provincial governments were suspended, and the different branches of the public administration were henceforth to be only dependent on the respective ministries at St. Petersburg. The whole of Poland was to be divided into twenty-seven departments, each under the direction of a prefect. The post of Governor of Poland was suppressed—the functions of this office having been fulfilled by the chief of the civil administration and the commander-in-chief of the troops stationed in the Polish provinces. The national Russian party, the chief organs of which are the "Moscow Gazette" and the St. Petersburg "Invalide," demanded a complete Russification of Poland. They loudly expressed their dissatisfaction with the Government on account of its not adopting efficient measures to that end. Only the law providing for the establishment of special schools for each of the nationalities residing in the kingdom was hailed by the "Moscow Gazette" as a step in the right direction. "When the German, Lithuanian, and Russian inhabitants," remarked this paper, "are divided into separate groups, there will remain only 3,000,000 Poles of unadulterated race, whom it will be easy to reduce to impotence. It is more important still to make allies in the midst of the Poles themselves, and, above all, to gain the attachment of the peasants. The rural law would thus appear as a conservative measure with regard to Russia; and, without dwelling upon the principle of justice it contains, this fact alone—that of our own preservation—suffices to justify it."

The most radical measures for the extirpation of the Polish nationality were taken in the western governments of Russia, where nearly the whole of the land has hitherto been in the hands of a Polish aristocracy, while the bulk of the population belonged to another Slavic race. An imperial decree, issued in December, forbade any land in these provinces to be sold to either a Pole or a Roman Catholic. The most stringent laws were adopted for the suppression of the public use of the Polish language. Thus, in December, a circular was published from General Bezak, the Governor-General of Kieff, to the commanders of districts, in which it is stated that it has come to his knowledge that in some districts in his government the books and accounts of chemists are kept in the Polish language, and that physicians,

even those who are in the service of the State, use the Polish language in their prescriptions, for the addresses of their patients, and the directions for applying remedies. The circular then instructs the local commanders to give notice to all chemists and dispensers of medicine that their accounts and books must be kept in the Russian language, and that the tickets placed upon their vials and boxes must exclusively be made out in that language, under a penalty of fifty rubles for the first violation of the order, one hundred rubles for the second, and complete suppression of the business for the third. Physicians are to be warned that they must not write their prescriptions in any other language than Russian or Latin, under penalty of a fine of ten rubles for each prescription in Polish, and physicians in the service of the State will in addition be deprived of their appointments.

Among the new laws issued in 1865, was one relating to the press. According to this law, it remains optional for the editor of a newspaper to submit his journal to the censorship before publication. After three warnings, any paper can be temporarily suspended by the Minister of the Interior. A vote of the Senate is required for the suppression of a newspaper.

A special law was published for Finland. It provides that no newspaper is allowed to appear unless a large sum is deposited by the proprietors as a guaranty, which sum is doubled for newspapers published at Helsingfors and Abo. All offences against this law are to be punished by heavy contributions, amounting in certain cases to 8,000 marks. A severe censorship is established for all newspapers published in Finland in a foreign language, and also for all books coming from abroad. Travellers who bring any printed matter with them are bound to give it up to the custom house authorities, and foreign political papers coming by post are to be first seen by the censor, who is to decide whether they are to be forwarded or confiscated.

The "Russian Correspondence" of St. Petersburg publishes the following statistical accounts of the Ministry of Public Instruction in Russia: "The budget of that department for the present year amounts to a sum of 6,467,452 rubles. The empire contains about 67,670,000 inhabitants, consequently every inhabitant contributes nine and a half copecks to the budget; but, as every ministry has its special schools, it results that the real budget is much more considerable. The schools of the orthodox churches contain 320,000 pupils; those of the Ministry of the Domains 198,000; and those of the irregular troops 42,500. The schools in the Caucasus, those of the churches of the foreign confessions, and also private establishments, receive nothing from the Ministry of Public Instruction. The infant and provincial schools are nearly all maintained by the fees paid by the pupils, by charitable funds, and by the parishes. The number of 1,124 parish schools receive from the Ministry of Public Instruction an annual subvention of only 81,000 rubles, or 27.50 rubles each, and a few model schools 6,772 in all. The ministry distributes besides to 474 schools of the district towns a sum of 662,671 rubles, or 2,325 each. The ninety-six gymnasiums of the empire receive 2,350,874 rubles,

or 24,500 each. The budget of the six universities amounts to 1,371,048, which fixes the part of each at 228,509 rubles. On the 15th September last our six universities contained 4,084 immatriculated students and 557 free pupils, distributed among the different faculties: 43 per cent. belonged to the legal faculty; 24 per cent. to the medical; 27 per cent. to the scientific; 64 per cent. to the philological; 2 per cent. to the theological faculty of Dorpat; and 4 per cent. to the faculty of Oriental languages of St. Petersburg."

Conflagrations continued to desolate the whole extent of the empire. The population were almost always warned beforehand that on a certain day their town or village would be set on fire if a certain sum of money was not deposited at a stated place. The threat

rarely fails to be executed. Kremenchoug, a town in the south of Russia, had to contend against twenty fires during a short space of time. According to an official announcement, there were 120 "conflagrations" in the three provinces of Kieff, Volhynia, and Podolia, from the 15th of June to the 15th of July. No less than 837 houses (of continental size) were destroyed by this calamity, which affected 14 towns and 106 villages, inflicting a loss of 300,000 rubles upon the poor inhabitants. Fires of smaller extent are not included in these figures. In the kingdom of Poland proper six towns and thirty villages were almost entirely burnt to the ground within two weeks.

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SAN DOMINGO, or the Dominican Republic, a State of the West Indies, comprising the eastern portion of the Island of Hayti. Area, 22,000 square miles; population about 200,000.* In January, 1865, the new Spanish ministry of Narvaez, seeing the impossibility of continuing any longer the war against San Domingo, proposed to the Cortes a bill, repealing the act of 1861, by which that country was annexed to Spain. This bill was, on April 1st, adopted by the Chamber of Deputies, after an animated debate, by a vote of 155 to 68, and on April 29th, by the Senate, by 93 votes against 39. On May 6th, a royal decree was issued, announcing the abandonment by Spain of San Domingo.

It only remained to withdraw the Spanish garrisons from the few strongholds of which they had possession, in particular San Domingo City. The Dominican Government at Santiago sent down commissioners to arrange this with the Spanish Governor in due order. Nearly every thing was settled to mutual satisfaction, and the treaty was even signed and sent to the Dominican Executive for ratification, when suddenly in July new difficulties arose. The retiring Governor-General, Don José de la Gandara, insisted that the treaty of evacuation should take the form of a "high and voluntary act of generosity" on the part of Spain, and that the Dominican Government should register a national declaration that the war which Spain had been waging for three years was just and lawful, and that she now retired "purely and solely out of a noble and disinterested respect to the preference of the Dominican people for an independent nationality." The Dominican Government utterly refused to subscribe to such a declaration, which, among other evil consequences, would admit by implication that Spain might demand the repayment of what she had expended in her efforts to conquer the republic. In the course of the conferences one of the Dominican commissioners said they could not admit that "the

independence which they had painfully achieved at the cost of long and terrible sacrifices was the gift of any power but God's high grace," and added that "the united Dominican people, without regard to rank or color, had planted the white cross of the republic on the principle enunciated by the Great Mother of free nations, that America belongs to Americans, and we will endure all our trials over again sooner than desert it." Gandara replied that he would enclose the Dominican republic in a fiery ring of ruin and desolation by means of a perpetual blockade, and incessant raids on all its forts and vast towns. Soon after Gandara accepted, however, the propositions submitted by the Government of San Domingo, and the Spanish troops evacuated the whole island.

The administration of the Provisional President, Polanco, was overthrown in January, 1865. In March, General Pimentel, one of the most successful leaders in the war against Spain, was constitutionally elected to the Provisional Presidency of the Republic, which was to terminate three months after the Spanish evacuation. A new *pronunciamento* broke out in the city of San Domingo, on the 4th of August. At a large meeting of the citizens, the further participation of General Pimentel in the administration was repudiated, and General J. M. Cabral was commissioned Protector of the Republic to summon a national convention for the definite arrangement of the public service. General Cabral addressed a letter to General Pimentel, proposing an amicable conference, with the view of mutually arranging all questions at issue. These proposals were not appreciated, but in the mean time all the important towns, including Cibao, acceded to the St. Domingo programme, in consequence of which General Pimentel resigned. General Cabral, on accepting the Presidency, issued a proclamation, assigning that he did so on account of the gravity of the situation, believing it to be his duty to sacrifice himself on the altar of his country. His programme of government he asserted to be comprised in

* Compare ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864.

these words: "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity;" the people to exercise their sovereignty without compulsion, and give themselves to security. In December an election of President was held, which resulted in the success of General Buenaventura Baez, who gave to both Cabral and Pimentel seats in the Cabinet.

SAXE, the name of four German States, one grand-duchy and three duchies. Reigning princes, Grand-duke Karl Albert, of S.-Weimar, born June 24, 1818, succeeded his father July 8, 1853; Duke Bernhard I., of S.-Meiningen, born December 17, 1800, succeeded his father December 24, 1803; Duke Ernst I., of S.-Altenburg, born September 16, 1826, succeeded his father August 8, 1853; Duke Ernst II., of S.-Coburg-Gotha, born June 21, 1844. In each of the four States, the legislative power is vested in a Diet, composed of representatives of the nobility, the towns, and the rural districts. The duchy of Coburg-Gotha has two Diets, one for Coburg and one for Gotha. The statistics of the four States are given in the following table:

	Square Miles.	Population, 1864.	Contingent.
Saxe-Weimar.....	1,421	230,201	3,015
" Meiningen.....	988	173,065	2,110
" Altenburg.....	509	141,889	1,478
" Coburg-Gotha.....	816	164,527	2,046

SAXONY, a kingdom in Germany. King, Johann I., born December 12, 1801; succeeded his brother Friedrich August II., on August 9, 1854. Heir apparent, Albert, born April 23, 1828. The present Constitution dates from September 4, 1831, but has been modified by laws of March 31, 1849; May 5, 1851; November 27, 1860; October 19, 1861. The Parliament consists of two Chambers. The upper Chamber comprises the princes of the royal house, the proprietors of eight baronial domains, twelve deputies of the nobility, ten noblemen appointed by the King, the burgo-master of eight towns, the superintendents and deputies of five collegiate institutions, of the University of Leipsic, and the Roman Catholic Chapter of Bautzen. The lower Chamber consists of deputies, separately chosen by the landed proprietors, the towns, the peasants, besides five representatives of commerce and manufacturing industry. The area of the kingdom is 6,777 square miles. The population, in 1864, was 2,343,994, of whom 2,279,892 were Lutherans, 47,441 Roman Catholics, 5,239 Reformed, 1,708 German Catholics, 357 Anglicans, 599 members of the Greek Church, 1,964 Israelites, 2 Mohammedans. The capital, Dresden, had 145,728, and Leipsic 85,394 inhabitants. The annual revenue is estimated in the "Budget," for the financial period of 1864 to 1866, 13,658,984 thalers; the annual expenditures at 13,648,984. The army numbers 25,396 men. The Government of Saxony, during the years 1864 and 1865, took an active part in German politics, and was, in the Federal Diet, together with Bavaria, the leader of the minor States, in

their opposition against the policy pursued by Austria and Prussia, in the Schleswig-Holstein question.

SCHAUMBURG-LIPPE, a German principality. Prince, Adolf, born August 1, 1817; succeeded his father November 21, 1860. Heir apparent, Prince Georg, born October, 1846. Area, 212 square miles. Population in 1864, 31,382. The Diet is composed of all the noble landed proprietors, four deputies of towns, and six of rural districts. Its functions are merely consultative. The capital, Bückeburg, has 4,204 inhabitants. The annual revenue is about 228,000, thalers. To the Federal army this principality has to furnish a contingent of 516 men.

SCHIMMELFENNIG, ALEXANDER, Brigadier-General U. S. volunteers, born in Germany in 1824; died at Minersville, near Reading, Pennsylvania, September 7, 1865. He was an officer under Kossuth in the Hungarian revolt. At the breaking out of the war he was appointed colonel of a Pennsylvania regiment, and served under General Sigel during the Virginia campaign of General Pope. He was nominated a brigadier-general for his services at Bull Run, in November, 1862, but not being confirmed, was renominated in January, 1863, and confirmed in the March following, his commission being dated back to the first nomination. At Chancellorsville, he commanded the first brigade of General Shurz's division of General Howard's Eleventh Corps, and was at Gettysburg with the same command. In February, 1864, he was sent to St. John's Island, and thence crossed to James Island. General Schimmelfennig's forces were the first to enter Charleston, February 13, 1865, when flanked by General Sherman. For some time he remained in command of the defences of the city, but was finally relieved on account of ill health, the result of his exposure during the war, and, retiring to his home in Pennsylvania, rapidly sank under consumption.

SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN, two duchies, formerly united to the kingdom of Denmark, but made over, by the treaty of Vienna, signed October 30, 1864, to the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia, the King of Denmark "engaging to recognize the arrangement their said Majesties shall make in respect to those duchies." Area and population (according to census of 1864) are as follows:

	Square miles.	Population.
Schleswig.....	3,704	406,436.
Holstein.....	3,255	554,510.

In the "Budget" of the year 1864 to 1865, the revenue for Holstein was fixed at 9,000,750, and that for Schleswig at 6,987,498 marks; the expenditure for Holstein at 5,960,000, and that for Schleswig at 4,974,224. In 1852 the imports into Holstein were valued at 17,193,564 rix dollars, those into Schleswig at 9,804,794; the exports from Holstein at 16,158,904, and those from Schleswig at 4,571,681.

The fate of the two duchies was, throughout

the year 1865, the subject of diplomatic negotiations between Austria and Prussia, but was, at the beginning of the year 1866, still undecided. A small party among the higher nobility declared, in favor of a permanent union of both the duchies with Prussia, while the large majority of the people continued to ask for the recognition of Prince Friedrich of Augustenburg as Duke of Schleswig-Holstein. On January 15th thirty-nine landowners signed at Kiel a resolution (subsequently called "the Kiel Resolution"), in which they pronounced themselves in favor of maintaining the autonomy of the duchies and of fidelity to Prince Friedrich. This resolution was signed by about forty thousand inhabitants of the duchies. The "Kiel Resolution" was, on February 26th, unanimously endorsed by an assembly of delegates of one hundred and sixteen Schleswig-Holstein societies.

Both the people of the duchies and the Prince Augustenburg were willing to make some concessions to Prussia. The central committee of the Schleswig-Holstein societies arrived at a full agreement with regard to this point with the committee of the assembly of German deputies, at a meeting held in Berlin on March 26th, and this agreement was sanctioned by a general assembly of the Schleswig-Holstein societies, held at Rendsburg on April 19th. The Prince Friedrich, in a manifesto (March 31st) addressed to the Government of Prussia, declared himself ready to assent to Rendsburg becoming a Federal fortress, to the cession of territory, to the construction of a canal uniting the German Ocean and the Baltic, and to placing the naval forces under the control of Prussia, but he rejected the entire fusion of the troops of the duchy with the Prussian army, and demanded, as compensation for the concession to be made, a reduction of the expenses of war which the duchies had to pay to the allied Powers.

On August 15, 1865, a convention was concluded between Austria and Prussia, at Gastein, in consequence of which Austria assumed temporarily the administration of Holstein, and Prussia that of Schleswig. (*See GASTEIN CONVENTION.*) Austria, consequently, appointed Field-marshal von Gablenz Governor of Holstein, while Prussia appointed Lieut.-Gen. von Manteuffel Governor of Schleswig. Both Governors entered upon their functions on September 14th.

At an informal meeting of the members of the Holstein Estates, held at Kiel on September 7th, and attended by thirty-one deputies representing the clergy, the towns, and the peasantry, resolutions were passed to send a memorial to the Federal Diet, containing a protest in defence of the ancient rights of the country and against a division of the duchies.

On November 1st the Government of Holstein instructed the police authorities to forbid the editors of newspapers published in the duchy, and all other individuals, to give to any

one titles and denominations appertaining only to sovereigns, and during the provisional state of things, only applicable to the King of Prussia in respect of Schleswig, and the Emperor of Austria in respect of Holstein. At the same time Gen. Gablenz announced to the Prince of Augustenburg that, should his stay in Holstein lead to any demonstration in favor of the Augustenburg claims, his Highness would be immediately expelled from the duchies or placed under arrest.

SCHWARZBURG, the name of two German principalities. Reigning princes, Günther, Prince of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, born September 24, 1801, succeeded his father August 19, 1835; and Günther, Prince of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, born November 6, 1793, succeeded his father April 28, 1807. S.-Sondershausen is an unlimited monarchy, a charter granted in 1849 having again been abolished in 1857. S.-Rudolstadt has, according to the Constitution of 1821 (modified in 1848 and 1854), a Diet, composed of fifteen deputies, elected in equal parts by the nobility, the towns, and the peasants. The area, population, and contingents to the Federal army are as follows:

	Square Mils.	Pop'n., 1864.	Conting't
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	818	66,159	536
Rudolstadt	840	73,752	929

Nearly all the inhabitants profess the Lutheran religion.

SIGOURNEY, Mrs. LYDIA HUNTLEY, an American poet and prose writer, born at Norwich, Conn., September 1, 1791; died at Hartford, Conn., June 10, 1865. While yet a child, Lydia Huntley gave evidence of the possession of poetic talent, writing in verse with more facility than in prose. Having enjoyed the advantages of a superior education in Norwich and Hartford, she engaged for a time in teaching, first in Norwich, and subsequently, at the solicitation of the late Daniel Wadsworth, in Hartford, where she had a select class of young ladies for five or six years. Under the patronage and at the instance of Mr. Wadsworth, her first volume, "Moral Pieces in Prose and Verse," was published in 1815. In 1819 she became the wife of Mr. Charles Sigourney, an eminent merchant of Hartford, a man of high literary and artistic tastes, and from that time Hartford became her home. Without neglecting her domestic duties, which were always performed with great assiduity and system, she found time for literary pursuits, to which she was strongly attached, at first for the gratification of her own tastes, and subsequently, after Mr. Sigourney lost the greater part of his fortune, as a means of adding to her income. Writing with extraordinary facility, both in prose and verse, and having attained a literary reputation, which secured for her books a ready sale, she busied herself at all leisure moments with the labors of composition. Gentle and liberal in her disposition, she performed much of this labor without other

compensation than the grateful acknowledgments of those for whom she toiled: yet a considerable number of her books yielded her a fair income. In her "Letters of Life," a posthumous work, furnished and published by her daughter, she enumerates fifty-six distinct works, wholly or partially from her own pen, and states that, aside from these, she had contributed more than two thousand articles in prose or verse to different periodicals. Her poetry was not of the highest order; it portrayed rather, in graceful and often felicitous language, the emotions and sympathies of the heart, than the higher conceptions of the intellect. There was a strong resemblance between her and Mrs. Hemans in the scope, character, and aims of her poetry. Her prose was graceful and elegant, modelled to a great extent on that of Addison and the Aikins, who, in her youth, were regarded as the standards of polite literature. All her writings were in the interests of a pure morality, and many of them decidedly religious in their character. Among those which have had a more than ephemeral reputation, were, "Letters to Young Ladies," first published in 1833; "Letters to Mothers" (1838); "Pocahontas and other Poems" (1841); "Pleasant Memories of Pleasant Lands;" "Scenes in my Native Land" (1844); "Illustrated Poems" (1848); "The Voice of Flowers" and "The Weeping Willow" (1845 and 1846); "Water Drops" (1847); "Whispers to a Bride," (1849); "Letters to my Pupils" (1851); "Olive Leaves" (1851); "The Faded Hope" (1852); "Sayings of the Little Ones, and Poems for their Mothers" (1854); "Past Meridian" (1854); "Lucy Howard's Journal" (1857); "The Daily Counsellor" (1859); "Gleanings," a volume of Poems (1860); "The Man of Uz and other Poems" (1862). Perhaps no writer in the country was more constantly called upon for occasional poems of all kinds, elegiac, consolatory, congratulatory, for anniversaries, and for public enterprises of all sorts; and her kind disposition led her to accede to these constantly preferred requests, often greatly to her own inconvenience and discomfort.

But it was not simply or mainly by her literary labors that Mrs. Sigourney was or desired to be known. Her whole life was one of active and earnest philanthropy. The poor, the sick, the deaf-mute, the blind, the idiot, the slave, and the convict, were the objects of her constant care and benefaction. Her pensioners were numerous, and not one of them was ever forgotten. In the period of her earlier married life she spared, in order to give; economizing in her own wardrobe and personal luxuries and enjoyments, that she might be able to bestow her gifts upon the needy; and in later life, when her income from her books and other property, all save that which was absolutely needful for home comforts and expenses, was distributed in a wise and well-considered charity. Her character and worth were highly appreciated in the city, which, for more than

fifty years, had been her home: its numerous bells tolled her requiem for an hour at sunset of the day of her death; and when the last sad honors were to be paid to her remains, its citizens came in such throngs as had never before been seen at a funeral service, and among them it was touching to witness the pressure of the thousands on whom she had bestowed her kindly charities, to take one last look of their sainted benefactor.

SOUTH CAROLINA. The invasion of this State by Gen. Sherman, the fall of the capital, Columbia, and other towns, and the evacuation of Charleston, and its occupation by the Federal forces, are stated under **ARMY OPERATIONS**, to which title the reader is referred. The city of Charleston was placed under martial law by Lieut.-Col. Bennett in command, and the advance of Sherman caused all the military force in the State to be collected in front to resist him. No further military operations of importance took place in the State; and when the armies of Lee and Johnston surrendered, the control of the Federal military power was complete. The people were prompt to resume the pursuits of peace, and ready to renew their allegiance to the Federal Government. On May 8th the Confederate Governor of the State, Magrath, issued a proclamation to the civil officers, requiring them to return to Columbia, the capital, and reopen their offices. But on the 15th Gen. Q. A. Gillmore, who was in command of the department, issued another proclamation, forbidding all persons from paying any attention to the orders of Gov. Magrath, or to similar proclamations of the Governors of Georgia and Florida, which States were within his department. He added:

The policy and wishes of the General Government toward the people of these States, and the method which should be pursued by them in resuming or assuming the exercises of their political rights, will doubtless be made known at an early day.

It is deemed sufficient, meanwhile, to announce that the people of the black race are free citizens of the United States; that it is the fixed intention of a wise and beneficent Government to protect them in the enjoyment of their freedom and the fruits of their industry; and that it is the manifest and binding duty of all citizens, whites as well blacks, to make such arrangements and agreements among themselves for compensated labor as shall be mutually advantageous to all parties. Neither idleness nor vagrancy will be tolerated, and the Government will not extend pecuniary aid to any persons, whether white or black, who are unwilling to help themselves.

District and post commanders throughout this department will at once cause this order to be circulated far and wide, by special couriers and otherwise, and will take such steps to secure its enforcement as may by them be deemed necessary.

Federal troops were stationed at various towns of the State to preserve order, and affairs continued in this shape until June 30th, when President Johnson appointed Benjamin F. Perry as Provisional Governor. The proclamation was similar to the one issued on the appointment of the Provisional Governor of Alabama. (See ALABAMA.)

This was followed, on July 31st, by a proclamation from Gov. Perry, which may be summarily stated as follows:

He proclaims that all civil officers in South Carolina, who were in office when the civil government of the State was suspended, in May last (except those arrested or under prosecution for treason), shall, on taking the oath of allegiance prescribed in the President's amnesty proclamation of the 29th day of May, 1865, resume the duties of their offices, and continue to discharge them under the Provisional Government till further appointments are made.

And further, that it is the duty of all loyal citizens to go promptly forward and take the oath of allegiance before some magistrate or military officer of the Federal Government, who may be qualified for administering oaths, and such are authorized to give certified copies thereof to the persons respectively by whom they were made. And such magistrates or officers are hereby required to transmit the originals of such oaths as early as possible to Washington.

And that the managers of elections throughout the State will hold an election for members of a State Convention at their respective precincts, on the first Monday in September next, according to the laws of South Carolina in force before secession, and that each election district in the State shall elect as many members of the Convention as the said district has members of the House of Representatives—the basis of representation being population and taxation. This will give one hundred and twenty-four members to the Convention—a number sufficiently large to represent every portion of the State most fully.

Every loyal citizen who has taken the amnesty oath, and not within the excepted classes in the President's proclamation, will be entitled to vote, provided he was a legal voter under the Constitution as it stood prior to the secession of South Carolina. And all who are within the excepted classes must take the oath and apply for a pardon, in order to entitle them to vote or become members of the Convention.

The members of the Convention thus elected on the first Monday in September next, are hereby required to convene in the city of Columbia on Wednesday, the 13th day of September, 1865, for the purpose of altering and amending the present Constitution of South Carolina, or remodelling and making a new one, which will conform to the great changes which have taken place in the State, and be more in accordance with republican principles and equality of representation.

And that the Constitution and all laws of force in South Carolina prior to the secession of the State, are made of force under the Provisional Government, except wherein they may conflict with the provisions of this proclamation. And the Judges and Chancellors of the State are required to exercise all the powers and perform all the duties which appertain to their respective offices, and especially in criminal cases. It will be expected of the Federal military authorities now in South Carolina, to lend their authority to the civil officers of the Provisional Government, for the purpose of enforcing the laws and preserving the peace and good order of the State.

And further, he calls upon the good and lawful citizens to unite in bringing to justice all disorderly persons who are wandering about without employment or any visible means of supporting themselves.

This was also followed by a proclamation by Gen. Gillmore, announcing the appointment and proclamation of Gov. Perry, and ordering all persons in the military service of the United States to assist the Governor in carrying out the objects of his proclamation, and to abstain from hindering or impeding in any way the Union people of the State from the organization

of a State Government. Provost marshals and their assistants were designated as the only military persons entitled to administer the amnesty oath.

The election for members of the Convention was held on the first Monday of September, and characterized by great propriety and order. The vote in the city of Charleston was about one-third of that usually cast before the war. Citizens well known, and who had been in office before, were elected by an overwhelming majority over those on the "Union" ticket. Of the twenty members elected in the city, only one had been a secessionist before the war; the others had been Unionists or cooperationists.

A conflict between the civil and military authorities had existed from the first appointment of the Provisional Governor. It was finally ended by an understanding between the Governor and the commanding general—by an agreement that in all cases relative to freedmen and persons of color the courts of provost marshals should have exclusive jurisdiction, and that the civil courts should be opened under the provisional Government, and all civil and municipal officers be allowed to resume their official duties without interruption from the military authorities.

On September 18th the Convention assembled in the Baptist church at Columbia, and organized by the election of D. L. Wardlaw as President. Several measures, as preparatory to business, were adopted. Ex-Governor F. Pickens offered the following an ordinance, which was ordered to lie on the table:

We, the Delegates of the People of the State of South Carolina, in General Convention met, do ordain, That the ordinance passed in convention, 20th of December, 1860, withdrawing this State from the Federal Union, be and the same is hereby repealed.

The fortunes of war, together with the proclamations of the President of the United States and the generals in the field commanding, having decided that domestic slavery is abolished; therefore, under the circumstances, we acquiesce in said proclamations, and do hereby ordain implicit obedience to the Constitution of the United States, and all laws made in pursuance thereof.

On the next day Governor Perry sent an address to the Convention. In it he acknowledged the death of slavery, and advised the wise, just, and humane treatment of the freedmen, by which they may become as strongly attached to the whites as while they were slaves. Legislation was required to regulate the relative duties of employer and employé. The Governor suggested changes in the State Constitution, making it more popular and republican in form. It had been the reproach of South Carolina that it was less so than any other State in the Union. He was opposed to extending suffrage to the freedmen in their present ignorant and degraded condition, considering it as little less than folly and madness. He contended that this is a white man's Government and the white man's only; that the Supreme Court had decided that negroes were not citizens, and that each State had the unquestionable right to decide for herself who shall vote.

He suggested the election of Governor, members of Congress and Legislature, and Presidential electors directly by the people, and that the Legislature should be elected and convened in season to order an election for Congressmen before the first Monday of December. The future, he said, will be bright. As long as civilization continues, this great republic will flourish and increase in numbers, wealth, and grandeur, and in less than ten years we shall realize in the loss of slavery a blessing in disguise to ourselves and our children. He notified the Convention of the reestablishment of the civil law and courts.

In relation to the colored troops, he said:

It is a source of congratulation to know that the colored troops, whose atrocious conduct has disgraced the service and filled the public mind with the most horrible apprehensions, have been withdrawn from the interior of the State, and are to be placed in garrisons on the coast, where they can do no further mischief. In all my personal interviews with the President, and in all my despatches to him, I urged this course most earnestly. The white troops are, I believe, doing their duty beneficially to the country, in preserving the peace and good order of the State. It is thought that their presence among us for some time yet will be necessary, in order to enforce the relative duties of the freedmen and their employers.

The Convention was in session fifteen days. In that time it adopted resolutions rescinding the act of secession, abolishing slavery, correcting the parish system of representation, extending to the people further political privileges in the right of elections, and recommending to the Legislature to pass such laws as shall contribute to the interests of the State and of all the States. A new State Constitution was formed and adopted. It declared "all power is originally vested in the people, and all free governments are founded on their authority, and are instituted for their peace, safety, and happiness." With regard to the slaves, it said: "The slaves in South Carolina having been emancipated by the action of the United States authorities, neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall ever be re-established in this State." Representation in the Legislature is placed upon the joint basis of the amount of all taxes raised and the number of white inhabitants in each election district. The taxes are to be assessed on the actual value of property. The *viva voce* vote is substituted in the General Assembly for the suffrage by ballot. The term of the office of Governor is extended to four years. He is to be elected by the people, and possesses a veto and pardoning power. The administration of justice is to be conducted by Superior and Inferior Courts to be organized by the Legislature. An Inferior Court is to be located in each judicial district, and to be specially charged with the trial "of all civil cases wherein one or both of the parties are persons of color, and of all criminal cases wherein the accused is a person of color." The qualification for suffrage is

unchanged, except, as to aliens, no freehold is required.

The question of the competency of the colored race as witnesses, was in a measure considered. The following resolution was offered in the Convention, and referred to a committee:

Resolved, That hereafter colored persons and negroes shall be permitted to testify in all the courts of the State, in all cases where the rights of persons or of property of such persons may be concerned.

The committee reported the following ordinance:

We, the People of the State of South Carolina, by our Delegates in Convention met, do declare and ordain, and it is hereby declared and ordained, That hereafter colored persons shall be permitted to testify in all the courts of this State in all cases where the rights of persons or of property of persons of that class are involved.

A resolution was then offered, that the General Assembly should prescribe such rules of evidence and modes of trial as might be necessary. A debate ensued, in which all were agreed upon the cardinal point that some legislation was necessary to provide for the admissibility of the testimony of the freedmen into the courts, but they differed as to the mode in which such legislation should be effected and the proper time for making it. A special commission of two was appointed to investigate the subject, and report to the Legislature.

The following letter was received by the Provisional Governor from the Secretary of State at Washington:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, Sept. 29, 1865.

To his Excellency B. F. Perry, Provisional Governor of the State of South Carolina, Columbia.

SIR: I have had the honor to receive, and submitted to the President, your letter of August 28th, in which you state, "I desire to be instructed as to my duty after the State Convention of South Carolina shall have formed a State Constitution abolishing slavery and popularizing the organic laws of the State. It is probable that the Convention will provide for the election of members of the Legislature and the election of Governor by the people on the second Monday in October." And in which you solicit answers to the questions: "When these elections have taken place is it my duty to convene this new Legislature as Provisional Governor, or are my functions at an end when the new State Government is organized? How long shall I continue to act as Provisional Governor? Do my functions continue until the State is admitted back into the Union?"

In reply, I have the honor to inform you that the President does not think it now necessary to anticipate events. He will expect you to report proceedings and events as they occur in South Carolina, carefully and freely, for the information of this Government. In any case you will continue to exercise the functions heretofore vested in you by the President until you shall be relieved from that duty by his express orders to that effect.

Congratulating you upon the favorable aspect of events in your State, I have the honor to be your Excellency's obedient servant,

WILLIAM H. SEWARD.

The Convention passed resolutions approving of the measures of President Johnson, and appointed a committee to visit the President relative to granting amnesty to Jefferson Davis,

Governor Magrath, and Mr. Trenholm, and adjourned.

In October an election was accordingly held for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, and members of both houses of the Legislature. The candidates for Governor were James L. Orr and Wade Hampton. The total vote, the first ever given in the State for a Governor, was 18,885, of which Mr. Orr's majority was 667.

The Legislature assembled at Columbia on October 25th, and the Provisional Governor addressed a message to them. He said, that although his appointment was made several months after that of the other Provisional Governors, South Carolina was then as far advanced in the plan of reconstruction as any other State. By restoring those who were in civil office at the suspension of the civil government, he greatly expedited the reconstruction. This measure was objected to by the military authorities, but he was sustained by President Johnson.

He alluded to the new Constitution as popular and democratic, inspiring the people with more zeal and energy in developing the talent and resources of the State. He recommended fostering internal improvements, commerce, and manufactures, and the encouragement of foreign immigration. The State should not be dependent, as heretofore, on the Western States for horses, mules, cattle, hogs, bacon, lard, and beef, nor on the Northern States for furniture, agricultural implements, and clothes. They should raise, grow, and make every thing themselves. Now that slavery was abolished, labor was made more honorable, as well as more necessary.

Immediate provision must be made for the protection by Government of the freedmen. This is expected by the President and Congress, and such measures should be adopted as to remove all pretext for military rule.

The electors for President and Vice-President of the United States should be chosen by the people. An early day should be fixed for the election of members of Congress. Should those members elected be in Washington, with their credentials, when the clerk calls the roll, they cannot be excluded any more than those from Massachusetts. No man in South Carolina can take the test oath without perjury. It is not the policy of the President to enforce this, and he believes it will not be the policy of Congress.

He recommended the issuing of State bonds, selling them to pay the State debt, so as to avoid the present taxation. The reorganization of the militia is urged, the Secretary of State at Washington having given assurances that as soon as the State government is organized, all the troops will be withdrawn. He recommended also the reestablishment of the South Carolina College on the university system, and the reopening of the Citadel Academy for cadets. He opposed any act looking to a repudiation of the State debt. In conclusion, he asked them to look only to the future and not to the past.

A question soon arose in the Legislature as to the legality of any acts which they might pass. The Constitution required all bills to be signed by the Governor if he approved them, before they could become laws. But in this case there was no Governor to sign the bills. A special committee, to whom the consideration of the difficulty was referred, reported that, in their opinion, "it is competent for the General Assembly to consider and pass bills which may be submitted to the Constitutional Governor after he is qualified."

On the 27th the two commissioners appointed under the authority of the State Convention, to prepare and report to the Legislature what laws were rendered necessary and proper in consequence of the alterations in the state of affairs, made their report. The topics treated of were the domestic relations of persons of color, including those of husband and wife, parent and child, guardian and ward, and master and apprentice, the contracts for service, the regulations of labor on farms, the rights of the employer as between himself and his servant, the causes of discharge of a servant, the rights of the employer as to third persons, the rights of the servant as between himself and employer, the rights of servants as to third persons, the duties and obligations of house servants and others not in husbandry, the forms of contract, the rights and duties of mechanics, artisans, and shopkeepers, the eviction of servants, and the regulations for paupers, vagrancy, and idleness. Bills preliminary to the legislation induced by the emancipation of slaves, to establish district courts, and to amend the criminal law, accompanied the report. The commissioners were D. L. Wardlaw and Armistead Burt. The matter of the report became the subject of much debate at a later period of the session.

On the 7th the Provisional Governor sent the House the following message containing a correspondence with the authorities at Washington:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT OF SOUTH CAROLINA, }
November 7, 1865. }

To the Honorable the Senate and
House of Representatives:

GENTLEMEN: I had the honor of receiving from the President of the United States the following telegraphic despatch on the 28th October last:

To B. F. Perry, Provisional Governor of South Carolina:
Your last two despatches have been received, and the pardons suggested have been ordered.

I hope that your Legislature will have no hesitation in adopting the amendment to the Constitution of the United States abolishing slavery. It will set an example which will no doubt be followed by the other States, and place South Carolina in a most favorable attitude before the nation. I trust in God that it will be done. The nation and the State will then be left free and untrammelled to take that course which sound policy, wisdom, and humanity may suggest.

(Signed) ANDREW JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

Three days afterwards I received the following telegram from the President, dated

WASHINGTON, October 31, 1865.

To Benjamin F. Perry, Provisional Governor:

There is a deep interest felt as to what course the Legislature will take in regard to the adoption of the amendment to the Constitution of the United States abolishing slavery, and

the assumption of the debt created to aid in the rebellion against the Government of the United States. If the action of the Convention were in good faith, why hesitate in making it a part of the Constitution of the United States? I trust in God that the restoration of the Union will not be defeated, and all that has been so far well done thrown away. I still have faith that all will come out right yet. This opportunity ought to be understood and appreciated by the people of the Southern States. If I know my own heart and every passion which enters it, it is my desire to restore the blessings of the Union, and to heal every bleeding wound which has been caused by this fratricidal war. Let us be guided by love and wisdom from on high, and Union and peace will once more reign throughout the land.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

To these telegraphic despatches I replied that the war debt of South Carolina was very inconsiderable; that our whole State debt, at this time, was only about six million dollars. That this debt was mostly incurred anterior to the war, in constructing railroads and building a new State House, with an old debt of long standing. That we had assumed no portion of the Confederate debt, and were responsible in no way for it. The expenditures which the State had incurred up to a certain period had all been settled and refunded by the Confederate States.

I stated that South Carolina had abolished slavery in good faith, and never intended or wished to restore it; that the Legislature was then considering a wise, just, and humane system of laws for the government and protection of the freedmen in all their rights of person and property, and that there was no objection to the adoption of the proposed amendment to the Federal Constitution, except an apprehension that Congress might, under the second section of that amendment, claim the right to legislate for the negro after slavery was abolished. I likewise stated that no official notice had ever been received by the Legislature of the proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

In reply to this despatch I received yesterday the following telegram from the Secretary of State, dated

WASHINGTON, November 5, 1865.

To his Excellency B. F. Perry, Provisional Governor:

Your despatch to the President, of November 4th, has been received. He is not entirely satisfied with the explanation it contains. He deems necessary the passage of adequate ordinances declaring all insurrectionary proceedings in the State unlawful and void *ab initio*.

Neither the Constitution nor laws direct official information to the States of amendments to the Constitution submitted by Congress. Notice of the amendment by Congress abolishing slavery was, nevertheless, sent by the Secretary of State at the time to the States which were then in communication with this Government. Formal notice will immediately be given to those States which were then in insurrection.

The objection which you mention to the last clause of the constitutional amendment is regarded as querulous and unreasonable, because that clause is really restraining in its effects, instead of enlarging the power of Congress.

The President considers the acceptance of the amendment by South Carolina as indispensable to a restoration of her relations with the other States of the Union.

(Signed)

WM. H. SEWARD.

This formal notice of the proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States has not yet been received. When it is, I will communicate the same to you. The amendment may be seen in the Acts of the last Congress, and is in these words:

"Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

"SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this Article by appropriate legislation." (Approved, February 1, 1865.)

A few days since I addressed a communication to Mr. Seward, Secretary of State, by mail, in which I repeated and enlarged on the views previously expressed to the President in reference to the objections which were entertained in South Carolina to

the proposed constitutional amendment. I am happy to find that the Secretary of State does not regard those objections as well-founded, but considers them "querulous and unreasonable." It is true that a plain, honest construction of the language of the amendment would be that slavery was abolished in the United States, and that Congress should simply enforce it. When this was done their legislation would be ended. They could not attempt under the authority given by this amendment to pass laws for the government of the freedmen in their free state. The Attorney-General of the United States and the President have both been understood as concurring in this opinion. It would, therefore, be well, in adopting the proposed amendment, to place on record the construction which had been given it by the Executive Department of the Federal Government.

It is manifest from the earnest, eloquent, and patriotic terms in which the President has urged the adoption of this amendment, that he regards, as he says, "all that South Carolina has done, and so well done, as thrown away, unless the amendment is accepted by the Legislature."

The Secretary of State is still more explicit in his language. He says: "The President considers the acceptance of the amendment by South Carolina as indispensable to a restoration of her relations with the other States of the Union." The reason why this exaction is made of the Southern States, after they have abolished slavery, is, that they might, otherwise, at some future day, change their Constitution and restore slavery in defiance of the Federal Government. You, gentlemen, have, at this time, the destiny of the State in your hands, and I feel assured that you will act calmly and dispassionately with a view to the peace, happiness, and well-being of South Carolina.

I addressed a communication to the Secretary of the Treasury at Washington a few days since, urging that in case the Legislature should assume the payment of that portion of the direct tax for which South Carolina is liable, that the Federal Government should receive her bonds for the same, or suspend the collection of the tax for the present year. I would advise the immediate assumption by the State of her portion of the direct tax, which is about three hundred and sixty-six thousand dollars. This will relieve the people from the immediate payment of it to the Federal tax collectors, and enable the State to make some arrangement in reference to it with the Treasury Department or Congress.

In my communication to the Secretary of State I urged the propriety of withdrawing the colored troops from the interior of the State to the forts on the sea-coast, and requested that white troops might for the present be retained in Charleston, Georgetown, and Beaufort.

I have forwarded the resolution you sent me the other day, in reference to the school-houses in Charleston, to Gen. Howard, and asked that they might be restored to the proper authorities. I made the same request in regard to the Military Hall in Charleston.

(Signed)

B. F. PERRY.

Again, on the 13th, the Provisional Governor sent a message to the Legislature, with a copy of the amendment of the Federal Constitution. The message was as follows:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, SOUTH CAROLINA, {
Nov. 13, 1865. }

*To the Honorable the Senate and House
of Representatives:*

GENTLEMEN: I have the honor of communicating to you the promised notice of the Secretary of State of the United States of the proposed amendment to the Federal Constitution abolishing slavery.

In the last message which I had the honor of sending you, I gave copies of the several communications which had passed between the President and the

Secretary of State and myself on this subject. You will remember that the construction to which this proposed amendment of the Federal Constitution was liable, and which made it objectionable to South Carolina, was entirely repudiated by the Secretary of State. I stated, too, in that message that the President and the Attorney-General of the United States were understood as concurring in the construction given to the second section of the amendment by the Secretary of State. I know that it will give you the greatest pleasure imaginable to do all that you can consistent with your honor and duty to the State to restore her once more to self-government and civil liberty, to peace and harmony, and to happiness and prosperity in the Union of States.

There can hardly be a doubt that this amendment will be adopted by three-fourths of the States, although you should refuse to accept it, and will become a part of the Federal Constitution. This consideration alone should lessen very much your responsibility in acceding to it, on the part of South Carolina, whilst it increases very much the evil and danger in rejecting it to the State.

In respect to what I have said in my last message to you, the destiny of the State is in your hands for woe or for weal, and I have an abiding confidence in your judgment and wisdom, and in your honor and patriotism.

I would remind you also of all that President Johnson has so nobly done for the Southern States, and that it is he who appeals to South Carolina in the name of God "not to throw away all that has so far been well done and defeat the restoration of the Union," but to be "guided by love and wisdom from on high, and Union and peace will once more reign through the land." B. F. PERRY.

The resolutions by which the constitutional amendment was adopted were as follows:

Resolved, therefore, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the General Assembly of the State of South Carolina, in General Assembly met, and by the authority of the same, That the aforesaid proposed amendment of the Constitution of the United States be and the same is hereby accepted, adopted, and ratified by this State.

Resolved, That a certified copy of the foregoing preamble and resolution be forwarded by his Excellency, the Provisional Governor, to the President of the United States, and also to the Secretary of State of the United States.

Resolved, That any attempt by Congress toward legislating upon the political status of former slaves or their civil relations, would be contrary to the Constitution of the United States as it now is, or as it would be altered by the proposed amendment; in conflict with the policy of the President declared in his Amnesty Proclamation, and with the restoration of that harmony upon which depends the vital interests of the American Union.

These were passed in the Senate by a vote nearly unanimous, and in the House by yeas 74, nays 28.

The Legislature appointed a day for the election of members of Congress, made some progress in the adoption of the measures reported by the commissioners, and adjourned from the 18th to the 25th of November. The following dispatch was sent by the President relative to the presence of the members of Congress at Washington:

WASHINGTON, Nov. 27, 1865.

To B. F. Perry, Provisional Governor:

I do not think it necessary for the members elect for South Carolina to be present at the organization of Congress. On the contrary, it will be better policy to present their certificates of election after the

two Houses have organized, which will then be a simple question, under the Constitution, of the members taking their seats. Each House must judge for itself the election returns and qualifications of its own members. As to what the two Houses will do in reference to the oath, now required to be taken before the members can take their seats, is unknown to me; and I do not like to predict. But, upon the whole, I am of opinion it would be better for the question to come up and be disposed of after the two Houses have been organized. I hope that your Legislature will adopt a code in reference to free persons of color that will be acceptable to the country, at the same time doing justice to the white and colored population.

ANDREW JOHNSON, President.

The Legislature, after a short recess, reassembled on November 25th. Soon after meeting, the Provisional Governor sent a message to both Houses. He stated that he had been ordered to remain in authority until otherwise directed from Washington, but he should recognize the Governor elect and make his communications through him. The English bondholders had proposed "that the whole of the arrears and the dividends to January, 1867, inclusive, should be funded into a bonded debt, carrying the same rate of interest as the bonds or stocks on which the arrears have accrued; that a sinking fund shall be established (accumulative) of two per cent. per annum, which on a five per cent. stock will pay off the debt in twenty-five and three-quarter years, and on a six per cent. stock in twenty-four years.

He further stated that the bonds of the South Carolina Railroad, amounting to \$2,000,000, endorsed by the State, would fall due in January, and no provision had been made for their payment. The early inauguration of the new Governor was urged, that he might sign the commissions of members of Congress elect. On the 29th, the Provisional Governor, in a farewell address, took leave of the Legislature, and Governor Orr was inaugurated. In his address, the newly-elected Governor said:

The war has decided, first: That one or more of the States of the Federal Union have not the right, at will, to secede therefrom. The doctrine of secession, which was held to be orthodox in the State Rights school of politics, is now exploded for any practical purpose. The theory of absolute sovereignty of a State of the Federal Union (from whence was derived the right to secede), which was believed almost universally to be a sound constitutional construction, must also be materially modified to conform to this imposing decision. In all the powers granted in the Constitution to the Federal Government, it is supreme and sovereign, and must be obeyed and respected accordingly. Where the rights of a State are disregarded, or unconstitutional acts done by any department of the Federal Government, redress can no longer be sought by interposing the sovereignty of the State, either for nullification or secession; but the remedy is by petition or remonstrance; by reason, which sooner or later will overtake justice; by an appeal to the supreme judicial power of the Union; or by revolution, which, if unsuccessful, is treason.

The decision was far more imposing and obligatory than if it had been pronounced by the Supreme Court of the United States. Had it been tried there, an effort to reverse it might have been made, because its members and opinions often change. But the

God of Battles has pronounced an irreversible judgment, after a long, desperate, and sanguinary struggle, and it would be neither politic nor patriotic ever again to invoke a new trial of the fearful issue.

The clemency which President Johnson has so generously extended to many of our citizens, in granting full and free pardon for participation in the late revolution, does honor to his statesmanship and to his sense of justice. He is the ruling power of a great and triumphant Government, and by his policy will attach by cords stronger than "triple steel" the citizens of one entire section of the Union to that Government which he has so long and so ably supported and maintained. He was well acquainted with the South—with her politics and politicians, and knew, however erroneous in his judgment may have been their political principles, that they honestly entertained the sentiments which they professed, and for which they perilled their all; and after failing in their end, when they proposed to return to their loyalty, that humanity and policy dictated that they should not be hunted down for ignominious punishment.

I shall give his policy of reconstruction an earnest and zealous support.

The war decided, second: That slavery should be totally and absolutely exterminated in all the States of the Union. The Convention of this State, with singular unanimity and promptness, accepted the result of the issue made, and declared in the fundamental law "that slaves having been emancipated by the action of the United States authorities, slavery should never be reestablished in this State."

The Legislature elected two Judges of the Court of Appeals, D. L. Wardlaw and John A. Inglis. The most important acts during the remainder of the session, of general interest, related to the public debt and to the freedmen. A communication from the Provisional Governor, through Gov. Orr, to the Legislature, stated that he had received two weeks previous a despatch from Secretary Seward, in the following words: "Upon reflection, South Carolina would not care to come again into the councils of the Union encumbered and clogged with debts and obligations which had been assumed in her name in a vain attempt to subvert it. The President trusts that she will lose no time in making an effective organic declaration disavowing all debts and obligations made or assumed in her name or behalf in aid of the rebellion. The President awaits further events in South Carolina with deep interest." In reply, the Provisional Governor said that it was impracticable to make any such organic declaration, as the State Convention had been dissolved after having done all that the President had requested to be done; that the war debt was a very small one, and could not be separated from the ordinary current expenses of the State; that South Carolina had been refunded by the Confederate States a large portion of her expenditures on account of the war; and that no one in the State had any right to complain of being taxed to pay this debt, as they were all guilty in incurring it. He further said that the estates of widows and orphans had been invested in this debt, as the safest investment which could be made for them, and that it would now be great injustice to this innocent and helpless class to disavow the debt.

Mr. Seward replied that while the objections were of a serious nature, the President could not refrain from awaiting with interest an official expression upon the subject. The Legislature referred the matter to a committee, who reported in favor of the appointment of a special committee to investigate, ascertain, and report at the next session. The Legislature also passed resolutions endorsing President Johnson's reconstruction policy, and further declaring that "all opposition to the General Government had permanently ceased in this State." The total debt of the State was \$6,668,080, redeemable at various periods.

But the great concern of the State at this time was the accommodation of labor to its agricultural interests. For this purpose it intrusted to a commission of two the duty of suggesting a code to the Legislature at this session. This commission made an extended report, as has been stated, for the regulation of labor and the protection and government of colored persons. Although the subject was largely discussed, final action was not taken during the sessions of the year. Some of the more important provisions of the report possess considerable interest. Persons of color are thereby defined to be all free negroes, mulattoes, mestizoes, freedmen and freedwomen, and their descendants through either sex. Those, however, who may have seven-eighths or more of Caucasian blood are deemed and declared to be white persons.

The rights and remedies respecting persons or property, and the duties and liabilities under the law, whether civil or criminal, which apply to white persons, are extended to persons of color, except where modified by the regulations instituted.

The first subject treated of is the relation of husband and wife. This relation is fully established and recognized. The evidence of its existence is declared to be cohabitation and reputation, or acknowledgment by the respective parties. Those who now live as such are held to be in legal marriage. Hereafter this which the law regards as a civil contract is required to be duly solemnized, either by a minister of the Gospel, the District Judge, a magistrate, or any other judicial officer.

All children heretofore born are declared to be legitimate.

The following are incompetent to contract marriage: males under twenty-one, and females under eighteen years of age, those who are paupers or a charge to the public, and apprentices or persons bound to labor or service by contract, until the expiration of such apprenticeship or term of service or labor.

The husband is forbidden under any pretext to abandon his wife; and in case he shall so do or fails to maintain her and his children, he shall, upon sufficient proof, be bound to service by the District Judge, from year to year, and the profits of his labor applied to their maintenance. Such an abandonment renders the

wife competent to engage for service and to have all the rights of an unmarried woman, except the right to recontract marriage. In case there should be two or more reputed husbands or wives, the parties are required to select, and the ceremony of marriage is to be performed.

The father is to support all of his children, whether they be born of one of his reputed wives, or of any other woman.

To regulate the relations of master and apprentice, the report provided that a child over two years of age may be bound by the parent, until, if a male, he shall obtain the age of twenty-one years, and if a female, eighteen years of age. If the child has neither father nor mother living in the district, or if the parents are paupers, that is, upon the public bounty, or unable to afford a comfortable maintenance, or vagrants, or convicts for infamous offences, or of such notoriously bad character that the child is in danger of moral contamination, then he or she may be bound by the District Judge or one of the magistrates. Males over the age of twelve years and females over the age of ten years must give their assent by signing the indentures.

The obligation of apprenticeship is not only to be under seal, and signed by the master, the parent and apprentice, if of consenting years, and attested by two credible witnesses, but in order to prevent imposition and wrong, is to be approved by the District Judge or magistrate.

The legal and moral duties that arise, are that during the term of indenture the person to whom he is bound, is to teach the apprentice the business of husbandry or some specified useful trade or profession; to furnish food and suitable clothing; to instruct in habits of industry, honesty, and morality, and to treat with humanity and discretion.

This relation may be dissolved by the death of the master, by an habitual violation or neglect of the duties imposed on him, or where, by his vicious conduct, the apprentice is in danger of moral contamination.

In all cases of alleged infringement of duty, or of misconduct on the part of master or apprentice, the matters in issue are to be decided upon reference to a magistrate.

It is also inserted that the master shall have authority to inflict moderate chastisement and impose reasonable restraint upon his apprentice; but this is a principle of law which prevails in the State, in reference to every case of apprenticeship; and which generally exists wherever this relation is established.

Against any attempted abuse of this power, the most stringent and ample provision is made; for it is declared that "in cases in which the District Judge shall" order the apprentice to be discharged for immoderate correction or unlawful restraint, the master shall be liable to indictment, and on conviction to fine and imprisonment within the discretion of the court, and also to an action for damages by the apprentice.

At the expiration of the term of service, the apprentice shall be entitled to receive a sum of not exceeding sixty dollars.

The provisions relating to contracts for service reported, were that all contracts for more than one week are required, in order to avoid uncertainty and confusion, to be in writing, to be duly attested before witnesses, and within twenty days of their execution to be submitted to and approved of by the Judge of the District Court, or one of the magistrates. Unless these requisites are complied with, the contract is not binding upon the servant. Where no term of service is expressed, it shall be until the 25th of December of the year in which it is made. Where no rate of wages is specified, on the application of either party, with notice to the other, the District Judge or magistrate decides what shall be a fair and just compensation.

The following colored persons are competent to contract for one year's service or labor: all who have no parent living in the district and are over ten years of age, and those who are not apprentices. Of course those who are minors contract through their parents if in the district, and those who are apprentices have already made engagements for the learning some art or trade. These contracts may be set aside whenever fraud or unfairness is exhibited, that is, whenever advantage has been taken.

The employer is compelled by law to perform his obligations, for whenever he neglects or evades his contract, he is declared guilty of a misdemeanor and liable to penalties upon conviction.

The hours of labor, in cases of husbandry, are fixed from sunrise to sunset, with proper intervals for meals and refreshment. The duties of those employed are, to give their attention to the property intrusted to their care, to protect it from injury, to be responsible for all losses occurring through their negligence, dishonesty, or bad faith, to be quiet and orderly in their quarters, to reside on the premises, to retire at reasonable hours, to remain at night on the farm and not to absent themselves without the written permission of the employer, to obey all lawful orders, to be honest and faithful, to be civil in deportment and diligent in business.

No work is to be exacted of them at night or in inclement weather, except in cases of absolute necessity. They are not to be kept at home on Sundays, except to take care of the premises, or under circumstances of emergency, and then such labor is to be performed in turn.

The master is bound in duty to protect his servant from violence and to assist him in obtaining redress for injury to his rights of person or property. The servant assumes the corresponding obligation of aiding his master in the defence of his person and premises.

The wages due the servant are preferred to all other debts, except the funeral expenses; nor is his contract ended with the death of the master, except with his express assent. On the expiration of the term of service, the master

is bound to give the character of one who has been in his service to any person who may make inquiry, and in case he shall wilfully and falsely represent it to be otherwise than it really is, either for moral qualities or for skill or experience in any employment, he shall be liable to an action for damages, to the party aggrieved. The master may discharge the servant on the ensuing grounds—the wilful disobedience of lawful orders; habitual negligence or indolence in business; drunkenness; gross moral or legal misconduct, and habitual want of respect or civility to himself, family, guests, or agents; but if the servant is wrongfully discharged from his service, he shall recover wages for the whole period of service according to the contract, whether or not his wages have been paid to the period of his discharge.

The servant is justified in departing the service and dissolving the contract for an insufficient supply of wholesome food, for an unauthorized battery upon his own person, or one of his family, for habitual drunkenness of the master, for invasion of his conjugal rights, for violent and menacing conduct, and for failure to pay wages when due. He is entitled to a certificate of his character at the termination of the contract.

So also provisions are made for those who are employed as house servants. Regulations are likewise created for the support and care of paupers, for the suppression of vagrancy and idleness, for the establishment of district courts, and of enabling all within the limits of the State to have some lawful and respectable employment, and to possess a fair, honest, and respectable livelihood.

The criminal law is carefully revised and placed in plain and intelligent language. On the subject of testimony it is declared that "in every case, civil or criminal, in which a person of color is a party, or which affects his person or property, persons of color shall be competent witnesses; and in every case either party may offer testimony as to his own character or that of his adversary, all parties to suits being allowed to give evidence."

In May the Chief Justice of the United States, Mr. Chase, being in Charleston, addressed an assemblage of freedmen. In allusion to the elective franchise for them, he said:

Major Delany has said that he heard me say in the hall of the House of Representatives at Washington, that I knew no reason why the hand that laid down the bayonet might not take up the ballot. If he had listened to me twenty years ago, in the city of Cincinnati, he might have heard me say substantially the same thing. But the colored man did not get the elective franchise because I said it then. Quite possibly he may not now. Certainly, however, events have progressed remarkably in that direction. If everybody in this city saw things exactly as I see them, if they felt as I feel, that it would be desirable, on account of the general interests, that every man should have the same rights before the law in the elective franchise as in every thing else, it would come to you very soon. But there is not that agreement. Having nothing to do with politics, I am not prepared to say what will be the action of the Govern-

ment. I am no longer in its counsels, and therefore do not know what it is prepared to do. I will only say this: I believe there is not a member of the Government who would not be pleased to see universal suffrage.

But I am not ready to say that the Government will now establish universal suffrage. This I do not know. If you are patient, and constantly show by your acts that you merit the right of suffrage, then you can be safely trusted with it. That in your hands it will be on the side of order and liberty and education, reasoning upon general principles, I can safely say you will get the elective franchise in a very short period. I trust it will not find you unprepared. But respect yourselves and respect the rights of all, and do your very best to show that you are, each and all of you, worthy to have it. You cannot get it by threats and misbehavior. You can get it by patience and perseverance in well-doing.

A State Convention of the delegates of the colored people was held in November, at which an address was issued to the white people of the State. The object of the Convention is stated to have been "to confer together and to deliberate upon our intellectual, moral, industrial, civil, and political condition, particularly as affected by the great changes in the State and country," etc. The following is an extract from the address:

We ask for no special privileges, or peculiar favors. We ask only for even-handed justice—for the removal of such positive obstructions and disabilities as past and recent legislation has thrown in our way and heaped upon us. Without any just cause or provocation on our part, we, by the action of your Convention and Legislature, have, with few exceptions, been virtually excluded—

1. From the rights of citizenship, which you cheerfully accord to strangers, notwithstanding we have been born and reared in your midst, and were faithful while your greatest trials were upon you, and have done nothing since which could justly merit your disapprobation.

2. We are denied the right of giving our testimony in the courts of the State, in consequence of which our persons and property are subject, the former to every species of violence and insult, and the latter to fraud and spoliation without redress.

3. We are also, by the present laws, not only denied the right of citizenship—the inestimable right of choosing who shall rule over us in the land of our birth, but by the so-called "Black Code" we are deprived of the rights which are vouchsafed to the lowest white profligate in the country—the right to engage in any legitimate business save under such unjust restraints as are imposed on no other class of people in the State.

4. You have, by legislative action, placed barriers in the way of our improvement in the arts and sciences. You have given us little or no encouragement to engage in agricultural pursuits, by refusing to sell us lands, while you are organizing societies to bring foreigners into the country, the clear intent of which is to thrust us out, or reduce us to a serfdom intolerable to us, and, as you will find in the end, ruinous to your own prosperity.

5. Your public journals wickedly charge us with destroying the products of the country since we have been made free, when they know that the country, and the products thereof, were destroyed by a desolating war of four years, in which we had no hand. How unjust to charge upon the innocent and helpless the very crimes which yourselves have committed, and which brought down ruin upon your own heads!

* This refers to a license or certificate that the mechanic has duly served an apprenticeship.

6. We simply ask that we shall be recognized as men; that there be no obstructions placed in our way; that the same laws which govern white men shall govern black men; that we have the right of trial by a jury of our peers; that schools be established for the education of colored children as well as white, and that the advantages of both colors shall, in this respect, be equal; that no impediments be put in the way of our acquiring homesteads for ourselves and our people; that, in short, we be dealt with as others are—in equity and justice.

7. We claim that we deserve the confidence and good will of all classes of men. We ask that the same opportunities be extended to us that freemen have a right to demand at the hands of their fellow-citizens. We desire the growth and prosperity of this State, and the well-being of all men, and we would be found ever struggling to elevate ourselves and add to the glory of the national character. We trust that the day is not far distant when you will acknowledge that our progress in social, intellectual, moral, and religious development entitles us to the highest commendation and respect, and that we shall be worthy to occupy, with the best in the land, positions of trust and power; when we shall realize the great truth that "all men are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights," and that, although complexions may differ, "a man's a man for a' that."

Signed per order, and in behalf of the Convention,
THOMAS M. HOLMES, President.
JOHN C. DES VERNET, Secretary.

In the regulation of the internal affairs of the State the local militia were early organized as a police force, as in the other Southern States. On December 25th the Provisional Governor was relieved, and the authority in the State restored to the officers elected by the people. The Governor thus responded to these orders from Washington:

COLUMBIA, S. C., December 23, 1865.

The Legislature adjourned yesterday at noon. Gov. Perry has returned to his home in Greenville. Your despatch has been forwarded to him by mail.

It will be very gratifying to the people of South Carolina that her Government has been intrusted to officers of their own selection. In their name I thank you for the tender of coöperation of the Government of the United States when found necessary in effecting the early restoration and permanent prosperity and welfare of the State.

You may be assured of my unalterable purpose to aid in upholding the supremacy of the laws of the United States, and in advancing the honor, interest, and prosperity of a common country.

JAMES L. ORR, Governor of South Carolina.

On April 14th, the evacuation of Fort Sumter on the same day, four years previous, was celebrated by raising the same flag on the fort by Maj.-Gen. Anderson in presence of other officers of the army, and many of the clergy of New York and Brooklyn.

The following petition, indicating the degree of interest felt in the welfare of Jefferson Davis, was sent to President Johnson:

ABBEVILLE, August 23, 1865.

Hon. Andrew Johnson, President of the United States: We, the undersigned, ladies of Abbeville District, South Carolina, respectfully exhibit to your Excellency our desire to intercede in behalf of Mr. Jefferson Davis, the President of the late Confederate States. We have heard with much satisfaction that petitions of a like nature have been addressed to your Excellency from other portions of the country, and we entertain the hope that these united appeals for

mercy will not fall unheeded upon the ears of your Excellency.

In any event, it will be grateful to us to have thus testified our feelings for one whose faults, in our judgment at least, have not been past forgiveness. Called from the retirement of his home to a position which he did not solicit, but which his manhood forbade him to decline; illustrating by his conduct the highest devotion to principles, which were maintained with marked unanimity by his people; temperate in the hours of triumph, dignified and calm in the days of defeat, always just, always generous, always brave, we see in his conduct every thing to evoke sympathy, and nothing to merit the extreme punishment with which he is threatened. The same firmness and calm views of policy which, on repeated occasions, he displayed in resisting the cries which, in his region, were raised for sanguinary retaliation, we hope will now be exhibited, in disregard of the unfeeling agitation which seeks his life. We hope there will be a merciful remembrance of his poor wife, plundered and insulted after being torn away from his prison, and of his young children, whose prospects in life have been so terribly blighted.

Impelled by the feelings of our nature—which are ever excited by the misfortunes of the brave and the good, which have in all ages characterized our sex, which moved the Marys to be the last at the cross and the first at the grave—we earnestly beseech your Excellency to exercise, in behalf of Mr. Davis, all Executive clemency.

Grant our petition, and, besides finding in your own breast the reward which attends every virtuous deed, we sincerely believe that you may expect increase of your own renown, and of the honorable character which forms the strength of your country. For ourselves we will say, we will hold in grateful remembrance this act of generosity to the unfortunate, and will teach our children "to rise up and call you blessed."

SPAIN, a kingdom in Europe. Queen, Isabella II., born October 10, 1830; succeeded her father on September 29, 1833. Her apparent, Alfonso, Prince of Asturias, born November 28, 1857. The area of Spain (inclusive of the Balearic and Canary Islands) is 182,758 square miles. The population (inclusive of the above islands and of the Spanish population in Tetuan, on the coast of Africa) was estimated, in 1864, at 16,301,851. The Spanish dominions in America contain 1,032,062 inhabitants; those in Asia and Oceania, 2,679,500; those in Africa, 17,071. In the "Budget" of the financial year 1865 (July 1st) to 1866 the expenditures were estimated at 2,747,832,370 reals; the ordinary receipts at 2,186,983,330, and the extraordinary receipts at 562,376,960 reals.* The public debt, on March 1, 1865, amounted to 16,892,747,190 reals. The army numbered, in 1863, 234,261 men. The navy, at the close of 1864, consisted of 118 armed vessels, of 1,298 cannon.

The imports, in 1862, were valued at 1,679,812,703, and the exports at 1,110,532,270 reals. The merchant navy, in 1863, consisted of 4,859 vessels, carrying a burden of 395,270 tons.

Minister of the United States in Madrid, John P. Hale, appointed in 1865; Spanish minister in Washington, Gabriel Garcia y Tassara, appointed in 1865.

* One hundred reals are equal to \$4.83.

The movement of shipping, in 1862, was as follows:

FLAG.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Spanish.....	5,280	587,768	4,817	509,869
Foreign.....	5,504	1,086,400	4,811	948,771
Total.....	10,784	1,644,168	9,128	1,458,670
Coasting trade.....	58,670	2,900,259	59,071	2,767,464

The Cortes, which had been opened in December, 1864, adopted (March, 1865) a new law abolishing the seizure of journals, and the necessity of naming a responsible editor, and of furnishing caution money. Though less stringent than its predecessor, the new law did not satisfy the Liberal party, and a protest against it was signed by the editors of twenty-two Madrid journals. A proposal for electoral reform, brought forward with the object of terminating the withdrawal of the Progressists from political action, was opposed by the Government, and rejected by 160 against 105 votes.

On February 20th Marshal Narvaez read a bill, drawn up at the instance of the Queen, and offering the immense property forming the royal patrimony, with the exception of the royal residences and the estates entailed upon the crown of Spain, for sale for the benefit of the nation. The bill provides that seventy-five per cent. of the proceeds go to the public treasury, and twenty-five per cent. to the royal treasury, the purchase money of these estates being payable in four instalments. The bill was received with enthusiasm, and the Chamber unanimously agreed to a proposal for an address expressive of gratitude to the Queen. A committee was formed to draw up the address immediately. The sale was estimated to produce 600,000,000 reals. The whole Chamber, accompanied by the committee, went to the place to present the address to the Queen, expressing the gratitude of the country for the proposed sale of the royal property.

From April 8th to 10th, Madrid was in a state of great excitement. A demonstration of the students of the University, who intended to serenade the rector whom the Government had dismissed, called forth an interference of troops, who killed and wounded a number of persons. The greater part of the Madrid newspapers, viz., the "Iberia," "Nacion," "Bolsa," "Democracia," "Discusion," "Razon," "Española," "Reino," "Patria," "Contemporaneo," and "Novedades," described the events in colors most unfavorable to the Government, maintaining that the disturbance was altogether the work of *agents provocateurs* to gain political capital for the ministry. The majority of the Cortes, being adherents of the ministry, did not, however, hold the latter responsible for bloodshed.

In June a military conspiracy was discovered at Valencia. The authors of the plot were the colonel and officers of the regiment of Barce-

lona, garrisoned in the town. In the night of the 9th the captain-general of the province of Valencia, whose suspicions had been raised for some days, surprised at midnight the colonel, some officers, and several sergeants of the Bourbon regiment, assembled together at the barracks, and had them arrested. In the Chamber of Deputies it was explained on the part of the Government that information had been received from various quarters that Gen. Prim had intended to head the insurrection, and that therefore he had been ordered by the Government to return to Spain.

On June 19th Marshal Narvaez tendered his resignation as President of the Council, and on June 21st a new ministry was formed, composed as follows: President of Council and Minister of War, Marshal O'Donnell; Foreign Affairs, Señor Bermudez Castro; Interior, Señor Posada Herrera; Public Works, Señor Armijo; Colonies, Señor Canovas; Marine, Señor Zavala; Finance, Señor Alonso Martinez; Justice, Señor Fernando Calderon Collantes. On June 23d Marshal O'Donnell delivered a speech in the Cortes, defining the policy of his administration. The Government, he said, had decided upon recognizing the kingdom of Italy, and in preserving amicable relations with foreign powers. With regard to the home policy, Marshal O'Donnell announced the general amnesty for offences against the printing law, and stated that the ministry would shortly bring forward an electoral law, diminishing the qualification for the suffrage, and establishing elections by provinces, according to the law of 1837, and also a new and very liberal printing law. The rector and professors of the Madrid University, who were dismissed some time ago, would be restored to their posts. The electoral law proposed by the Government was adopted by both Chambers; in the House of Deputies by 171 votes against 27. The new law lowers the electoral franchise so as nearly to quadruple the number of electors, particularly in the great cities. The total number of electors according to the new law is about 800,000; in the city of Madrid, 85,000. The clergy have about 40,000 votes.

A new election of a Chamber of Deputies took place in November. The majority of the Progressist party and of the Democrats again decided to take no part in the election. The only notable exception among the leaders was Señor Madoz, who presented himself as candidate at Barcelona, and was elected. Altogether about 217,000 voted at the election. Of the successful candidates, 4 belong to the Progressistas; 20 to the "Neo-Catholics" (Ultramontanes, Absolutists); 30 to the "Moderados" (of whom Narvaez is the chief); the others (about 300) to the "Liberal Union" (Ministerial party).

The Progressistas defined their position by a manifesto issued on November 26th, in which they demanded the following reforms: Individual civil and religious liberty; great reductions

in the public expenditure; the abolition of the united duties and the reform of the customs tariff; decentralization and independence for the municipalities and provinces; equality before the law; the modification of the conscription laws; the extension of laws prevailing in Spain to Spanish possessions beyond the seas; liberty of the press and liberty of conscience; the complete secularization of education; and the constitution of 1856 as the basis for a constitutional monarchy which would command approval at home and esteem abroad. Gen. Espartero (now in his 75th year) gave his adhesion to this manifesto, emphatically declaring: "The committee may know that it can count upon my arm and my heart to defend these worthies and the constitutional throne." A part of the Progressist party were reported to be favorable to a change of the dynasty, and a union of Spain and Portugal into a new Kingdom of "Iberia," under the King of Portugal. This question was, together with other points of difference, the subject of a violent controversy between two Progressist papers, the *Iberia* and the *Soberania Nacional*, the *Iberia* declaring that it desired the realization of its principles, whoever might be the reigning monarch, and accusing the *Soberania* of wishing, before any thing else, to change the dynasty.

On September 22d disturbances took place at Saragossa, originating in the refusal of the peasants to pay the octroi upon provisions entering the city, demanding first the reduction of the tax, and subsequently, its total abolition. The demonstration became more serious on October 2d and 3d. On the latter of these days, the Captain-General of Valencia, Don Juan Zapatero, ordered the troops to fire upon the rioters, when order was reestablished. According to a report from the Progressist committee, six of the people were killed, and eighteen wounded. The disturbances were once more renewed on October 6th, but again speedily suppressed.

In December a new democratic and military conspiracy was discovered in Malaga, but the Government succeeded in preventing an outbreak.

In January, 1865, the ministry of Narvaez proposed to the Cortes the abandonment of the possession of San Domingo. The bill introduced by the Government was adopted in both houses, in the Senate by 93 votes against 89, in the House of Deputies by 155 against 68; and in May a royal decree announced the abandonment. (See SAN DOMINGO.)

The war with Peru was terminated in January, but followed in September by another against Chili, which in January, 1866, was again joined by Peru. (See CHILI and PERU.) In November (1865), the Spanish Minister for Foreign Affairs addressed a circular note to the representatives of Spain at foreign courts, relative to the war with Chili, approving the conduct of Admiral Pareja, and stating that the reply of the Chilian Government to the over-

tures of the Spanish admiral precluded the possibility of any further negotiations, even under the mediation of the diplomatic body at Valparaiso. The note renews the assurance that Spain does not aspire to the conquest of the South American republics, but declares that she will not permit her dignity to be outraged without exacting satisfaction.

The relations between Spain and the United States continued to be of a friendly character. On receiving the news of the assassination of President Lincoln, the Council of Ministers decided upon expressing to the United States Government the feeling of horror produced in Spain by this event and the attempt upon the life of Mr. Seward. Similar resolutions were unanimously passed by the Senate and the House of Deputies.

One of the chief features of the foreign policy of Spain, in 1865, was the recognition of the Kingdom of Italy. Marshal O'Donnell, when assuming the presidency of the ministry, announced the recognition of Italy as a chief point in his programme. Nearly all the bishops, including Father Claret (Bishop of Trajanapolis in *partibus*), the confessor of the Queen, entered a solemn protest against this measure, and Cardinal Puente, Archbishop of Burgos, resigned his office as ecclesiastical preceptor of the Prince of Asturias. The Government, however, remained firm, appointed a Spanish minister to Florence, and received an Italian minister at Madrid. The protests of some of the bishops were referred by the Government to the Council of State.

On December 27th the Queen opened in person the new Cortes. She announced the commencement of hostilities between Chili and Spain, the conclusion of a treaty recognizing the independence of San Salvador, and the recognition of Italy. Referring to the financial difficulties, the Queen spoke of the necessity of increasing certain taxes, and reducing the expenditures, in order to balance the expenditures with the revenue. Bills would also be laid before the Cortes, tending to promote municipal liberty, and for the prevention of the slave trade in the Antilles.

SUEZ, CANAL OF.* On August 15, 1865, a boat laden with coal passed through the ship-canal of Suez from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea, thus, for the first time, opening communication between the two seas. The canal thus opened is the small, or fresh-water one, and as yet small boats drawing less than six feet, can pass. At a general meeting of the shareholders of the Suez Canal Company in 1865, M. de Lesseps stated that the company had still an available capital of 180,000,000 francs; that the small canal, for navigation, would even next year have an amount of traffic lucrative to the company, and useful to commerce. The Grand Canal, he said, would be terminated in 1868.

* See ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864, p. 2; and ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1868, pp. 524, 527.

The following is a statement of the progress of the works of the Suez Canal up to the end of 1865, made by Mr. Lange :

The western jetty at Port Said has advanced considerably, and now forms part of the isolated island, thus forming an uninterrupted pier of 4,800 feet long, with a depth of from nine to sixteen feet, the result of dredging operations. The number of vessels which have discharged their cargoes at this new town of Port Said, five years ago a blank and dismal waste, is 2,087. This includes all the vessels registered up to the 1st of July, 1865, and their cargoes being chiefly materials and provisions for carrying out this great work, it will be readily seen with what unabated vigor it is being pushed forward. All along the maritime canal the greatest activity prevails. Nor are the accessory fresh-water canals, meanwhile, neglected. At the end of December 80,000 Egyptian workmen were busy excavating the line of fresh-water canal between Bulbeis and Abassie. I ought to mention that this portion of the work is being completed by the Viceroy of Egypt, under the superintendence of the company's engineers. In clearing away the heaps of earth beneath which the rocks of Chalouf, in the Desert, have been buried for ages, our men discovered a quantity of marine shells. Remains of fish, and more particularly of the shark tribe, have also been brought to light. These highly interesting specimens have been carefully collected, and may materially aid geologists in determining the phases in the formation of the isthmus between the two seas. It is generally known that a passage between them has been effected, and that it is the intention of the Canal Company to throw it open to the commerce of all nations. Of course, for the present, and until we have obtained a depth of twenty-six feet, and a width proportionate to that depth, only the smaller class of vessels will be able to take advantage of the opening, and the Mediterranean ports may find their commercial geographical positions suddenly changed, and brought almost face to face with countries now the most remote from them.

SWEDEN and NORWAY, two kingdoms in Northern Europe, united under one king. Present King, Charles XV., born May 8, 1826; succeeded his father on July 8, 1859. Area of Sweden and Norway, 292,440 square miles. Population of Sweden, in 1863, 2,364,122; of Norway, in 1855, 1,490,047. The budget for the financial period from January 1, 1864, to December 31, 1866, estimates the ordinary annual revenue at 82,909,500 rix dollars; the extraordinary revenue at 35,558,360; ordinary expenditures, 81,250,000; extraordinary, 85,704,686. The public debt of Sweden, on December 31, 1863, amounted to 52,186,680 rix dollars. In the Norwegian budget for the period from April 1, 1863, to March 31, 1866, the annual revenue and expenditures are fixed at 4,770,000 (Norwegian) dollars each. The public debt was, in 1859, 7,651,800 dollars. The Swedish army consists of 124,807 men; and that of Norway of 85,115 (inclusive of 15,604 landwehr).

The value of imports and exports was, in 1863, as follows: Sweden, imports, 96,627,000 rix dollars; exports, 92,524,000. Norway, imports, 19,354,000; exports, 14,947,000 dollars.

The movement of shipping in the same year was as follows :

FLAG.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Lasts.	Vessels.	Lasts.
Sweden.....	6,876	165,598	7,929	349,637
Norway.....	12,094	573,439	11,938	568,768
Total.....	18,470	744,087	19,911	918,455

The Swedish merchant navy, in 1863, consisted of 3,236 vessels, of an aggregate burden of 86,404 lasts; and that of Norway of 5,621 vessels, of an aggregate burden of 301,778 lasts.

The year 1865 is memorable in the history of Sweden, on account of the radical change effected in the Swedish Constitution. According to the old Constitution, the Diet consisted of four Chambers or Estates, namely, those of Nobles, of the Clergy, of Citizens (Burghers), and of Peasants. The chief provisions of the new reform bill introduced by the Government are the following :

"The Rigsdag is in future to consist of two Chambers only, which are to meet every year on the 15th of January, and cannot be dissolved until after they have sat four months. When the Parliament is dissolved, another must be convoked within a period of three months after such dissolution. The members of the first Chamber are elected for nine years, and are 119 in number, or in the proportion of one member for every 30,000 inhabitants. Their qualifications are a minimum age of thirty years, and a landed estate of 80,000 rix dollars, or an income of 4,000 rix dollars. They are to receive no pay. The members of the second Chamber are elected for three years, and are divided into town and country deputies, of whom the former are in the proportion of one to every 10,000 of the population, and the latter in that of one to every 40,000. There will thus be 50 of the former and 180 of the latter. These members are to be paid at the rate of 1,200 rix dollars for the ordinary session, and 10 rix dollars a day for the extraordinary ones. A bill which is not passed in both houses may not again be brought forward in the same session, and if the budget is rejected in either house the votes of the two houses together are to be taken, and the majority is to decide. A superintendent and a deputy superintendent of the judges and officials are to be elected by the Parliament, and also, every three years, six learned men for the purpose of securing the proper employment of the liberty of the press. The privileges of the nobility and clergy are maintained, and cannot be altered without the consent of those classes."

The Chambers of Peasants and Citizens passed the bill on December 4th. In the Chamber of Nobles a determined opposition was made to it, but chiefly owing to the influence of the Government, it was, on December 7th, passed by 361 against 294 votes. On December 8th the Chamber of Clergy unanimously adopted it. The adoption of the bill was received with demonstrations of great joy both in Sweden and Norway.

SWIFT, brevet Brig.-Gen. JOSEPH GARDINER, an American general, and civil and military engineer, born in Nantucket, Mass., December 31, 1783; died at Geneva, N. Y., July 23, 1865. Gen. Swift was the son of Dr. Foster Swift, a surgeon in the army, who died at New London, Conn., in 1835. He entered the army as a cadet at Newport, R. I., in 1800, and two years later became the first graduate of the Military Academy at West Point. He was then appointed second lieutenant in the U. S. corps of military engineers, and in 1807, having attained the rank of captain of engineers, he was appointed to the command of West Point. In February, 1812, he was chosen military agent for Fort Johnson, and succeeded to the rank of colonel and principal engineer the following summer. In 1812-'13 he was chief engineer in planning the defences of New York harbor, and of the army in the campaign of 1813 on the St. Lawrence River. February 19, 1814, he was brevetted brigadier-General for "meritorious services," and appointed Superintendent of the Military Academy November 16, 1814, holding that position only to the following January. He resigned November 12, 1818, and held the appointment of U. S. Surveyor of the port of New York from that year to 1827. From 1829 to 1845 he was a civil engineer in the United States service, superintending the harbor improvements on the lakes, and removed to Geneva, N. Y., where he resided until his death. In the winter of 1830-'31 he constructed the railroad from New Orleans to Lake Pontchartrain, through an almost impenetrable swamp, susceptible of neither draining nor piling, being, it is believed, the first railroad in the United States provided with an iron T rail. In 1838 Gen. Swift was chief engineer of the Harlem Railroad in New York, and in 1841 was honored by President Harrison with a mission to the British Provinces, with reference to a treaty of peace with Great Britain. In 1851 and 1852, with his son, McRay Swift, he made the tour of Europe. He has contributed many valuable papers to scientific journals on the exact and natural sciences and their practical applications.

SWINE, DISEASE OF (TRICHINOSIS OR TRICHINIASIS), a disease produced in swine by a parasite which infests their muscular tissues, and which may produce in the human subject who has partaken of the diseased flesh serious disease, and in some cases death. This parasite, *Trichina spiralis*, is not the only one which infests the intestines or flesh of the swine. The measles in pork are produced by the presence of the *Tenia solium* or tape-worm in its encysted stage. This measly pork being eaten by man, the encysted scolex or head set free attaches itself to the human intestines, and develops into that terrible pest, the tape-worm. Joints or sections of this passing from the bowels are eaten by swine, and thus reproduce the parasite.

The *Trichina spiralis* does not belong to this

highly organized and complex order of cestoides or encysted worms, but to the lower and simpler order Nematodea or round worms, of which the ascarides or pin-worms, and the oxyurides, are familiar examples. Trichinous pork contains the young worms either free or coiled up and enclosed in capsules within the muscular tissue, according to the length of time they have remained there. In shape they resemble the adult, but are smaller and sexually immature. Unless previously destroyed by cooking or other process, when the muscle containing the encysted worms is eaten, they pass the stomach uninjured and escape from their capsules if encysted by the digestion of the cyst. In the intestinal canal they grow rapidly, and become mature in a few days. Impregnation immediately follows, and the young begin to leave the female within a week, in the form of minute transparent worms. They may continue to escape for weeks, and in immense numbers. They bore at once into the intestinal cells, and penetrate to nearly all parts of the muscular system. They feed upon the muscular tissue, and after an indefinite period coil themselves up and are enclosed in a sac, which in time becomes cretaceous. In this quiescent stage they may remain alive for years, and after the death of their host may become mature in turn by entering the intestinal canal of some other animal.

The symptoms caused by their presence vary according to the number eaten and the stage of development. At first nausea, loss of appetite, and intestinal irritation. Afterwards debility, fever, œdema of the face, movements of limbs, pain, and sensitiveness of muscles on pressure. Lastly, great inflammation of intestines, with bloody stools, increased muscular pains, partial paralysis of muscles of deglutition, speech, and respiration, and finally death from exhaustion. If only a small quantity of the trichinous pork be eaten, the symptoms will be mild, and in all cases they will disappear when the worms have become quiescent or encysted in the muscular tissue.

The capsule, sac, or cyst, which encloses the trichina in the muscle, varies in size. The largest are about $\frac{3}{8}$ th of an inch long and $\frac{1}{16}$ th of an inch broad; it tapers at each end, and is usually, though not always, prolonged at each extremity into a very fine thread-like appendage. The fully developed trichina is a round worm $\frac{1}{8}$ th of an inch in length, and $\frac{1}{16}$ th of an inch in thickness, and is usually found coiled upon itself. The young, which penetrate the intestines and seek their feeding-ground in the muscles, are much smaller, but very active. The number of these animals is sometimes astonishing. In a cubic inch of ham the number has been estimated at 85,000. We give below (Fig. 1) a section of muscular tissue with trichinæ encapsuled, as seen by the naked eye; and (Fig. 2) a portion of the same with the encapsuled trichinæ magnified fifty diameters.

The female brings forth from sixty to one

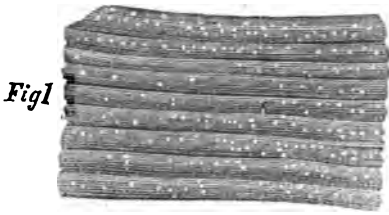


Fig1

hundred live trichinae, and the process is repeated twice or three times during the lifetime

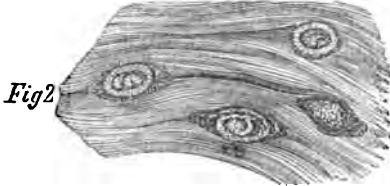


Fig2

of these trichinae, a period probably of from two to three weeks. It is said by careful observers that the female worm gives birth to from two to three hundred young. The parent parasites never leave the stomach and alimentary canal. Fig. 3 represents the full-grown male and female trichinae, magnified two hundred diameters.

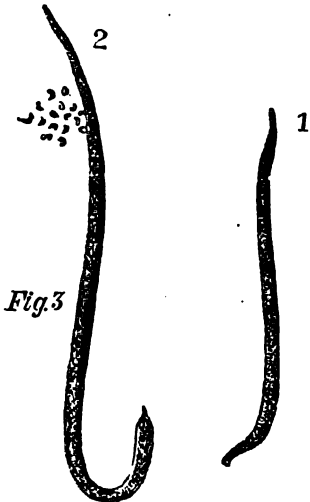


Fig.3

1. Full-grown male trichinae. 2. Full-grown female, in the act of extruding the young *alivae*—magnified two hundred diameters.

Figure 4 represents the trichinae in a free state, magnified fifty diameters.

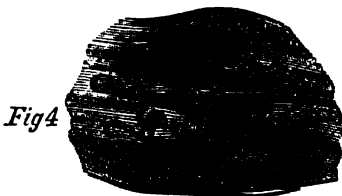


Fig4

Figure 5 represents them elaborating their capsules, also magnified fifty diameters. They



Fig5

avoid the brain, lungs, and liver, and in only a single instance has one been found in the substance of the heart. Their perforation of the stomach and bowels often gives rise to acute diarrhoea and dysenteric symptoms, and where they attack the serous membranes lining the abdominal walls, symptoms of peritonitis are added. This inflammation of the serous membrane, if it does not prove fatal, leaves the intestines firmly glued together. The muscles of the chest and anterior portion of the neck, and those of the back and extremities, are those in which they seem to find their most congenial resting-place. It is somewhat remarkable that children suffer much less than adults from the incursions of these parasites, and in their case they seldom prove fatal, while among adults from twenty-five to seventy-five per cent. of those attacked die. The muscles upon which this animal has fed become useless in proportion to the number of ultimate fibres which are destroyed. When it is remembered that a single ounce of flesh may contain trichinae enough to produce in eight days 3,000,000 young, it is not surprising that the entire substance of the abdominal muscles should be sometimes found consumed.

The history of the discovery of this parasite is interesting as exhibiting the carefulness and thoroughness of scientific research. About the year 1832 several English physicians noticed in lean flesh a minute yellowish white granule, which is the adventitious shell enclosing the worm. These Hilton, an English anatomist, supposed to be animals; but the zoologist Owen was the first who described and named the worm itself—*Trichina spiralis*. This was in 1835. Precisely as the yolk and white of a hen's egg are not visible through the shell which contains them, so with the trichinae. It is frequently from one-third to one-half a line long, measured when its body is uncoiled; but, from its transparency, it cannot with the naked eye be recognized as having the structure of an animal. This, however, can readily be seen under a lens of fifty or sixty diameters. A number of observers have found this animal in the persons of natives of England, France, Germany, Denmark, and North America. The diseases it occasions, and the deaths owing to its presence in the flesh of human beings, have for years engaged the attention of the medical men of Germany, and have at several periods alarmed the people of that country. The epidemic of this disease which recently occurred

in Hedersleben is similar to several epidemics, or groups of cases of the disease, which have occurred since the year 1859. They arise from the penetration into, and lodgment in, various parts of the living human body, particularly the muscles, of the young trichinæ.

The history of the investigations of the last ten years, of the life of the animal, and the characteristics of its career, comprises the accounts of a number of observers who undertook to ascertain both its natural history and the consequences of its becoming an inmate of the human body. In 1860 Prof. Virchow, of Berlin, conducted a series of experiments with the trichinæ (consisting of feeding the meat which contained them to certain animals, under careful observation), by which he acquired all that we know of the mode and consequences of their introduction into the living body. The infestation of the human body has as yet only been found to occur from eating the flesh of the pig. But the trichinæ have been found in other animals usually regarded as strictly herbivorous, as moles, etc. Special investigations have, however, proved that these animals consume smaller animals, as field-mice, ground-worms, etc., and hence are flesh-eaters—being in this respect like rats, mice, etc. Other animals, such as rabbits, may be infested by feeding them the flesh containing trichinæ, but nevertheless the only flesh man consumes which contains the trichinæ, in the order of nature, is that of the pig.

In the year 1863 there was a wide-spread fear, derived from the opinion of various writers, that the meat of plant-feeding animals may contain the trichinæ, and the authorities of Merse announced that beef was not exempt from trichinæ, but as yet it is doubtful if *trichinæ have ever been observed in beef*; and even if, as supposed, the trichinæ disease was contracted from eating it, if it was obtained from the same butcher who sold pork containing trichinæ, it must be ascertained whether the beef had not become infested by lying in contact with the pork. So far as scientific investigation teaches us, neither in beef nor mutton have trichinæ been found.

From the fact that small, round worms, similar to trichinæ, exist in the muscles of the eel and frog, various authors have supposed them to be far more general in their distribution than Virchow and Leuckhardt assert. The rain-worm was asserted by Laugenbach to contain trichinæ, and the pig was supposed to become infested from devouring these; but careful investigation showed that the microscopic worm which infested the ground-worm was that long known as *Acaris minutissima*. Again, Schachte has stated that some vegetables, and especially the root of the sugar-beet, contained trichinæ, but although oxen fed upon bad beets have sickened and died in numbers, the trichinæ have never been found in their flesh, as before stated. We repeat that, so far as ascertained, the pig's flesh is the only flesh man consumes

which contains trichinæ. How, then, does the pig become infested? The supposition that they have their genesis in his body, and are not taken in his food, is totally inadmissible. Researches show that there is every probability that the pig neither derives the trichinæ from the animals nor vegetables he devours, but from the fecal matters he consumes. Hence, it is probable that at all times particular, individual pigs have been affected, and that refuse matter from the bowels of whoever may have consumed his flesh may have been consumed by other pigs, and the disease thus spread and involved a large number of people. Most of the epidemics of trichinæ disease have occurred in Saxony, where the pigs are fed in styes. It is very probable that pigs may infect pigs, for the contents of the intestines of one which contains pregnant trichinæ may be eaten when expelled by another pig. We may consider it established, therefore, that, in the common course of affairs, trichinæ can only be found in the carnivora. For we have seen that the intestinal trichinæ produce living young which migrate into the flesh and then attain their further development. They cannot leave the meat in any other way than after it has been eaten, and this regular progression from the intestine into the muscles, and from the muscles into the intestine, is only possible in meat-eaters. This order of the infestation may be here stated under three cardinal points:

1. The eaten trichinæ remain in the intestines unless expelled by purgation, and never enter the muscles.
2. They produce living young, which enter the muscles.
3. The young which have entered the muscles grow there, but do not multiply.

The chances of injury to the meat-eater are in proportion to the number which enter the intestines, and the danger is in the production of young by the intestinal trichinæ.

Recently, Dr. Perry, a physician of Brooklyn, L. I., who has been engaged for some years in sanitary investigations, stated to the Metropolitan Board of Health of New York that trichinæ have been found in the beef of the cows fed on swill at the distillery stables on Long Island. He states that the pigs fed on the swill and kept in filthy styes are largely trichinous, and that the rats which are very numerous in these stables and styes become filled with trichinæ; the cows devour the excretions of the rats with the swill, and thus take the disease. This seems reasonable, and it is not impossible that, though ordinarily graminivorous animals are not subject to the disease, these swill-fed cows may be exceptions.

The first cases of death from trichiniasis, of which we have positive proof, though doubtless thousands may have occurred before attention was called to it, took place in 1815. The history of these cases is curious and interesting. In the summer of 1863 an elderly person was being operated on for a tumor of the neck by a

German surgeon. During the operation the bared muscles were observed to be abundantly supplied with the characteristic shells or cysts of trichinæ. The patient related, in reply to a question whether he had ever been very sick, that in the year 1815, with the other six members of a commission for the inspection of schools, he ate a meal of ham, sausage, cheese, etc., at an inn. All who ate of these provisions soon after fell sick and died, except the relator himself. Suspicion fell upon the inn-keeper. A judicial investigation was held, but without result—precisely as it would be now if we had not that knowledge of the trichinæ we possess. And in this case the survivor might have gone to his death and yet nothing have ever been known, in his particular case, of the infestation by trichinæ, which had proved fatal to his six associates, had it not been for the knowledge science had furnished many years after that fatal meal was eaten.

In June, 1851, in the neighborhood of Hamburg, several well persons having eaten ham, fell sick. Three of them died, and others were long in a critical state. A judicial investigation was held without satisfaction. Ham poisoning was supposed, but long afterwards it was shown that the symptoms and other circumstances pertaining to the sickness and death of these people, were precisely similar with those subsequently ascertained to be trichinæ infestation.

We come now to the occurrence of epidemics of this disease. Zenker first observed such an epidemic in and near Dresden, and showed the trichinæ found in the ham and sausage made from one particular pig. This pig had been butchered on a farm near Dresden. The butcher and owner of the farm, and other people, had fallen sick, and a previously perfectly healthy servant-girl had died. In her body an abundance of trichinæ were found. With the finding of the trichinæ in the muscles of her body, Virchow commenced a series of experimental observations. These may be briefly stated. A rabbit fed with trichina-flesh from this girl died in a month, and its flesh was found full of them. Some of this flesh was given to a second rabbit, which also died in a month. With this meat three other rabbits were fed. Two of these died at the end of three weeks, and the third in the fourth week. Lastly, the flesh of these animals dead of trichinæ was fed to another rabbit. It ate but very little, yet died at the end of six weeks. In all of these the muscles, after death, were found filled with trichinæ, and even in the smallest particle of the meat several were found. It is to be observed that trichinæ had never been found in these animals unless they had been previously fed with the trichinæ-containing meat. Their living flesh was examined before they were fed, and no trichinæ were found in them; yet a few weeks after they were fed with the meat, the muscles of the same animals were found filled with trichinæ.

In the district of Magdeburg the cases of this

disease spread over a period of four years. Since the year 1859, a whole series of epidemics of this disease have been observed. They occurred at Plauen, Calbe-on-Saale, Quedlinburg, Burg near Magdeburg, Weimar, and Hettstadt near Eisleben, and other places.

In 1861 a woman was admitted to the Altona hospital with a cancer of the breast of twelve years' standing, which was removed, and, strange to say, on microscopic inspection, found to contain a considerable number of trichinæ. This led to an inquiry which gave the following information: In 1856 she was residing in the city of Davenport, Iowa, with her brother, and taken suddenly ill with gastric and rheumatic symptoms, together with oedema and partial paralysis. Convalescence was very protracted, and she never recovered the free use of her fingers at the piano. Her brother was attacked with similar symptoms at the same time, but they were much less severe. After her death at the hospital in 1864, many of the muscles were found to contain encysted trichinæ, the capsules being very cretaceous. Portions of this tissue were given to a cat which was kept in confinement, and after its death, on the sixteenth day, its muscular system was found crowded with free trichinæ of various sizes, all within the enlarged tubes of the sarcolemma. There seems to be no doubt that this was a case in which the trichinæ remained alive seven or eight years, and were capable of reproducing the disease after this long hybernation. Virchow relates another case still more remarkable, where the worms were living after thirteen and a half years, and on being removed from their cretaceous prisons, moved actively when placed in the sun, and were found capable of reproduction within the intestinal canal of a rabbit. As to the period at which the capsules are formed within the sarcolemma, or when the cretaceous formation begins, nothing definite is known.

The symptoms, progress, and the terrible fatality of the disease, are well exemplified in the history of the Hettstadt tragedy, which is taken from a British medical journal.

This village is situated near the Hartz Mountains, in Germany. An annual festival was celebrated there some two years since, and one hundred and three persons sat down to a dinner, the third course consisting of *rostensurste* and *gemuse* (sausage and vegetables). The sausage had been prepared beforehand for this special occasion. The steward who had been commissioned to furnish the pig for this purpose, gave the butcher a lean, ill-conditioned one, instead of the thrifty one which had been bargained for. The day after the festival, several persons who had participated in the dinner were attacked with pain and irritation of the intestines, with loss of appetite, fever, and great prostration. The number increased from day to day, and an epidemic of typhus or septic fever was apprehended, as the symptoms began to assume that character. However, as the disease progressed, the symptoms assumed a different type, and to diarrhoea, dysentery, and fever, were added peritonitis, circumscribed pneumonia, and paralysis of the abdominal and intercostal muscles with those of the neck. Then the typhus theory was abandoned, and

some unknown poison was assumed to be at the bottom of it. Under this conviction, every article of food and material used in connection with the dinner was rigidly examined. By this time the trichinæ had reached the muscles of the calf of the leg in some of the victims, and Zenker's description of the disease was called to mind. The remnants of the sausage were examined, and found to be literally "swarming" with trichinæ. Portions of muscle from the calf of the leg of the affected ones were examined under the microscope, and were found literally full of *free* trichinæ. These were the progeny of the *encapsuled* ones which had escaped the smoking and frying process to which the sausage had been subjected.

No less than eighty-three of the above-mentioned number died within a few weeks, and the surviving twenty, at last accounts, were still lingering in agony, and apprehensive of a similar fate.

This awful catastrophe at Hettstadt awakened sympathy and fear throughout all Germany, and many eminent medical men were consulted in the interest of the sufferers, but none could bring relief or cure. With an obstinacy unsurpassed by any other disease, trichiniasis surely carried its victims to the grave.

Many *vermifuges* were employed, with the hope of removing the parasites still in the alimentary canal. Picric acid was employed, until its effects seemed as dangerous as the disease itself. An examination of the bodies after death showed the trichinæ to have been unaffected by any of the remedies employed. The terrible conviction now fastened itself upon the minds of all who witnessed these scenes, that a person afflicted with this parasite was doomed to die the slow death of exhaustion from nervous irritation, fever, and paralysis of all the voluntary muscles.

Since the Hettstadt tragedy the public mind in Germany has had little rest from apprehension of this terrible scourge. A wholesale poisoning soon after occurred in Offenbach, a manufacturing town in Hesse-Darmstadt. Upwards of twenty persons were poisoned by eating trichinous pork, several of whom have died. But Hettstadt, with its tragedy and appalling concomitants, is eclipsed by the late visitation at Hedersleben, another German village, where three hundred inhabitants partook of trichinous pork, and at this writing full one hundred are in their graves. The butcher slaughtered four pigs, which were sold to the villagers. The butcher and his wife, partaking of the same meat, became themselves the earliest victims. A very injudicious custom seems to have obtained in this village, as well as in many other parts of Germany, namely: that of eating pork in a raw state, cut fine and spread upon bread. Although the scenes at Hettstadt were still fresh in the public mind, and the very uniform character which the symptoms always present was well understood by the medical profession generally, yet the people, through fear and ignorance, fled from what they believed to be a visitation of *cholera*. The consequences can easily be imagined. Many were seized with the disease, and died on the highways. The irritation of the stomach, vomiting, and diarrhœa, might well be taken for the premonitory symptoms of the above disease by the mass of the people. Indeed, the village doctor was himself misled, as he treated the sufferers with opium and astringents. This treatment was evidently

intended to control the diarrhœa; but it proved fatal to the patients, by confining the parasites in the stomach and alimentary canal until they had an opportunity to pierce through the walls. Out of twenty-eight persons treated in this manner, twenty-seven died. One very remarkable fact has been noted in connection with the epidemic at Hedersleben, namely: that as yet no *children* have died of the disease, all having made a good recovery.

We have already seen that one of the German cases originated in this country, but it is not till recently that we have had any well-authenticated cases of death occurring from the disease in this country, though the encapsuled trichinæ have often been found in the muscles after death, by physicians who were conducting autopsies.

In the "American Medical Times" of February 20, 1864, a case is reported by Dr. Schnetter, in which a whole family was poisoned by eating trichinous pork. The father was the only one in whom the poison proved fatal. This case occurred in New York city. The Buffalo "Medical Journal" contains the account of two fatal cases occurring in the western part of the State. A man and his wife, residing in the village of Cheektowaga, Chautauqua County, N. Y., were found to be affected by an "apparently acute rheumatism, of a peculiar character." Dr. Krombein, the attending physician, suspected trichinæ, and the patients having shortly after died, a microscopic examination was instituted by Drs. Krombein and Homberger, which demonstrated the existence of the parasite in great numbers. The specimens of muscle taken from the bodies of the dead, together with a remnant of the sausages of which they had partaken, were subsequently examined by Dr. J. Lathrop and Professor George Hadley, under the microscope, and trichinæ found in both. In the human muscle they were *free*; in the sausage, encysted. Other members of the family were affected, but probably did not eat enough to prove fatal.

Dr. Dingler reports two cases in Marietta, Ohio, and Dr. Herman Keifer, of Detroit, Michigan, gives in the "Detroit Medical Review" a very marked case in a young German woman, twenty-one years of age, which proved fatal about four weeks from the first attack. It is by no means impossible that the mysterious disease at Willard's Hotel, Washington, may have arisen from this cause.

The number of swine affected by this disease is probably very small. In Brunswick, Germany, out of twenty thousand swine examined, but two were found to be trichinous; but as we have seen, the flesh of a single hog affected by this disease has caused the death of one hundred persons. A recent examination made by a committee of the Scientific Academy of Chicago of swine slaughtered in that city, developed the fact that out of 1,394 animals examined, encysted trichinæ were found in twenty-eight, or nearly two per cent. of the

whole number. As the swine slaughtered at Chicago are, for the most part, brought from the country, where they have been fed on corn, mast, and other wholesome food, it is hardly probable that those slaughtered in other cities would show a smaller proportion. There exists in Germany a habit, occasionally practised here, of eating portions of lean pig's flesh (ham or sausages) uncooked, with bread. There is great danger in this, for the only preventive of infestation by those who will eat swine's flesh, consists in having it well and thoroughly cooked. Ham is more generally affected than any other portion of the carcass of the swine, and it is only by raising the temperature of the whole of the meat in cooking at least to 165° F., that the encysted parasite can be destroyed. Kuchenmeister, Hübner, and Lisinger, German chemists and physiologists, have made extensive series of experiments on this subject, and have ascertained that in most instances of cooking, especially of boiling entire hams, the whole of the meat is not raised to this temperature, and that the trichina protected by its cyst retains its vitality after cooking. They lay down the following positions as ascertained by these experiments:

1. That trichinæ are killed by long immersion in the brine of the meat, and by twenty-four hours *hot* smoking of sausages.

2. That they are not killed by three days' *cold* smoking, and the boiling of meat for making sausages does not certainly kill them.

3. A long keeping of cold smoked sausages will destroy the life of the trichinæ.

It might be well if here, as in some portions of Germany, the pork were inspected by a competent inspector, with a microscope, before packing. The hams and bacon, or middlings, are the only portions which need to be examined, for if there are no trichinæ there, there will not be any in the carcass.

SWITZERLAND, a Federal Republic in Europe. The present Constitution, which bears date September 12, 1848, vests the legislative authority in a Federal Assembly, consisting of two Chambers, a "*Ständerath*," or Council of States, composed of two members from each of the twenty-two cantons, and a "*Nationalrath*," or National Council, consisting of deputies (at present one hundred and twenty-eight) chosen in direct election, at the rate of one deputy for every twenty thousand souls. New elections take place every three years. Every citizen who is twenty-one years old has the right to vote. The executive power is deputed to a "*Bundesrath*," or Federal Council, consisting of seven members, who are elected for three years by the Federal Assembly. The Federal Council chooses annually out of its members a President and Vice-President. On November 6, 1865, the Federal Council elected M. Knüsel, of Lucerne, President of the Confederation for 1866, and M. Fornerod, of Vaud, Vice-President.

The area of the republic is 15,933 square

miles. The population of the twenty-two cantons was, on December 10, 1860, as follows:

Zurich.....	266,265	Appenzell } Exterior. 48,481	
Berne.....	467,141	} Interior. 12,000	
Lucerne.....	180,504	St. Gall.....	180,411
Uri.....	14,741	Grisons.....	90,718
Schwytz.....	45,089	Argovia.....	194,208
Unterwald } Upper.. 18,876		Thurgovia.....	90,080
} Lower.. 11,526		Tessin.....	116,848
Glaris.....	88,863	Vaud.....	218,157
Zug.....	19,608	Valais.....	90,792
Fribourg.....	105,528	Neuchâtel.....	87,869
Soleure.....	69,268	Geneva.....	92,876
Basle } Town..... 40,683			
} Country..... 51,582		Total.....	2,510,494
Schaffhausen.....	85,500		

With regard to religious denominations the inhabitants were divided, in 1860, as follows: 1,023,430 Roman Catholics, 1,476,982 Protestants, 5,866 Dissidents, 4,216 Israelites, and other non-Christians. Almost exclusively Roman Catholic are the cantons of Uri, Schwytz, Unterwald, Zug, Appenzell Interior, Tessin, Valais; while in Lucerne, Fribourg, Soleure, St. Gall, and Geneva, the Roman Catholics constitute a majority.

The largest cities are Berne, the Federal capital, with 29,016 inhabitants; Geneva, with 41,415; and Basle, with 37,918.

The number of deputies sent to the National Council by the several cantons is as follows: Zurich 13, Berne 23, Lucerne 7, Uri 1, Schwytz 2, Unterwald (Upper) 1, Unterwald (Lower) 1, Glaris 2, Zug 1, Fribourg 5, Soleure 5, Basle City 2, Basle County 3, Schaffhausen 2, Appenzell Exterior 2, Appenzell Interior 1, St. Gall 9, Grisons 5, Argovia 10, Thurgovia 5, Tessin 6, Vaud 11, Valais 5, Neuchâtel 4, Geneva 4.

In the budget for 1866 the revenue is fixed at 18,716,244, and the expenditures at 19,415,000 francs.

Amendments to the Federal Constitution, to become valid, must be accepted separately, not only by a majority of Swiss citizens, but by a majority of the cantons.

The Federal Assembly, in its session beginning October 23d, resolved to submit to a popular vote nine amendments to the Federal Constitution, viz.: 1. Uniformity of weights and measures. 2. Free Establishment of Swiss Jews. 3. The right of voting in communal affairs by citizens settled in other cantons than their own. 4. The enactment of a Federal law regulating conflicts respecting taxes and the civil relations of citizens established out of their own cantons. 5. The right of voting in cantonal affairs by citizens settled in other cantons than their own. 6. Religious liberty. 7. Prohibition of certain kinds of punishments. 8. To declare the Federal Assembly competent to establish legal provisions for the protection of literary and industrial property. 9. To declare the Federal Assembly competent to pass laws against lotteries and gambling-places. The Federal Council fixed the 14th of January, 1866, as the day for the popular vote upon these amendments. In April the Federal Council forwarded an address of condolence to the American people, and to the family of Mr. Lincoln.

T

TAPPAN, ARTHUR, an eminent American merchant and philanthropist, born in Northampton, Mass., May 22, 1786; died at New Haven, Conn., July 23, 1865. While yet an infant he barely escaped death by suffocation from being locked up in one of the folded bedsteads which were in common use in those days. When discovered, life was almost extinct. A headache, to which he was subject daily through life, may be ascribed to this accident. He left home at fourteen, and served seven years—according to the custom of the times—as “apprentice” to a hardware merchant in Boston; and when he came of age set up business in Portland, but soon removed to Montreal, as a larger field, where he entered into a general importing line with much success.

On the breaking out of the war of 1812, all Americans in Canada were required to take the oath of allegiance to the king, or leave the country. Choosing the latter alternative, Mr. Tappan withdrew at short notice and at a great pecuniary sacrifice.

In 1814 he engaged, in company with his brother Lewis—then living in Boston—who furnished the capital, in the business of importing British dry goods in New York. The new firm were successful the first year, but soon after losses came upon them which swept away their profits and most of their capital. The partnership having been dissolved, Arthur continued the business at the same place, selling chiefly for cash. His method of conducting his business was peculiar, and called out many predictions of failure. Buying his goods on a credit of from four to six months, he sold them at cost for cash, looking to the interest of the money thus obtained as his source of profit. In spite of all predictions to the contrary, however, he prospered, and gradually went into a credit business, which he continued to carry on with success for twenty years. The great commercial storm of 1837 forced him to suspend payment. He made an arrangement with his creditors, and paid, within the time agreed upon, the total amount of his debts, \$1,100,000, much of it by raising money at great sacrifices, when it was a common thing to hire money at two and a half per cent. per month. The struggle was too much to recover from, and in 1842 he passed through the process of bankruptcy, in which he ordered every thing he had to be sold, even to his wife's gold watch. Some years afterwards he became interested in the “Mercantile Agency,” first established by his brother Lewis, and from this was able to acquire the means of a comfortable support for his family. But well known as he was as a merchant, he was far more widely known for his great benevolence, and for the generous zeal with which he always advocated and supported any movement

for the benefit of his fellow-men. He was one of the early abolitionists, and cheerfully took a large share of the obloquy and persecution which was visited upon that despised class in its darkest days. When Garrison was imprisoned in Baltimore for an article in his paper upon the domestic slave trade, Mr. Tappan paid the fine and released him from jail, and his name, from that time forward, was as notorious and almost as much hated at the South as that of Garrison himself.

It was after he removed to New York that he first made a public profession of religion, uniting with the church in Murray Street, then under the care of the eminent Dr. John M. Mason. As success in business became assured, he began to practise liberality upon a scale much more elevated than had been common even among Christian merchants. He established the “Journal of Commerce” at a very large expense, in order to have a paper in the city that was independent of the support of the theatres. He was one of the chief founders of the American Tract Society, New York, and the largest donor to the first building of the Society. It was his motion in the Board of Managers, accompanied by an offer of \$10,000 for the object, that led the American Bible Society to undertake the grand work of giving a Bible to every family in the United States that would receive it. It was his endowment that set up the Lane Seminary at Cincinnati, and prevailed on Dr. Beecher to leave his church in Boston for a post of labor and sacrifice in the West. And when the trustees, in the absence of Dr. Beecher, suppressed the freedom of speech there, his donation erected Tappan Hall at Oberlin as a refuge for the exiled students of Lane. These are but a part of his public gifts. His private charities, for the relief of every sort of wants, were incessant and innumerable. Nor did he ever allow the calls of business or the gifts of money to be a substitute for personal kind offices in visiting the poor, the sick, and the afflicted, in which few men were so exemplary.

In the spring of the year 1833, feeling the necessity of having an Antislavery paper in New York in aid of the “Liberator,” which he also liberally supported, he established the “Emancipator” at his sole expense, paying the salary of the editor and all expenses. As the interest rapidly deepened, he invited a few gentlemen to meet at his lodgings, to confer together on what ought to be done for the abolition of slavery by the efforts of Christian wisdom and benevolence. These meetings were continued weekly for several months, until at length a public meeting was called for the 2d of October, 1833, at Clinton Hall, to form the New York City Antislavery Society. The meeting was prevented by a huge mob, insti-

gated by the daily papers; but a few persons met in another place, and the Society was duly formed, and at once put in vigorous operation—a large part of its resources coming from Mr. Tappan, who was chosen President. A National Convention was soon called at Philadelphia, on motion of Evan Lewis of that city, and the American Antislavery Society was formed on the 4th of December, 1833, Mr. Tappan being President, with the same persons associated as the Executive Committee. To this Society his contributions for several years were a thousand dollars per month.

In 1840 he felt constrained to leave the Society, under the belief that those who had taken the control intended to use it in hostility to the civil and religious institutions of the country, to dissolve the Union, break up the churches, and undermine the chief societies of Christian benevolence. From that time he took a less conspicuous place before the public, though always true to his principles, and ever doing what he could for their advancement. Mr. Tappan was a man of rare integrity and fidelity to principle.

TELEGRAPH, ELECTRIC. Another attempt was made in 1865 to lay a telegraphic wire across the Atlantic Ocean, connecting Valentia Bay, Ireland, and the American coast at Heart's Content, Newfoundland. The estimated expense of making and laying the cable was three millions of dollars. One-half this amount had been subscribed to the stock of the company, and in addition the Government of the United States had engaged to give a maximum subsidy of seventy-five thousand dollars a year, and the English Government one hundred thousand dollars a year, so long as the cable continued to work, each sum to go in payment of the messages sent by the respective Governments. The two Governments also give a joint guaranty of eight per cent. on the capital expended while the line works. The cable as manufactured was twenty-six hundred miles in length, and one and one-eighth inches in diameter. The weight of the mass was estimated to be over five thousand tons. The "core" or conductor was made of seven fine copper wires twisted into a single strand and insulated by a peculiar compound. Around this "core" were four layers of gutta percha, insulated with the same compound, and in turn enclosed by eleven strong iron wires, each one of which is carefully wound with Manila thread and saturated with tar, thus at once protecting the gutta percha, and adding strength to the cable. This cable was taken on board of the steamer Great Eastern and stowed in the immense iron tanks built on the lower deck. The tanks were then filled with water. The machinery for the delivery of the cable was similar to that used on a previous occasion, but improved, like all the other appliances required. The connection with the shore end was made, and the work of laying the cable commenced on July 21st. It continued, with occasional in-

terruptions of the communication with the shore, for eleven days. At this time an advance of 1,062 miles had been made, and 1,186 miles of the cable paid out, when a serious fault occurred. In the efforts to discover and remove this defect, the cable parted, and the land end went overboard. All was now evidently lost, unless it could be recovered by grapnels. The steamer then moved some thirteen or fourteen miles back from the spot where the accident occurred, and there lay to. The grapnels weighed three hundred pounds each, and consisted of two five-armed anchors, with flukes sharply curved, and tapering to an oblique tooth-like end. They were thrown overboard at 8.20 P. M., attached to a wire buoy rope five miles in length. At first the iron sank slowly, but soon the momentum of descent increased, so as to lay great stress on the machinery. Length flew after length over cog-wheel and drum, till the iron, warming with work, heated at last so as to convert the water thrown upon the machinery into clouds of steam.

The time passed heavily indeed! All life had died out in the vessel, and no noise was heard except the dull grating of the wire cable over the wheels at the bows. One thousand fathoms, fifteen hundred fathoms, two thousand fathoms, hundreds again mounting up, till at last, at 5.6 P. M., the strain was diminished, and at two thousand five hundred fathoms, or fifteen thousand feet, the grapnel reached the bed of the Atlantic, and set to its task of finding and holding the cable. Throughout the night the Great Eastern drove over the Atlantic, dragging in her course the grapnels and two miles and a half length of line, with which she was fishing for the cable. At 6.40 A. M., the picking-up machine, reinforced by the capstan, was set to work to haul up the line, which bore a strain of ten tons. At first it came up easily, and the dynamometer showed only a strain of eighteen hundred pounds, but the resistance of the rope rapidly increased till it reached a point indicated by seventy hundred pounds. At 7.15 A. M., one hundred fathoms had been recovered. At 7.25, two hundred fathoms, the strain increasing to seventy-five hundred pounds. At 8 A. M., three hundred fathoms were in, and it became evident to all on board that the grapnel was holding on and lifting "something" from the bottom. And what could that something be but the cable? The scientific men calculated the strain, and determined it could not be from the wire rope and grapnel solely, and it could only be inferred then that, as the bottom of the Atlantic is free from rocks there, and as the depth at which the rope began to resist agreed with the supposed soundings, it had really grappled the prize. At 8.9, the spur wheel of the picking-up apparatus broke, and the operation of taking in the rope became dangerous as well as difficult. The weather, which had been very thick and hazy, now settled down into a dense fog; but the conviction that the cable was surely once more attached to the

Great Eastern, no matter how precariously, and no matter how far off, afforded too much matter for congratulation, conjecture, and suspense, to allow much room for other thoughts. At 8.20 p. m., when nine hundred fathoms had been recovered, the rope parted at one of the swivels, and the work was ended. Four other attempts were subsequently made with the grapnels, and twice it was supposed that the cable had been grappled, but the rope parted when about five hundred fathoms had been recovered, and the enterprise was abandoned until the ensuing year.

TENNESSEE. The proceedings of the Convention having been ratified on the 22d of February, as related in the preceding volume of this work, the election which had been ordered to be held in the event of such ratification, on the 4th of March, for Governor and members of the Legislature, also took place. W. G. Brownlow, the nominee of the Convention, was chosen Governor. The Legislature met at Nashville on the 3d of April, and on the 5th ratified the United States constitutional amendment. It also reorganized the State Government, and elected David T. Patterson and Joseph S. Fowler Senators to Congress. The most important law passed was the one regulating the elective franchise, of which the following is an extract:

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee, That the following persons, to wit: 1st. Every white man twenty-one years of age, a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the county wherein he may offer his vote, six months next preceding the day of election, and publicly known to have entertained unconditional Union sentiments, from the outbreak of the rebellion until the present time; and 2d. Every white man, a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the county wherein he may offer his vote, six months next preceding the day of election, having arrived at the age of twenty-one years, since March 4, 1865, provided that he has not been engaged in armed rebellion against the authority of the United States, voluntarily; and 3d. Every white man of lawful age, coming from another State, and being a citizen of the United States, on proof of loyalty to the United States, and being a citizen of the county wherein he may offer his vote six months next preceding the day of election; and 4th. Every white man a citizen of this State, and a citizen of the United States, who has served as a soldier in the army of the United States, and has been or hereafter may be honorably discharged therefrom; and 5th. Every white man, of lawful age, and a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the county wherein he may offer his vote six months next preceding the day of election, who was conscripted by force into the so-called Confederate army, and was known to be a Union man on proof of loyalty to the United States, established by the testimony of two voters under the previous clauses of this section; and 6th. Every white man who voted in this State at the Presidential election in November, 1864, or voted on the 22d of February, 1865, or voted on the 4th of March, 1865, in this State, and all others who had taken the "oath of allegiance" to the United States, and may be known by the judges of the elections to have been true friends to the Government of the United States, and would have voted in said previously mentioned elections, if the same had been holden within their reach, shall be entitled to the privileges of the elective franchise.

Be it further enacted, That all persons who are or shall have been civil or diplomatic officers or agents of the so-called Confederate States, or who have left judicial stations under the United States, or the State of Tennessee, to aid in any way in the existing or recent rebellion against the authority of the United States, or who are or shall have been military or naval officers of the so-called Confederate States above the rank of captain in the army, or lieutenant in the navy, or who have left seats in the United States Congress, or seats in the Legislature of the State of Tennessee to aid said rebellion, or have resigned commissions in the army or navy of the United States and afterwards have voluntarily given aid to said rebellion, or persons who have engaged in any way in treating otherwise than lawfully prisoners of war persons found in the United States service as officers, soldiers, seamen, or in any other capacities, or persons who have been or are absentees from the United States for the purpose of aiding the rebellion, or persons who held pretended offices under the government of States in insurrection against the United States, or persons who left their homes within the jurisdiction and protection of the United States, or fled before the approach of the national forces, and passed beyond the Federal military lines into the so-called Confederate States for the purpose of aiding the rebellion, shall be denied and refused the privilege of the elective franchise in this State for the term of fifteen years from and after the passage of this act.

Be it further enacted, That all other persons except those mentioned in Section I. of this act are hereby and hereafter excluded and denied the exercise of the privilege of the elective franchise in this State for the term of five years from the passage of this act.

And be it further enacted, That any voter may be challenged by an admitted voter of Section I. of this act, on offering his vote, and thereupon the judges of elections shall peremptorily, to the person so challenged, before permitting him to vote, administer the following oath; said oath to be taken by all judges of elections and candidates for office:

"I solemnly swear that I will henceforth support the Constitution of the United States, and defend it against the assaults of all its enemies; that I am an active friend of the Government of the United States; that I will heartily aid and assist the loyal people in whatever measure may be adopted under the Constitution of the United States, and under all laws and proclamations made in pursuance thereof, to establish the national authority over all the people of every State and Territory embraced in the national Union; and that I will faithfully and most heartily support and defend the Constitution of the State of Tennessee, and the amendments and schedule thereunto appended and adopted by the people on the 22d day of February, 1865, and also all acts of the General Assembly assembled in accordance therewith; and that I take this oath freely, voluntarily, and without any mental reservation. So help me God."

And be it further enacted, That any person taking this oath falsely shall be guilty of perjury, and shall suffer all the pains and penalties attached to that crime.

A petition was presented from the "colored citizens of Tennessee," asking for the elective franchise, in which they said:

We know the burdens of citizenship, and are ready to bear them. We know the duties of the good citizen, and are ready to perform them cheerfully. Therefore, we humbly and respectfully petition your honorable body to place us in a position in which we can discharge those duties more effectually, namely: We ask the legal right to use the elective franchise, and to testify upon oath to the truth in

the several courts of our State. We do not ask for the privileges, wishing to shun the obligations imposed upon us by them.

Beyond ordering five hundred copies of the petition to be printed, a motion for which was carried by a vote of 41 to 10, no definite action was taken in the matter.

An act was passed on the 9th of June, apportioning the representation of the State in the United States Congress. On the 12th the Governor issued a proclamation, ordering the election of a full delegation of members of Congress in the eight districts of the State, and for members of the Legislature where there were vacancies, to be held on the 3d of August, and enjoining on the sheriffs and judges of elections a strict enforcement of the provisions and restrictions of the franchise act, which made it the duty of the county court clerk in each county to open and keep a registration of voters, and to furnish certificates of registration, without presenting which to the judges at the polls no person was entitled to vote. The restrictions of the franchise law were such as to exclude a large number of citizens from the right of suffrage. It was claimed to be unconstitutional, and met with much opposition, especially in Middle and Western Tennessee. Mr. William Sale, a citizen of Memphis, who had never participated in the war, called on the county clerk and requested that his name might be registered; and on this being refused, on the ground that he would not undertake to prove that he had been "publicly known to have entertained loyal sentiments from the outbreak of the rebellion in 1861," he filed a petition before the Hon. William M. Smith, Judge of the Common Law and Chancery Court of Memphis, praying for a mandamus to compel the county clerk to issue the required certificate. The cause was tried on the 28th of June, and Judge Smith on the morning of the 29th rendered a decision sustaining the franchise law as valid and constitutional, refusing the mandamus and dismissing the petition. On the 14th of July Governor Brownlow published an "address," in which, after arguing in favor of the constitutionality of the law, he continued:

Having said this much by way of friendly explanation, I come to the principal object of this address, and that is, that this important law is already set at naught in many local cities by the remissness of those whose official duty it is to execute it, to announce that it will be enforced on the day of election as far as the civil and military authorities can enforce it; and all elections effected by illegal votes will be annulled, and if necessary the officers elected will be arrested. The civil and military authorities understand each other, and will act in harmony. The commander of the Military Division of Tennessee will aid the civil authorities in all instances when the powers of the latter are inadequate to protect the ballot-box from fraudulent voting, or remove county officers in behalf of the State, no matter by whom elected. This step, so likely to become necessary, is much to be regretted, and clerks and judges of election yet have time to correct much they have done; and the hope is expressed that many of them will do so and save their respect.

It was to this address that President Johnson alluded in the following despatch:

WASHINGTON, Thursday, July 20, 1863.

Hon. W. G. Brownlow:

I hope and have no doubt you will see that the recent amendments to the Constitution of the State as adopted by the people, and all the laws passed by the last Legislature in pursuance thereof, are fairly executed, and that all illegal votes in the approaching election be excluded from the polls, and the election for members of Congress be legally and fairly conducted. When and wherever it becomes necessary to employ force for the execution of the laws and the protection of the ballot-box from violence and fraud, you are authorized to call upon Maj.-Gen. Thomas for sufficient military force to sustain the civil authorities of the State. I have received your recent address to the people, and think it well-timed, and hope it will do much good in reconciling the opposition to the amendment to the Constitution and the laws passed by the last Legislature. The law must be executed and the civil authority sustained. In your efforts to do this, if necessary, Gen. Thomas will afford a sufficient military force. You are at liberty to make what use you think proper of this despatch.

ANDREW JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

On the 18th the Governor issued another proclamation, declaring the act to limit the elective franchise the supreme law of the land; denouncing as rebels all who should unite for the purpose of defeating its execution; declaring that no person would be permitted to be a candidate until he had taken and subscribed the required oath; calling upon the civil authorities throughout the State "to arrest and bring to justice all persons who, under pretence of being candidates for Congress or other office, are travelling over the State denouncing and nullifying the Constitution and laws of the land, and spreading sedition and a spirit of rebellion;" and, finally, commanding all clerks of county courts and judges of elections faithfully to perform the duties imposed on them under penalty of being held to a strict account. Notwithstanding all the Governor's precautions, considerable irregularities crept into the modes of registration, and after the election he issued a proclamation calling upon the county clerks and sheriffs for information as to the manner in which the certificates were granted and the oaths administered. The results of this inquiry he embodied in a message to the Legislature, which assembled in October. The certificates, he said, seemed to have been granted in five different ways, as follows:

1. When the applicant was known to the clerk to be of publicly known Union sentiments.
2. Upon proof by witness that the applicant came within the provisions of the "act to limit the elective franchise."
3. Upon the oath of the applicant alone, that he came within some provision of the law.
4. The production of an oath of allegiance or amnesty, taken at some time by the applicant.
5. Where the applicant was certified or vouched for by some official, either civil or military.

The third, fourth, and fifth of these modes he decided to be illegal, and threw out the vote of twenty-nine counties. The entire vote of the State was 61,783; when the votes illegally

registered were thrown out, it was reduced to 39,509.

The Legislature met again in October. The following bill to render persons of African and Indian descent witnesses in the courts of the State, was carried in the Senate by a vote of ten to nine, but failed to pass the House of Representatives:

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee, That persons of African or Indian descent are hereby declared to be competent witnesses in all the courts of this State, in as full a manner as such persons are, by an act of Congress, competent witnesses in all the courts of the United States; and all laws and parts of laws of this State, excluding such persons from competency, are hereby repealed.

Resolutions endorsing the administration of President Johnson were tabled by a vote of thirty-five to twenty-five in the House of Representatives, and the following was adopted in their place, by a vote of sixty to four:

Resolved, That we endorse the administration of his Excellency the President of the United States, and especially his declaration that treason shall be made odious, and traitors punished.

In his message to the Legislature of April 6th, Governor Brownlow, speaking on the financial condition of the State, said:

The State debt, as reported by the comptroller in October, 1861, is said to be \$6,896,606.66, and this demands your attention. This includes \$3,000,000 of eight per cent. bonds for the "defence of the State," which has recently been discarded by the people at the ballot-box. This unauthorized and most unjust indebtedness repudiated, leaves the indebtedness of the State properly \$3,894,606.66, at an annual interest of \$212,388.25. The interest is presumed to have been paid on the 1st of January, 1861. It is not known how much has been paid, if any. The bonds will show either by the endorsement or the absence of the coupons. Besides this debt, the State has bonds for internal improvement purposes, and has endorsed the bonds of railroad companies to the amount of \$16,211,000. For these the State is ultimately liable upon the failure of the companies. These bonds, it is believed, the State will have to provide for, to preserve its credit, making an aggregate indebtedness of \$20,005,606.66, and the annual interest \$1,185,048.25. Of this debt proper, \$66,666.66 matured in 1861; \$61,250 in 1862; \$177,750 in 1863; and \$58,500 in 1864; in all, \$366,166.66 at once to be provided for. The comptroller states that the bonds maturing in 1861 were "taken possession of and held by the State, subject to adjustment at the end of the war." Besides these, the State held bonds, mostly her own, as follows: The Spencer T. Hunt Fund, 6; the Railroad Sinking Fund, 161; deposited by free banks, 841; deposited by foreign insurance companies, 80; and in all 588 bonds. These bonds, held in trust, were carried away, it is believed, with the valuables of the State treasury, by the State officers who ingloriously fled on the approach of the national flag. Double payment can probably be avoided. Evidence must be in existence by which they can be identified. The notorious condition of our State affairs has been sufficient to put dealers upon their guard; so that if any of the bonds have been fraudulently sold, payment to the present holders may be justly stopped.

The debt due and to be provided for at once, according to the report of the Comptroller to the Legislature at its session in October, was \$1,218,719.66.

The educational and charitable institutions suffered much during the war. The common-school fund was appropriated by the Confederate authorities. The Governor, in his October message, advised that this fund should, as far as possible, be replaced out of the proceeds of what was left of the State Bank. "This large fund," he said, "emanated mainly from the General Government, and was held by the State in sacred trust. The declaration of this trust may be found in the act of Congress which created it, and is 'for the instruction of children forever.' And by the Constitution it is declared to be a 'permanent fund,' 'never to be diminished by legislative appropriation,' nor the interest 'devoted to any other use than the support and encouragement of common schools.'" He adds, "Let the State keep her faith with the destitute and long-neglected school children, no matter who else may suffer, and then settle with other creditors as best she may."

The Tennessee Blind School, a State institution near Nashville, was entirely destroyed by the Federal forces. The pupils, some forty in number, were distributed among their friends or became dependent on private charity. The library, furniture, and fixtures of the East Tennessee University, chartered and endowed by the State in 1807, were totally destroyed by the same agency. The State Deaf and Dumb School at Knoxville was used for hospital purposes by the Federal army.

The whole number of prisoners in the State penitentiary on the 80th of September, was 182, of whom 108 were committed by the civil and 79 by the military authorities.

A State colored convention was held at Nashville, on the 7th and 8th of August. The following preambles and resolutions were adopted by a vote of more than two to one:

Whereas, We, in convention assembled, in order to deliberate, as far as we are able, upon the present condition and future prospects of the colored people of Tennessee; and whereas, it is expedient in all our deliberations, we will put forth to them our sentiments—

Resolved, That we will publish an address to them and cause it to be circulated throughout the State.

Whereas, The petition presented by the colored people of Tennessee to the Legislature thereof, has not been disposed of by that body, as we understand, because they do not know the sentiments of their constituents; therefore be it

Resolved, That we publish an appeal to the loyal white citizens of Tennessee upon the subject matter contained in the said petition. Inasmuch as the Federal Government has called for our assistance in putting down the late iniquitous rebellion, and acknowledged not only our humanity and right to freedom, but our just claim to all other rights under the Government; therefore be it

Resolved, That we protest against the Congressional delegation from Tennessee being received into the Congress of the United States, if the Legislature of Tennessee does not grant the petition before it prior to December 1, 1865.

Other resolutions were adopted, appointing a committee, to be composed of delegates from each county, to investigate the condition of the

freedmen, and report to the Bureau at Nashville. Addresses were also agreed upon, to the colored people and white citizens of the State.

The following, in relation to the habits of the freedmen, is from the "Knoxville Whig" of September 27th

Thousands of free colored persons are congregating in and around the large towns in Tennessee, and thousands are coming in from other States, one-third of whom cannot get employment. Indeed, less than one-third of them want employment, or feel willing to stoop to work. They entertain the erroneous idea that the Government is bound to supply all their wants, and even to furnish them with houses, if, in order to do that, the white occupants must be turned out. There is a large demand for labor in every section of the State, but the colored people, with here and there a noble exception, scorn the idea of work. They fiddle and dance at night, and lie around the stores and street corners in the daytime.

Gov. Brownlow, in his October message, avowing himself deeply impressed with the apprehension of future troubles, growing out of the antagonism of the races, advocated the removal of the negro population to a separate territory in a climate adapted to their nature, and there settling them as a nation of freedmen. With regard to the question of granting them the elective franchise within the State, he said :

I think it would be bad policy, as well as wrong in principle, to open the ballot-box to the uninformed and exceedingly stupid slaves of the Southern cotton, rice, and sugar fields. If allowed to vote, the great majority of them would be influenced by leading secessionists to vote against the Government, as they would be largely under the influence of this class of men for years to come, having to reside on and cultivate their lands. When the people of Tennessee become satisfied that the negro is worthy of suffrage, they will extend it, and not before; and I repeat that this question must be regulated by the State authorities, and by the loyal voters of the State, not by the General Government.

He advocated the admission of freedmen to testify in the courts, urging that much of the repugnance to negro testimony was the result of education and habit. "It is required of the white witness," said the Governor, "that he shall be disinterested, and shall have sufficient intelligence to 'understand the obligation of an oath.' Let the same be required of the negro. He is now subject to the same penalties for perjury that the white man is; and as he is religiously inclined, he will no doubt take the proper views of the penalty in the world to come. Again, it must be remembered that our juries are the exclusive judges of the weight of evidence, and that they will not fail to take into consideration the degree of intelligence, and the character for honor and veracity of the witnesses, whether white or black."

It appears from the books of the Government undertaker at Nashville, that since the Federal occupation, 12,284 Federal soldiers and Government employes, who had died from wounds and disease, were buried there, besides about 8,000 Confederate soldiers and 10,000 refugees and contrabands. The cost to the Government was five dollars for every soldier buried, the name of each and the number of his regiment

being plainly marked on a substantial board at the head of his grave. During the same time the bodies of about 5,000 officers and soldiers were sent home, secured in metallic cases.

TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The public domain of the United States lying west of the Mississippi River is comprehended within nine territorial governments, viz.: Arizona, Colorado, Dakota, Idaho, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, Utah, and Washington, to which may be added the district set apart for the Indian tribes removed from the old States of the Union, known as the Indian Territory. A bill was introduced into the Thirty-eighth Congress to form a new Territory, to be called Wyoming, out of the southwest part of Dakota, but failed to become a law. In anticipation of the admission of Colorado into the Union before the publication of this work, that Territory has been described under its special head.

Arizona.—The general lines of this Territory are thus defined in the organic act, approved February 24, 1863: "All that portion of the present Territory of New Mexico situated west of a line running due south from the point where the southwest corner of the Territory of Colorado joins the northern boundary of the Territory of New Mexico." This region embraces an area of 120,912 square miles, or 77,388,680 acres, which is three times as large as the State of New York. While it has some barren and desolate country, no mineral region belonging to the United States, not excepting California, has, in proportion to its extent, more arable, pastoral, and timber lands. The climate is described as singularly adapted to physical health or to agricultural and mining pursuits. The valleys of the Gila and Santa Cruz, the San Pedro, and other streams, are large, and equal in fertility to any agricultural district in the United States. The San Pedro Valley, over one hundred miles in length, is, perhaps, the best farming district south of the Gila River. The Sonoita Valley, which opens into the Santa Cruz near Calabazas, is some fifty miles long. Prescott, the Territorial capital, is the heart of a mining district of remarkable productiveness. The first house was erected in June, 1863, and now the town has some hundreds of inhabitants, and the country for fifty miles about, including a dozen mining districts and farming valleys, is largely taken up by settlers. The valleys will, it is thought, produce good crops without irrigation, as the rains in this region are frequent and heavy. Of the mining interests in the vicinity of Prescott, the Hon. Richard O. McCormick, Secretary of the Territory, speaks as follows:

The surface ores of thirty mines of gold, silver, and copper which I had assayed in San Francisco, were pronounced equal to any surface ores ever tested by the metallurgists, who are among the most skilful and experienced in the city, and, so far as ore has been had from a depth, it fully sustains its reputation. The veins are large and boldly defined, and the ores are of varied classes, usually such as to be readily and inexpensively worked, while the facilities

for working them are of a superior order. At the ledges is an abundant supply of wood and water; near at hand are grazing and farming lands, and roads may be opened in every direction without great cost. Some of the streams are dry at certain seasons, which fact renders placer mining an uncertain enterprise in this part as in other parts of the Territory; but for quartz mining there could not possibly be a more inviting locality. The altitude is so great that the temperature is never oppressively warm; and the nights, even in midsummer, are refreshingly cool and bracing. The ascent from the river by the roads from La Paz and Mojave is so easy, that with the small amount of work already done upon the same, the heaviest machinery may be readily transported. The distance by either road is about one hundred and sixty miles, and the charge for freight from six to eight cents per pound. Contracts may now be made for the delivery of machinery at Prescott from San Francisco, *via* the Colorado, for ten cents per pound.

Weaver and Wickenburg, upon the Hassayampa, south of Prescott, are important mining centres eastward from Prescott, upon the Agua Frio, the Verde, the Salinas, and other streams, to the New Mexican line; exploring parties have discovered evidences of great mineral wealth and excellent agricultural districts. Northward to the villages of the Moquis, and the San Juan River, the country is but little known, but believed to be prolific in the precious ores and in timber. Some of the most promising districts have never yet been prospected. In the opinion of many persons, the richest mines lie in the unexplored eastern part of the Territory. For a year after the organization of its government, the Territory was without a mail or post-office. Now a weekly mail is established from Los Angeles to Prescott, and eastward to Santa Fé, *via* the 35th parallel, where it connects with that for the Missouri River. Other routes have been proposed, and a company is organized to furnish telegraphic communication between Los Angeles and Prescott, and so put the Territory in immediate communication both with the Pacific and Atlantic coast.

Being primarily a quartz mining country, Arizona has not increased so rapidly as other Western Territories, to which the quick returns from surface mining have attracted a large but often fluctuating population. With the aid of machinery and capital, and ready communications with more settled regions, a steady increase in population may be expected. The present number of inhabitants is between 15,000 and 20,000, exclusive of Indians. The latter have proved a serious hindrance to the growth and prosperity of the Territory; but in consequence of the superior ability of the United States Government to strengthen the military posts there, a considerable abatement of this nuisance may be expected. Arizona is at present divided into four counties, each named from a prominent Indian tribe residing within its borders: Mojave, Pima, Yavapai, and Yuma. The Territorial government is the same as in 1864. An election was held in September for delegates to Congress, at which 1,343 votes were cast, resulting in the choice of John N. Goodwin, a

supporter of the administration. The Territorial Legislature consists of seven members, four for Yavapai, and one for each of the other three counties.

Dakota.—The absence of any special attractions in the form of rich deposits of the precious metals, has caused the progress of this Territory in population or agricultural development to be less marked than that of some others. The chief sources of wealth continue to be the various kinds of furs yielded by its forests and plains, and which find a ready market in the Eastern States. A very serious obstacle to immigration has been the hostility of the Sioux and other Indian tribes living within the Territory, who, in spite of the efforts of the Government, backed by a large military force, maintained during the year a predatory warfare along the great routes of travel connecting the valley of the Mississippi with the Pacific coast. Many stations of the overland mail routes were plundered and burned; small, isolated bands of emigrants were cut off and murdered; and travel across the Rocky Mountains was rendered unsafe unless by large bands, having a military escort. During the spring and summer the Government largely increased its forces west of the Missouri River, a portion being composed of men lately in the Confederate military service; and the vigorous measures adopted by Generals Connor and Sully, soon induced the Indians to sue for peace. On the recommendation of these officers, a commission, composed of officers of the army and civilians, was sent to the Upper Arkansas and the Upper Missouri, and satisfactory treaties were made with such of the tribes as could be reached before the close of the season. The Territorial officers of Dakota are the same as in 1864. An election for members of the Legislature was held in the Territory on October 6th, at which the Republicans were successful.

Idaho.—The almost incalculable richness of the mineral deposits of this Territory has attracted thither a large population, although for how long a time it is destined to receive so rapid an influx cannot now be determined. The present number of inhabitants is considerably over twenty thousand. The capital was in 1865, by act of the Legislature, removed from Lewiston to Boise City, a substantial town of about one thousand two hundred inhabitants, in the southwestern part of the Territory. It is the depot for all the mining region so far discovered in Southern Idaho, although there are no mines within twenty-five miles of the town. The principal town of the Territory is Idaho City, thirty-five miles north of Boise City, situated in the heart of a rich "placer" district, and containing from five thousand to seven thousand inhabitants on week days, and double that number on Sundays, when the miners for miles around assemble there for business or pleasure. In the latter part of May, 1865, the town was nearly destroyed by fire, the loss of property being estimated at \$1,500,000; but

within two or three months the burnt district was entirely rebuilt in a more substantial style than before.

There are at present no means of ascertaining accurately the product of the Idaho gold mines. The known amount deposited for coinage in the San Francisco mint for the year ending December, 1864, was reported at \$3,500,000, and the total yield of the year was estimated at \$6,000,000. In his last annual message Governor Lyon stated, that in 1865 over \$17,000,000 worth of gold and silver had been produced in the Territory, and that the yield was increasing. The following extract from his message exhibits the mineral resources of Idaho:

A bird's-eye view of the accumulating discoveries in our mineral resources reveals that we have no less than three thousand gold and silver bearing quartz ledges, graded in their value as in their richness, and new discoveries and new locations are being made almost daily. The width of these lodes, or leads, varies from three to thirty feet, and they prospect from \$20 to \$200 per ton. Located usually where water power and timber are in abundance, they offer the highest inducements to the enterprising capitalists, whose investment can rarely fail of being of the most remunerative character. Among the other useful ores which have been discovered within the past year, tin, cinnabar, copper, lead, and iron in many forms, are of the first value; yet platina, antimony, nickel, bismuth, iridium, and rhodium, simple or compounded with other minerals, are found in various localities. But this is not all: beds of the best of coal, both anthracite and bituminous, with rock salt, sulphur, and gypsum (better known as the fertilizing plaster of commerce), while the most precious of gems—the diamond—has been discovered in our gulches; all give you a feeling foretaste of the illimitable extent of Idaho's varied mineral wealth when the hand of man shall have unbosomed her hidden treasures. The wide extent of our auriferous placers, only a moiety of which have been well prospected, choquered as they are by auriferous quartz lodes and leads, are rivalled only by argentiferous mountain ledges, striated, laminated, and foliated with silver in chlorides and sulphurets—arsenical, antimonial, and virgin. This presents a fabulous array of marvellous deposits, which will require the industry of ages to develop and exhaust.

Indian Territory.—Soon after the termination of the late civil war, the Choctaws and other tribes in this Territory who had sided with the Confederates, sought to make terms with the United States Government, expressing an earnest desire to return to their homes and resume their former occupations. Although by taking up arms they had forfeited the privileges they had previously enjoyed from the Government, it was determined to act with clemency toward them, in the hope that they might thereby be deterred from future aggressions. Accordingly a commission, comprising Judge Cooley, Commissioner of Indian Affairs; Col. Welles, Superintendent of the Southwestern Indians; Thomas Wistar, of Philadelphia; Gen. Parker, of Gen. Grant's staff; Gens. Heron and Harney, met in council at Fort Smith, Ark., in September, the representatives of the chief tribes residing in the Territory, and made the following treaty with the Cherokees, Creeks,

Choctaws, Chickasaws, Osages, Seminoles, Senecas, Shawnees, and Quapaws:

Whereas, the aforesaid nations and tribes, or bands of Indians, or portions thereof, were induced by the machinations of the emissaries of the so-called Confederate States, to throw off their allegiance to the Government of the United States, and to enter into treaty stipulations with said so-called Confederate States, whereby they have made themselves liable to a forfeiture of all rights of every kind, character, and description, which had been promised and guaranteed to them by the United States; and *whereas* the Government of the United States has maintained its supremacy and authority within its limits; and *whereas* it is the desire of the Government to act with magnanimity with all parties deserving its clemency, and to reestablish order and legitimate authority among the Indian tribes; and *whereas* the undersigned representatives or parties connected with said nations and tribes of Indians have become satisfied that it is for the general good of the people to reunite with and be restored to the relations which formerly existed between them and the United States, and as indicative of our personal feelings in the premises, and of our several nations and tribes, so far as we are authorized and empowered to speak for them; and *whereas* questions have arisen as to the status of the nations, tribes, and bands that have made treaties with the enemies of the United States, which are now being discussed, and our relations settled by treaty with the United States Commissioners, now at Fort Smith for that purpose:

The undersigned do hereby acknowledge themselves to be under the protection of the United States of America, and covenant and agree that hereafter they will in all things recognize the Government of the United States as exercising executive jurisdiction over them, and will not enter into any allegiance or conventional agreement with any State, nation, power, or sovereignty whatsoever; that any treaty or alliance for the cession of lands, or any act heretofore done by them or any of their people, by which they renounced their allegiance to the United States, is hereby revoked and repudiated.

In consideration of the foregoing stipulations made by members of the respective nations and tribes of Indians, the United States, through its commissioners, promises that it will reestablish peace and friendship with all nations and tribes of Indians within the so-called Indian Territory; that it will afford ample protection for security of persons and property of the respective nations or tribes, and declares its willingness to enter into treaties to arrange and settle all questions relating to and growing out of former treaties of such nations with the so-called Confederate States, at this council now convened for that purpose, or at such time in future as may be appointed.

After the treaty had been signed, further delegations of Confederate Indians, Comanches, Seminoles, Creeks, Washitas, Potawatamies, Cherokees, and others, arrived at the fort, and joined in the negotiations, urging that their lands, annuities, and other possessions ought not to be forfeited. On the 21st a treaty was signed by the commissioners and the Choctaws and Chickasaws, providing for peace and friendship between the United States and said tribes; that they will exert all their influence in compelling the Indians of the Plains to maintain peaceful relations with each other, with the Indians of the Territory, and with the United States; that slavery shall be abolished forever; that the freedmen shall be suitably provided for; that lands shall be issued to the Indians of Kansas and elsewhere; that the right of way shall be

granted to railroads; and that the consolidation of Indian tribes, with a Territorial form of government, shall be recommended by them to their respective councils.

Montana.—Like Idaho, this Territory presents great inducements to emigrants, and her population, estimated at considerably over 80,000, is composed, in a great measure, of the men who built up Colorado so rapidly, and who, upon the exhaustion of the surface deposits, left that Territory for the richer diggings just discovered in the north. When her placers become exhausted, of which there seems no immediate probability, Montana must undoubtedly expect a temporary diminution of her population; but in the development of her gold-bearing quartz veins, of which the number is almost incalculable, she will have the elements of a steady and permanent increase. The population at present centres around the mining towns of Virginia City, 10,000 inhabitants, Helena City 8,000, and Diamond City 4,000.

One of the most surprising geographical facts about Montana is, that it is reached by steamboat from St. Louis. Travellers and freight are now transported by steamboat, and without transshipment, from St. Louis to Fort Benton, in the heart of Montana; and freight, in the proper season of navigation, may be got to Montana quicker than to Denver City. This cheap mode of communication will be of vast importance to the new Territory, and light-draught boats are now building at Louisville especially for the Montana trade. These will supersede the boats now used, which are sometimes delayed on the upper waters. The river voyage from St. Louis to Fort Benton is now made in twenty-eight days, and freight is carried at the price of ten cents per pound.

Among recent discoveries in the Territory was that of a rich gulch on the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, called the "Last Chance," near which there sprang into existence, in a few months, the populous mining town of Helena City. The gold discoveries next extended across the mountains, to the head-waters of the Blackfoot, where some important deposits have been opened. East of the Missouri River, during last summer, discoveries were made at Confederate Gulch, where Diamond City, now containing four thousand inhabitants, has since gathered. It is reported that the deposits there are of great richness. Gold lodes occur everywhere in connection with gulch diggings. One of the best gold lode-mining districts is on the Madison River, in what is called Hot Spring district.

The ores of Montana are reported by scientific men to be richer than those of California, which yield an average of twenty dollars per ton. The great majority of the lodes of Montana promise an average of more than four times the above amount. There are few sulphurets of iron and copper, carrying gold, in Montana, such as prove so troublesome in Col-

orado. This is owing to the fact that the formation is so open and perforated by water, that the sulphurets have been decomposed. For the same reason miners in Montana are not troubled with water, and are saved the heavy expenses of pumping.

The silver ores are in the form of argentiferous galena, which must be smelted as Western lead ores are, and the silver separated from the lead ores by cupellation. The silver ores are much more trustworthy than those yielding gold; and experience has already shown that silver mining will be, in Montana, more profitable than gold mining. The veins are more uniform in the yield, and last better. The large and constant supply of water is of immense benefit to mining operations in Montana, as well as the facility of movement; the country everywhere abounding in natural roads, which do not easily become broken up.

The veins of copper ores have been traced for a great extent, and the ores are found to yield from thirty-three to sixty-five per cent; but little attention is as yet given to this metal, as gold and silver monopolize the attention of the people.

Sidney Egerton is the Governor of Montana, and H. P. Torrey, Territorial Secretary. The capital is Virginia City. An election for delegate to Congress was held in September, which resulted in the choice of Samuel McLean, the Democratic candidate, by a majority of about a thousand.

Nebraska.—Unlike the Territories lying along the slopes of the Rocky Mountains, Nebraska has few or no deposits of precious ores in her soil, although iron and coal are believed to exist in great abundance. As a grazing country it cannot be surpassed, and the soil produces in abundance all the cereals of the West. Besides being a fine agricultural and stock-raising country, Nebraska is also the great starting-point and highway for travel over the Plains, whence her lands are much sought after by emigrants. Fine lands can be taken under the homestead law, in the immediate neighborhood of good settlements, where the settler will have all the advantages of churches and schools already established. Improved farms can be purchased in tracts of one hundred and sixty acres, with from forty to eighty acres under cultivation, with small dwelling and outbuildings, for from \$2.50 to \$5 per acre. As a general rule, farms can be bought at less than the cost of the improvements, owing to the constant emigration to the adjacent gold mines of Colorado and Idaho. The Territory has adopted a liberal free-school system, which will furnish a free school in a short time the year round in every school district. At the present time the schools are free on an average about six months in the year. The population is now estimated at 50,000.

Nebraska is traversed through its entire length by the main trunk line of the Union Pacific Railroad, the completion of which is destined to develop very considerably the resour-

ces and wealth of the Territory. At the close of 1865 the first forty miles were ready for use, and reported by commissioners appointed by the President of the United States for that purpose to be in a "superior condition." By July 4, 1866, it is estimated that a hundred miles will be completed; by the commencement of 1867, the road will have advanced two hundred and fifty miles; and by the close of 1867, the Rocky Mountains will in all probability be reached.

The Legislature was in session during January and February. Resolutions endorsing the President's administration were passed almost unanimously, and bills providing for a geological survey of the State, and making liberal provisions to induce emigration, and also resolutions approving the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery, pledging the vote of Nebraska to ratify it, if needed.

An election was held in 1865 for Territorial treasurer and auditor, and a Legislature. Most of the Republican candidates were elected by large majorities.

New Mexico.—The progress of New Mexico is steady, if less rapid than that of several sister Territories, and as a stock-raising country she is destined to hold an important rank. From this region come the greater part of the mules used by overland emigrants to California, and it already possesses several hundred thousand milch cows, and two and a half million sheep. Stock-raising and agriculture are the principal occupations of the inhabitants, although gold, silver, and copper mining is prosecuted to a considerable extent. The population is about 30,000. In the latter part of 1865 Gen. Robert Mitchell was appointed to succeed Henry Connelly as Territorial Governor. The Territorial Legislature repealed the free negro law, and amended the Peon law so as to make servitude under it entirely voluntary. A convention was ordered to frame a State Constitution. The election of delegates was to take place on the first Monday in March, 1866, and the Constitution will be submitted to the people on the last Monday in the succeeding April, so that the State may apply for admission before the adjournment of the first session of the Thirty-ninth Congress.

The election for a delegate to Congress resulted in the choice of J. F. Chavez, Republican, by a large majority. Of the Legislature elected in October, about three-fourths are Republicans.

Utah.—Notwithstanding the difficulties in the path of emigration across the Plains, the population of Utah increased during 1865 about 15,000, and at the commencement of 1866 was estimated at 95,000. The new-comers were almost exclusively European converts from the Scandinavian and Celtic stocks. The political status of the Territory is an anomalous one. It now possesses three governments, each of which extends over the whole Territory, in form, if not in fact—the Territorial Government, organized by virtue of the organic act of Congress;

the government of the so-called State of Deseret, of which Brigham Young is Governor; and the government of the Church, of which Brigham Young is first president, and the supreme head. The Church confines its control not to things eternal and celestial, but extends to all the relations of life and business; to family affairs, and to the fixing of the price of commodities for sale. Nothing is beneath its care, and nothing is above its power. This Church has larger and more positive powers than were ever claimed by any other. So far as relates to power, it has, by irrevocable revelation, been placed in the hands of one man. The Territorial Government seems to have little vitality or power. None but Mormons are sent to the Legislature. If the Governor vetoes laws passed, the Legislature of the State of Deseret can pass them, and Governor Young gives them his sanction, and they are laws for the State, when they failed to be so for the Territory. The laws of the State of Deseret are not published, but kept among the secret archives. That this condition of things can last long seems impossible, and there are grave apprehensions that a collision between the Mormon organization and that of the United States is imminent. The former is at present strongest within the Territory.

The cultivation of cotton in Southern Utah has been a great success, and several factories are in constant operation making it up into various fabrics. The yarn is very even, and has an excellent appearance. In the same quarter important discoveries of silver and gold mines have been reported, but, owing to the undeveloped condition of that part of the Territory, little has been done in working them.

More than thirty years ago, Joseph Smith prophesied that within a generation the "Saints" would repossess Jackson County, Missouri, and rebuild the Temple. In November a remarkable discourse was delivered in Salt Lake City on the subject, in which the statement was made that the time was near at hand for a commencement to be made there, and this belief seems to be strongly implanted in the people. The speaker descanted largely upon the beauty and glory of the city which should be built upon the site selected for the Temple, which is about a mile west of Independence, and where the Mormons declare the Garden of Eden was located, and where the first important scenes in the world's drama were enacted.

Washington.—Of this Territory, lying in the extreme northwest corner of the national domain, little requires to be said beyond the elaborate account given in our volume for 1864. The population is estimated at 15,000. It is settled principally along the coast, and its chief productions are wheat and other cereals, and lumber, for which the Puget Sound district is excellently adapted. Its mineral resources are comparatively undeveloped. The Indian tribes are few and much scattered, and in general peaceably disposed. They are being located

on small reservations, in order more thoroughly to control them.

TEXAS. After the surrender of Gen. Kirby Smith to Gen. Canby, and before the arrival of the force under Gen. Weitzel, which sailed from Fortress Monroe about the end of May, a good deal of anarchy prevailed in Texas. The Texas troops were disbanded before the commissioners sent to Gen. Canby arrived, and carried their arms with them, and also a large amount of ammunition, and horses and wagons. In view of this fact, Gen. Granger issued an order, requiring all persons having such property in their possession, to deliver it up to the proper United States officer. There were also at Austin, and in various parts of the State, considerable quantities of military stores and other property abandoned by the Confederate authorities, exposed to plunderers, much of which was actually carried off by persons who claimed to be creditors of the State or of the Confederate Government; and Pendleton Murrah, still exercising the functions of Governor, issued a proclamation, addressed to the sheriffs of the various counties, requesting and enjoining upon the various counties of this State to collect and preserve all such public property, and hold the same subject to the order and disposition of the legally constituted authorities of the State; reporting said property accurately, as it shall be collected together, to the Executive at Austin.

Gov. Murrah also issued a call for the Legislature to meet on the 16th of July, and ordered an election to take place on the 19th of June, for delegates to a State Convention, to meet on the 10th of July, and take measures for the restoration of the State to the Union, in the hope of avoiding a military administration of affairs by agencies of the Federal Government. But before the time appointed for the election of delegates, Gen. A. J. Hamilton was appointed Provisional Governor by President Johnson. On the 21st of July he arrived at Galveston, accompanied by a number of prominent refugees, and on the 25th issued a proclamation announcing his appointment, with instructions to take the necessary steps for holding a convention, to be composed of delegates chosen by that portion of the people of the State known to be loyal, for the purpose of amending the Constitution, reorganizing the State government, and restoring the State to constitutional relations with the United States. He fixed no time for the convention, but announced that suitable persons would be appointed in the different counties to administer the oath of amnesty prescribed in the President's proclamation of the 29th of May, and to register the names of loyal voters. On the ground that there were "no civil officers in the State," and that the great body of the people were laboring under such disabilities as to preclude elections, he announced that indispensable district and county officers would be appointed. He declared to be in force only such laws as had

been enacted before the last of February, 1861, and directed officers and citizens and the courts when established, to be governed by them, except in so far as they might be affected by the emancipation of the slaves by United States authority, or by other acts of the United States for the suppression of the rebellion. The proclamation concluded as follows:

The people of the State are invited to engage in the work of reconstructing local government for themselves. I come, tendering, in the name of the United States, amnesty for the past, security and freedom for the future. Every generous heart will feel, and every candid mind admit, that the Government of the United States seeks not, and has never sought, to humiliate the people of the South. It but asks them to be friends rather than enemies.

The negroes are not only free, but I beg to assure my fellow-citizens that the Government will protect them in their freedom.

For the time being the freedmen are recommended to engage with their former masters for reasonable compensation, to labor at least till the close of the season for gathering the present crop. For them, generally, to do otherwise, would be greatly to the injury of themselves and the community at large. But let it be understood that combination among those interested in securing their labor to prevent them from hiring to persons who will pay the best price for such labor, and to ostracize in society those who oppose such combinations, will meet with no favor at the hands of the people or Government of the United States. And candor compels me to say to the people of Texas, that if, in the action of the proposed convention, the negro is characterized or treated as less than a freeman, our Senators and Representatives will seek in vain admission to the halls of Congress. It is indeed strange that men should take a solemn oath to faithfully abide by and support all laws and proclamations which have been made during the existing rebellion with reference to the emancipation of slaves, and in the next breath favor gradual emancipation. It is the part of wisdom and the part of duty to accept what is inevitable without resistance, and recognize truth however unpalatable.

Governor Hamilton's proclamation for the reorganization of the judiciary provided that the district courts should proceed with the trial of all criminal causes; that all civil suits should be proceeded with to judgment and execution, but that in no action for debt should final judgment be rendered until further orders; that the existing organization of districts, and the usual time of holding courts, should continue; that attorneys-at-law, before practising, must take the amnesty oath, those not entitled to its benefits being precluded till pardoned; that all persons of color were to be considered as on an equality with white men in respect to the punishment of crime, and when tried by virtue of indictments before presented and found guilty, the judgment of the court was to be the same as if the defendant were a white person; and that justices of the peace might render final judgment.

Judge McFarland, one of the district judges appointed by Gov. Hamilton, had the following questions brought before him in several cases:

1. As to the effect of the law known as the stay-law, passed by the Texas Legislature under the Confederate rule; and also, as to the effect of the act

passed by the same body suspending the statute of limitations.

2. As to the power of the Provisional Governor to appoint a provisional judiciary, and to organize provisional courts.

3. As to the relation in which the provisional courts, so established, stand to the former district courts of the State, organized under secession auspices.

4. As to the effect to be given by the provisional courts of the interlocutory orders and decrees of the secession district courts in suits still pending.

Upon these questions the judge ruled substantially, that the authorities having control of the State from February, 1861, to June, 1865, constituted for all practical purposes a government *de facto*; and that while as a political fabric it fell to pieces with the surrender and dispersion of the Confederate armies, and all its political legislation ceased to be of force, yet that the private and individual rights that had grown up under those acts remained unimpaired, and were still binding and valid between individuals, and would be so held until succeeding governments saw fit to alter them. He further held, in this connection, that the order of General Granger declaring illegitimate all acts of the Governor and Legislature after secession, and the subsequent proclamation of the Provisional Governor, declaring such laws inoperative and void, and putting in force the body of statute laws in existence prior to secession, did not necessarily have the effect of nullifying and rendering invalid transactions between private individuals during secession rule. He further held that the replication that the stay-law forbade the institution of suits, was a good and sufficient answer to a plea of the statute of limitations. He also held that the Provisional Governor was clothed with the power to organize a provisional judiciary; and in that connection overruled a motion in a pending suit, to set aside interlocutory orders and decrees that had been rendered in such suit during the rebellion.

On the 19th of August the Provisional Governor issued another proclamation, containing regulations with regard to administering the amnesty oath preparatory to the election of delegates to the State Convention, which was subsequently appointed to be held on the 8th of January, 1866, and to assemble on the 7th of February following. By this proclamation the chief justices of the several counties, with the clerks of the county and district courts, were to constitute boards charged with the duty of administering the amnesty oath, and registering the names of citizens entitled to vote; the board in each county to sit at least one day in every week. Only such citizens as were entitled to the benefit of the general amnesty were to be allowed to have their names placed on the register. Others were to be permitted to take the oath of amnesty, only for the purpose of enabling them to present their petitions to the President for special pardon, which when granted would entitle them to have their names placed on the register of

voters. The proclamation concluded with an invitation to citizens to go forward with alacrity and take the steps necessary to entitle them to aid in the restoration of a regular constitutional government to the State.

The Governor also authorized the organization of a special police force in the several counties to aid in the preservation of order.

In the transition state of society that followed the disappearance of the Confederate Government, and the consequent altered prospects of the negroes, of whom it was said there were twice as many in the State as in 1860, much apprehension was felt that the material interests of all classes would suffer. Some anticipated utter ruin, and were willing to dispose of their property at nominal prices. A few planters entertained the belief that their negroes would be left to them as slaves, or that at least emancipation would be gradual, but the majority of the wealthy and well informed prepared to accept the new order of things. Almost all were ready to assent to immediate emancipation, provided the able-bodied freedmen were compelled by Government to provide for the maintenance of their women and children. Great numbers of the negroes in their new and untried position, their minds filled with wild and fanciful notions in relation to the boon of freedom, and too ignorant to distinguish between liberty and license, became lazy, insolent, and totally unreliable for steady labor. Many planters were compelled to suspend operations, owing to the difficulty of inducing the negroes to work with regularity. On the 27th of June, at a meeting of the Common Council of Galveston, assembled to take into consideration the altered condition of the colored population and other matters, the mayor took occasion to express his regret that citizens were renting houses to negroes who had left their employers, thus "giving facilities for establishing various nuisances and committing depredations upon citizens." He stated that he had received many representations as to the negroes congregating for improper purposes in the houses they occupied, and the existence of many disorders, to remedy which he was powerless. On the following day several prominent citizens waited upon General Granger, and called his attention to the condition and practices of the negroes, and the provost marshal was instructed to issue the following order:

OFFICE OF PROVOST MARSHAL GENERAL, }
DISTRICT OF TEXAS,
GALVESTON, TEXAS, June 28, 1865.

All persons formerly slaves are earnestly enjoined to remain with their former masters under such contracts as may be made for the present time. Their own interests as well as that of their former masters, or other parties requiring their services, render such a course necessary, and of vital importance, until permanent arrangements are made under the auspices of the Freedmen's Bureau.

It must be borne in mind, in this connection, that cruel treatment or improper use of the authority given to employers will not be permitted; while both parties to the contract made will be equally bound to its fulfilment upon their part.

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OFFICE OF PROVOST MARSHAL GENERAL, }
DISTRICT OF TEXAS, }
GALVESTON, TEXAS, JUNE 23, 1865. }

All persons formerly slaves are earnestly enjoined to remain with their former masters under such contracts as may be made for the present time. Their own interests as well as that of their former masters, or other parties requiring their services, render such a course necessary, and of vital importance, until permanent arrangements are made under the auspices of the Freedmen's Bureau.

It must be borne in mind, in this connection, that cruel treatment or improper use of the authority given to employers will not be permitted; while both parties to the contract made will be equally bound to its fulfillment upon their part.

No persons formerly slaves will be permitted to travel on the public thoroughfares without passes or permits from their employers, or to congregate in buildings, or camps, at or adjacent to any military post or town. They will not be subsisted in idleness, or in any way except as employes of the Government, or in cases of extreme destitution or sickness; and in such cases the officer authorized to order the issues shall be the judge as to the justice of the claim for such subsistence.

Idleness is sure to be productive of vice, and humanity dictates that employment be furnished these people, while the interest of the Commonwealth imperatively demands it, in order that the present crop may be secured. No person, white or black, and who is able to labor, will be subsisted by the Government in idleness, and thus hang as a dead weight upon those who are disposed to bear their full share of the public burdens. Provost marshals and their assistants throughout the district are charged with using every means in their power to carry out these instructions in letter and spirit. By order of

Major-General GRANGER.

R. G. LAUGHLIN, Lieutenant-Colonel and Provost Marshal General, District of Texas.

A similar order was issued by Colonel G. W. Clark, at Houston, where, according to the "Telegraph," nine-tenths of the crimes brought before the courts were perpetrated by negroes. Of the freedmen who continued at work, most remained with their old masters. The following is the testimony of the editor of the Houston "Telegraph":

We have just returned from a trip to Washington County, and found the drought had nearly ruined the corn crops, and it is estimated that only one-half a crop will be made this season. The same will prove true of the potato crop. Cotton looks well, and we have been informed by old citizens that they have never before seen such a fine and heavy yield as this season. We hear loud complaints everywhere of the scarcity of hands to pick and save it. And we saw acres of the finest cotton that ever grew, dropping out of the bolls and wasting for the want of hands to save it. The planters made contracts with their former slaves to remain with them and save the crops, but they proved unfaithful and deserted the first opportunity. Thousands of bales of splendid cotton will be lost in Washington County by this cause, and the neighboring counties are no better off. We have heard good judges estimate the loss by this cause throughout the State to be 40,000 bales. It is a deplorable sight to witness large cotton fields wasting.

Subsequently a better spirit and a more correct understanding as to their new privileges began to prevail with the negroes. This was said to be owing in a great measure to the indefatigable exertions of General Granger, who travelled among them for six weeks, addressing them in plain terms with regard to their duties as well as their rights. More than half the freedmen in the lower part of the State had entered into contracts for 1866 by the 25th of December, and were ready to go to work after the holidays. The contracts were various; some were for specific monthly pay, with food, clothing, medical attendance, and the use of an acre of land; others were for monthly wages and board only; others were for a share of the crops. In some instances the payment of wages was made monthly, in others quarterly, and in others the first quarter's wages were to

be paid at the end of six months, and the balance at the end of the year. The plantations were mostly cultivated by their owners, though large farms were rented both by Northern and Southern men.

A committee, consisting of ex-Governor E. M. Pease and Mr. Swante Palm, appointed by Governor Hamilton to inquire into the condition of the State Treasury, made a report, according to which the debt in November was as follows:

Eight per cent. State Bonds and Interest to 1st Jan., 1866.....	\$998,440 00
Seven per cent. State Bonds and Interest.....	211,180 58
Due to School Fund.....	1,187,406 65
Due to University Fund.....	258,514 23
Fund accrued from estates not collected.....	21,870 90
Fund accrued from escheated estates.....	2,686 71
County Tax Fund.....	8,282 61
Special Loan Tax Fund.....	5,615 11
Assessors' Fees.....	975 66
Ten per cent. Interest Warrants, outstanding, estimate.....	180,000 00
Treasury Warrants outstanding.....	1,888,897 93
Debts due from appropriations not drawn.....	150,000 00
Estimated amount due for Militia.....	150,000 00
Estimated amount due for Soldiers' pay and supplies and transportation.....	8,000,000 00
Debt of the late Republic of Texas.....	110,613 28
Amount due J. M. Moore by Military Board.....	7,091 14
Amount due Oliver & Bro.'s by Military Board.....	10,042 62
Amount due W. S. Reed & Co. by Military Board.....	2,048 09
Probable amount that will be claimed by individuals for cotton lost under Gov. Murrah's cotton operations, say.....	80,000 00
Total.....	\$8,194,082 58
To which may be added amount placed to the credit of the several Special Funds in the Treasury in Confederate notes, as before stated.....	519,963 09
Total.....	\$8,714,065 67

There is probably no State in the Union where railroads can be constructed with so little labor and expense as in Texas, the grading being comparatively light, or where they are more needed to convey to a market the vast product of hogs, sheep, cattle, flour, and grain, for which the home consumption is not adequate to take up a thousandth part. The railroads already constructed, and in running order in July, were the Houston and Texas Central, from Hempstead to Brenham's, thirty miles; the Buffalo Bayou, Brazos, and Colorado road, from Harrisburg to Alleyton, eighty miles; the Houston Tap and Brazoria road, from Houston to Columbia, forty-five miles; the Galveston, Houston, and Henderson road, from Galveston to Houston, fifty miles; the Texas and New Orleans road, from Houston to Beaumont, sixty-five miles; and that from Shreveport, Louisiana, to Marshall. Railroads were also in the course of construction from Brazos Santiago to Brownsville, about thirty miles, and from Indianola to Victoria, about forty miles. The rolling stock on these roads was, however, unreliable and unsafe, having been much abused during the war.

The resources of this great State, six times as large as Pennsylvania, and containing thirty-three thousand square miles more than France, are only very partially developed. It is reasonable to suppose that when political

affairs become fully settled, an extensive immigration will set in, especially as its attractions become better known. The sugar and cotton region of Texas lies along the coast and a few miles up the river bottoms. These lands, though highly productive, are unhealthy, and require large capital and extensive experience in the raising of cotton and sugar to be cultivated with profit. Higher up the rivers, and behind the coast flats, is the cotton and corn region, embracing what are called the central counties. Though there are many small farms scattered through these counties, they are preëminently the seat of great plantations cultivated by the aid of negroes and mules, and a small farmer from the North would hardly feel at home among them. All the bottom lands in this section are deep, rich cotton soils, covered with a very heavy growth of cotton-wood, sycamore, elm, and other trees, crowded with underbrush, twined with vines and overhung with moss. They abound in alligators, snakes, turtles, lizards, mosquitoes, and flies; but when cleared are among the best cotton lands in the world, and though somewhat unhealthy are largely and profitably worked. Up to 1860 such lands sold uncleared at about ten dollars an acre. The balance of these lands are prairie, varying from a light sandy loam to the deepest and blackest "hogwallow," all suitable for cotton or corn.

Northwest of the central counties lies the grain region, which embraces all northern and northwestern Texas, as far as the Indian country. Commencing on the Guadalupe southwest of Austin, the grain lands stretch in a wide belt to the Red River. It is a beautiful rolling country of prairie and timber, intersected by most of the important rivers and their tributaries. Along the banks of these clear, rapid streams, are thousands of settlements, surrounded by fields of corn and grain, and herds of cattle. And yet, as the traveller rides from cabin to cabin, and from county to county, he feels that the whole country is still almost a wilderness.

The Colorado, which runs in a northwesterly direction through the centre of the State, forms the southwestern limit of the reliable farming region. Though the soil is good on the southwestern side of the river, and the country even more beautiful as well as more healthy still further west, there are comparatively few great farms, and none entirely reliable for crops, because of the droughts that often prevail. The most careless traveller is struck with the evidences of a dry country everywhere. The prairies grow gradually larger and larger further west, and put on more and more of the garb of a dry climate. The mesquit grass, green, juicy, and sweet in winter, but brown and rusty in summer, though still good for stock, becomes plentiful; the prickly pear and the cactus appear, wood-lands grow scarce and the river bottoms narrow, often with but a thread of timber to mark the windings of the

streams. Here in the long days of summer the rich black prairies bake and crisp till they seam and crack, and long winding clefts appear that every day's sun opens more and more, till they become traps into which both beast and rider may fall.

The great natural pastures, commencing upon the coast and sweeping up to New Mexico on the west, and thence around to the Red River on the north, a thousand miles in length and hundreds in width, are not left untillied because lacking in wealth of soil, convenience of location, beauty of scenery or purity of atmosphere, for western Texas abounds in all these, but from the absence of rain. Between the Colorado and San Antonio is a territory common to the plough and to cattle. Beyond the San Antonio the country watered by the Aransas, the Nueces, the Rio Pecos, and the Rio Grande, is all either occupied by stock-raisers or still vacant, the few plantations and farms once opened having been abandoned after a disastrous experience in waiting for rains. This great stock country has hundreds of thousands of cattle, horses, and sheep scattered over it, and living summer and winter upon its grasses without ever tasting hay or grain, and is annually sending to market immense herds, as valuable as though they had been fed through the long winters, and stalled in costly barns on turnips and corn.

The desert is a sandy, unwatered region, thinly covered with coarse grass, in the vicinity of New Mexico, including the "Staked Plains." There is also a long strip of the same kind of country between the Nueces and the Rio Grande, a hundred miles wide, separating Brownsville and the Mexican frontier from Corpus Christi and the settlements on the Nueces. The borders of the desert are available for pasture, but the interior is worthless for want of water, which, however, may be obtained by digging wells. The camping-grounds of Gen. Taylor, on his march across the desert from Corpus Christi to Matamoras, are marked by the great wells he dug to supply his troops with fresh water, some of which are still used.

The rivers of Texas are generally clear, and rapid, and shallow, and with unreliable navigation; but subject to sudden overflows, when every thing movable on the bottom lands is swept away. The large rivers, like the Brazos, owing to great rains in the regions of the headwaters, often rise from low water to full banks in twenty-four hours, when within hundreds of miles there is not a drop of rain falling. In the western part of the State this feature is changed, and the Rio Pecos creeps so quietly through an open, unmarked country, that a traveller might ride within five hundred yards of it and yet perish with thirst.

Any one intending to raise stock in connection with corn and grain, may settle anywhere north of the Colorado and west of the belt of post-oaks that runs up through Bastrop, Burleson, Milam, and Falls Counties, if he take care to shun the Blackjack and Landy post-oak lands

and to get plenty of good water, and rail-timber near enough for fencing. But stock-growing connected with farming never attains the dimensions nor yields the profit that it does in the purely stock country where no farming is carried on. To make the most of cattle-raising, the settler should go west of the Colorado, and from there to the Rio Grande he can hardly go amiss, if he avoid districts closely settled and seek open country, securing good water, with rail-timber enough for pens, and wood enough to burn. If he can put his cabin and pens on the south side of a piece of timber, it will be all the better, since this affords a natural shelter against the cold north winds of winter. It is better, also, to have broad, open prairies on one side for summer range, and wooded hills or river bottom on the other side for winter. If so situated, the stock will take to the open prairies in good weather, and to the shelter of the hills and bottom lands in storms, and will scatter much less than in an entirely open country like the great coast prairies.

The settler having built his pens and cabin, buys his cattle, to be delivered to him in the pen on a given day. If he takes "stock cattle," he gets cows, calves, and one and two-year-olds in equal numbers, and pays about seven dollars a head. Thus for four hundred cattle—of which one hundred are cows, one hundred calves, one hundred one-year-olds, and one hundred two-year-olds—he pays \$2,700. If he buys cows and calves, he gets the same number, that is, two hundred cows and their two hundred calves for the same money. He then fixes upon a brand for the hip or shoulder, and a mark for the ear, and has them recorded in the county records. It is always best to buy the tract where the cattle are to run, as it saves the expense of driving to a new range and herding. In the spring, for about two months, the stock-raiser knows no rest. Early and late he is riding the country, gathering up his stock and branding his calves. Then he rests till the fall, when he once more gathers, to sell his beeves. The whole country is open throughout the great stock region, and no fences set their stakes against the wandering of the cattle. They are not herded, and of course their range is a wide one.

If a stranger go to Texas with the determination to make sheep-raising his business, he should go directly to Austin, and then crossing the Colorado, and keeping west of the San Antonio road, begin to look for his ranch, for all that region is sheep country, and the best in the State. For hundreds of miles along the road, west of Austin and lying immediately northwest of the road for a very great distance, is a peculiar hilly and broken country, having plenty of short, sweet, winter grass for pasturage, and good running water; dry and gravelly hills enough to secure good health to the flock, unless scab get in; and gorges and cedar-brakes enough for shelter against the storms and cold winds. The settler must be careful to secure

good water, with wood enough to burn, and rail-timber enough for his sheep-pens. He must also make calculations for pasturage, when his flocks shall have increased largely. If he locate upon a stream having a very large tract of unwatered country behind it, he may buy a few acres along its banks near a cedar-brake, and trust to the great open country for pasturage. If he settle in a country watered on all hands, he will have to buy a large amount of land for the future grazing of his flocks. Whoever cannot monopolize the water around him will soon have many neighbors and too many flocks near him, unless he own large tracts himself. By a law of the State, all herded flocks must be kept from trespassing. But large tracts of country are open to all, and for sheep-raising are valuable only to those who control the watering-places. Cattle and horses roam over them at large, going long distances for water. The land being selected and bought—at from fifty cents to ten dollars an acre—rail pens are made close and high enough to keep out the wolves, and in a position sheltered from the northers, either on the south side of a bluff, a close cedar-brake, or a close stone fence. Along the north side a shelter-shed is put up, made of crotched posts and rails, with a roof covered with hay, straw, earth, or boards, to turn off the rains and keep the lambs dry, and then the sheep-yards are ready. A log house, pole camp, or cloth tent is then put up, a Scotch or German shepherd engaged, the flock bought, and business begun. The owner's house is put up afterwards.

It is better usually to purchase the flock in the country, as the sheep are then acclimated, and not worn down by long driving. Pure merinos are the most profitable; but being also most expensive, Mexican and mixed breeds are usually first purchased and then bred up by crossing with merino bucks. In 1860 merino ewes were worth by the flock about ten dollars a head; good Missouri or mixed, five dollars; and Mexican three dollars. A couple of generations' breeding up by pure bucks brings out a good flock from either kind. It is, however, more profitable to buy at first a better grade. A flock of five hundred good grade sheep with a pure merino buck may be bought for about three thousand dollars. One shepherd with a good dog can take care of five hundred sheep the year through, or of a thousand, except in the combing season. Few flocks are fed above what they get on the prairies; but it is well to give them a little corn or oats, or cotton-seed, or cultivated hay, through the months of January and February. If a flock is kept healthy it is the most profitable stock-raising in the world. The increase of a sheep begins at one year old, and in ten years, without loss, amounts to over a hundred-fold. The increase of a flock of five hundred sheep would therefore be worth in ten years, without drawbacks, not less than \$300,000, a business sufficiently profitable to allow a large margin for accidents and ill luck, and still leave the results very satisfactory. To

this must be added the annual clips of wool, on an average four pounds to the fleece, sold at forty cents a pound. Wool is a cash article in Texas, and can always be sold at its New York and Boston value, less the cost of transportation and insurance. The majority of wool-growers shear their sheep dry, and sell the wool in the dirt. Of those who do wash, not one in ten makes a clean job of it. Shearers go through the country in April and May, shearing at from five to eight cents per head, and tying the fleeces for sacking.

Wolves and half-wild dogs and hogs are the worst enemies of the sheep-raiser, and his folds should be wolf and hog tight. Either when hungry will attack the flock in the pen or on the prairie, and if not driven off, kill great numbers. The hogs kill only the lambs, but are terribly destructive in early spring.

THALLIUM. Among the recently discovered metals, this appears still to command the highest interest. M. Böttger has indicated a new source of this metal in the crystalline salt obtained from the mother-liquor in the salt-works at Manheim, and in which minute quantities of its chloride exist along with much of the chlorides of cesium and rubidium. R. Bunsen has also obtained thallium from a lye from the Rammelsberg pyrites in the sulphate of zinc works at Goslar. The simplest process is that of placing in the cold lye sheets of zinc: a nearly equal weight of a spongy metallic precipitate is secured. This, washed and suitably treated, yields for every cubic metre of the lye, and along with some lead and zinc, also 7.4 kilog. of cadmium, 1.6 do. of copper, and 0.6 do. of thallium. Digesting with water to which sulphuric acid is from time to time added, the cadmium and thallium dissolve, leaving the copper; and adding iodide of potassium, the result is a precipitate of 0.97 kilog. of pure iodide of thallium, readily purified by washing.

The symbol adopted for thallium is Tl; its equivalent is 204, or according to Werther about 203.5. M. Lamy finds the usual series of phosphates, pyrophosphates, and metaphosphate of thallium: these salts are distinguished from those of the alkalis proper by giving—their solutions being neither too hot nor too dilute—white precipitates with both chlorhydric and nitric acids. M. Strecker has investigated the salts of the peroxide of thallium, or thallic oxide, TlO_2 —those of thallic oxide having been before examined. Among the former he finds a sulphate and nitrate, and several double salts, including an oxalate of peroxide of thallium and ammonia. By experiment on animals, M. Lamy finds that thallium, at least in form of sulphate, possesses very decided poisonous properties; and M. Paulet has also treated of the same, in a memoir to the French Academy.

It is stated that thallium is very generally found associated with potassium and sodium; and Lamy's classification of it with the alkaline metals is still sustained by many reactions, and especially by its forming by substitution a series

of alcohols, the *thallic*, the analogy of which to those afforded in like manner by potassium and sodium is striking. In this view of the nature and relations of thallium, Dumas and Böttger coincide. M. Erdmann, on the contrary, insists on certain differences between thallium and the alkaline metals; as, that while the oxide of the former behaves as an alkali, its carbonate, unlike those of potassa and soda, does not show the alkaline reaction. M. Nicklès also, agreeing with the view of Mr. Crookes, indicates resemblances of thallium to lead; as, that it can be made to form a sort of "tree of Saturn;" that it yields an oxide, sulphide, chloride and iodide, that are insoluble in water; and that its compounds, like the lead preparations, are highly poisonous. In conductivity for heat, also, it approaches lead, or more closely, perhaps, iron. In a note in the *Amer. Jour. of Science*, January, 1866, M. Nicklès cites from his own communication in the *Journal of Chemistry and Pharmacy*, of November preceding, the fact that we have now an alum with a base of silver, as also one with a thallium base, isomorphous with that of potash, etc.; and he infers that all these bodies, unlike in other respects, and perhaps barium also, as suggested by Baudrimont, may be put in the same group. The facts, he thinks, show that thallium should be considered as a point of union between the alkaline metals on one side and lead and silver on the other.

The thallic alcohols are formed by replacing an equivalent of hydrogen in wood-spirit, common alcohol, etc., by one of thallium, giving $C_2H_5(Tl)O$, $C_4H_9(Tl)O$, $C_6H_{11}(Tl)O$, etc. The *first* of these, the methyl-compound, is solid and crystalline. The *second*, ethyl-thallic alcohol, *i. e.*, the analogue of common alcohol, is a heavy, colorless, oily liquid: density at $0^\circ C.$, 3.55; indices of refraction for the spectral lines *B* and *H*, respectively 1.661 and 1.759; dispersive power—difference of the preceding values, —0.098 (that of bisulphide of carbon being but 0.079). Thus, this is at once the heaviest, the most refractive, and the most dispersive of yet known organic compounds. The *third*, or amyl-thallic alcohol, is also a colorless oil. These alcohols decompose on boiling, and by addition of most acids, of chloroform, or of water—the last producing a hydrate of oxide of thallium, and regenerating the alcohol proper. They are all soluble in the corresponding alcohol and in ether; and they burn in air with the green flame proper to the metal. M. Nicklès has prepared a memoir upon chloro- and bromo-metallic ethers of thallium.

The author last named has also shown that spectrum-analysis fails to reveal the presence of thallium, when its compounds are blended with those of sodium, and especially with its chloride, the green ray in these cases not making its appearance. It will follow, in view of the known presence of sodium in the atmosphere of the sun and in those of some of the fixed stars, that, although their light may

not show the green thallium line, the metal can still be present upon those bodies. Further, before testing mineral waters with the spectro-scope for thallium, it would appear necessary to free the former of sodium-compounds; and a search for the poison of thallium in the animal viscera should be preceded by a like elimination.

THORIUM. From analyses of its sulphate, obtained by action of sulphuric acid on orange-ite or on thorite, Delafontaine has determined the equivalent of this element. The sulphate, as first procured, is described as heavy, white, and caseous; consisting of extremely fine felted needles; later, without too much water, it changes to clear and colorless crystals. The anhydrous salt on ignition gave 52.51 per cent. of pure thoria. In two forms of hydrated sulphate, the unusual composition is presented of 9 HO to four atoms of sulphate proper in the one, and to two in the other. The author regards the true formula of thoria as ThO_2 . In this case, taking $\text{O}=8$, the equivalent of thorium is 115.6; while, assuming $\text{O}=16$, its equivalent (the element being considered tetratomic) must be doubled, and becomes 231.2.

TRICHONOSIS. (See SWINE.)

TUNGSTEN. In an extended memoir on this metal and its compounds (*Ann. de Chimie et de Physique*, January, 1864), Persoz has stated conclusions differing widely from those received among chemists, and some of which are the following: 1. That the constitution and properties of its oxides show tungsten to belong to the group of biatomic radicals, arsenic, antimony, and phosphorus. 2. That its equivalent, oxygen=8, is 153.2. 3. That with oxygen it forms two compounds, an oxide and an acid, and containing respectively three and five equivalents of oxygen. 4. That by their union these two produce a third oxide (of the class of saline oxides of Dumas), corresponding to the formula, 2WO_3 . 5. That sulphur, chlorine, and bromine form with it compounds corresponding to those given by oxygen. 6. That mixtures of variable proportions of anhydrous acid with the corresponding chloride have been mistaken for an oxychloride, which latter this element, any more than phosphorus, does not afford.

TURKEY, an empire in Eastern Europe, Western Asia, and Northern Africa. Present ruler, Sultan Abdul-Aziz-Khan, born February 9, 1830; succeeded his brother, June 25, 1857. Heir apparent, Abdul-Medjid-Khan, nephew of the Sultan. The area and population of the empire are estimated as follows:

	Area in English square miles.	Population.
Possessions in Europe.....	207,488	15,730,000
" Asia.....	660,870	16,850,000
" Africa.....	943,740	5,650,000

It is estimated that the trade of Turkey with foreign countries amounted, in 1863, to £46,000,000, and that between the provinces to £20,000,000, making a total of £66,000,000 for the year.

On April 19th an imperial decree was issued

creating a Privy Council composed of the heads of the various Government departments. The decree provides that the Privy Council be held under the personal presidency of the Sultan, and meet weekly at the palace.

The most important reform measure prepared and partly executed during the year 1865, was the confiscation by the State Government of the property of the mosques. Acting on his civil prerogative, and in spite of the Ulema who threaten him with the canon law of the Koran, the Sultan determined to convert the whole of the mosque lands into a salable and transferable tenure, subject only to limitation of the right of testamentary demise in the event of a failure of heirs, when the escheat will no longer be to the clergy but to the State. Thus, in Turkey as in Italy, the ecclesiastical lands will be secularized. The mosques will receive twenty or thirty per cent. of the revenue from them, a change which will almost triple their income; and the State, instead of paying as hitherto a large supplemental sum to the mosques, will enjoy from ten to twelve million dollars annually. On the lands thus converted—and almost all Constantinople stands on such mosque land—capitalists will now be tempted to advance money, others will purchase them, and the greatest obstacle to progress in Turkey, next to Mohammedanism itself, will be removed.

At the meeting of the Social Science Congress, in 1865, an instructive paper on female education among the Christian subjects of the Porte was contributed by Misses G. M. Mackenzie and Irby. There are from seven to eight millions of Slavonic Christians in the Ottoman Empire. Wherever the Christians have a native government, public instruction is an object of solicitude; whereas the Mohammedan Government of Turkey does nothing for the education of its Christian subjects. For instance, the self-governing principality of Servia, with one million of inhabitants, has, during the last thirty-five years, provided itself with 818 primary schools, 6 gymnasias, 2 commercial schools, a theological seminary, a civil and military academy; while in neighboring Bulgaria, which is administered by Mussulmans, five to six millions of Slavonic inhabitants have not a single Slavonic academy or higher seminary. In the smaller Slavonic districts—Old Servia, Herzegovina, and Bosnia—education stands still lower than in Bulgaria. Female education was impeded by the lack of qualified teachers, not to be obtained in Turkey, and young girls could not well be sent out of their own country to be trained. However, the native women themselves had started some schools, which, if supplied with proper teachers, would form a most hopeful instrument for civilizing the community. To undertake this work an Association has been formed for the "promotion of education among the Slavonic Christians in Turkey." The scheme is purely educational, without any object of making proselytes from the Oriental Church,

one of its patrons being the Archbishop of Canterbury, another the Metropolitan of Servia.

The emigration of the Circassian tribes to Turkey continued, in 1865, unabated. Two thousand Tchechers with their arms, horses, and cattle, were received at Kars by the Turkish authorities, having been conducted thither by Russian officers. The whole of the tribe, numbering some 60,000 souls, was expected to follow the same route, and be dispersed over the district of Mouch, Sirvas, and Diarbekir. The Kabardians also intimated their desire to emigrate, but the Porte replied to their application that it could not receive them before next year. Another tribe, the Abases, expressed a wish to return to their native mountains, and requested the Turkish Government to furnish them with vessels for the purpose. They were, however, informed that they might either proceed to Russia by land, or be distributed in the provinces of the interior. The arrivals in Turkey, up to the last months of 1865, make the total number of Circassian emigrants encamped on the Asiatic shore of the Black Sea 172,000.

The people of the United Danubian Principalities (Roumania, Moldo-Wallachia) seemed to acquiesce in the *coup d'état* accomplished on May 14, 1864, and in all the decrees issued by the Prince since that time.* There was, however, a strong dissatisfaction with the administration of the Prince among a large portion of the people, and on August 15th an insurrection, which had been expected for some time, broke out at Bucharest. A shot fired in the market-

place was the signal agreed upon, and the people at once attacked the soldiers, who were compelled to retreat. The authorities, however, soon brought out all the troops at their command, and the insurrection was put down. The presumed leaders of the insurrection, MM. Bratiano, Golesco, Brailo, and Rosetti, were arrested. It was commonly believed that the outbreak in Bucharest was connected with a widely spread organization, embracing Bosnia, Servia, and Bulgaria, for the old object of shaking off the last remnant of dependency on the Ottoman Government.

On December 17th, Prince Couza opened the Roumanian Chambers with the customary solemnities, and delivered a lengthy speech, reviewing the situation of the country. He announced to the deputies that he conceded to them the right of interpellation, and the means of carrying it into effect. The settlement of the Orthodox Roumanian Church had been realized by the installation to the National Synod. The civil code had been in force since the 1st of December, 1864, and the criminal code since April, 1865. The new organization of the courts and trial by jury afforded the surest guaranty of impartiality to all accused persons. The surveys for the railway from Galatz to the Austrian frontier were completed, and a portion of the works had already begun. The contractors for the railway from Bucharest to Giurgevo, were making ready to commence operations. An extradition cartel and telegraphic conventions had been concluded with Austria, Russia, and Servia.

U.

UNION COMMISSION, THE, now known, in consequence of its coalition with the Freedmen's Commission, as "THE AMERICAN FREEDMEN'S AND UNION COMMISSION." In the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864, some account was given, under the head of U. S. UNION COMMISSION, of the origin and early progress of this organization. At the close of active operations of the war, it found a great work upon its hands, and was compelled to make earnest appeals to the public for funds. There were vast numbers of poor whites and blacks, many of them persons who had once lived in luxury, who were reduced by the war to a condition of beggary. Most of these who needed immediate assistance, were doubtless in the cities and larger towns of the South; the greater part of them were loyal to the United States Government, but had been unable to leave the South, and some of them had been imprisoned for their loyalty. To these and to the thousands who made their way to the Northern

cities the Union Commission extended temporary relief, sending its agents to Savannah, Charleston, Richmond, and other points in the South, aiding about 20,000 suffering poor in Middle Tennessee, and a much larger number in East Tennessee and Western Virginia; about 15,000 in Richmond and vicinity, and sending supplies of clothing, seeds, agricultural implements, etc., over all the South, and particularly into the Valley of the Shenandoah, where there was great destitution. It also established temporary homes for refugees in New York City, Philadelphia, Baltimore, etc. Another branch of its work was the establishment or reopening (where they had formerly existed) of free schools for the children of the poor. It has been especially active in this work in Tennessee, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Georgia, and in some portions of Virginia. It had expended, to October, 1865, about \$150,000 in money and supplies. In the autumn, however, the barracks where the refugees had received aid, and rations from Government were nearly all closed, and as the Government care for the white refugees had been turned over to the

* See ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1864, for a full account of the *coup d'état*.

Freedmen's Bureau, with which the Freedmen's Commission or the local organizations of which it was composed were working in concert, it seems desirable to have but one organization to appeal to the public for aid, and thus to reduce the working expenses while maintaining the efficiency of the charitable operations in which both were now engaged. The aims and objects of the two organizations were, to a considerable extent, identical, for while the Union Commission aided blacks as well as whites, the Freedmen's Commission opened the doors of its schools and its stores of supplies to whites as well as blacks. Fully impressed with the idea that they could become more efficient by consolidation than by separate action, a proposition for union was made by the Freedmen's Commission in November, 1865, and a conference committee from the two Commissions appointed, who agreed upon a plan which was, after a full discussion, ratified at a joint meeting of the two Commissions, held at the Chamber of Commerce, in New York, and this was finally consummated by the adoption of a Constitution, on the 31st of January. At the meetings at which this union was effected, representatives were present from Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Pittsburg, Cleveland, and Chicago. The union was subsequently formally ratified by the Societies in New England, New York, Cleveland, and Detroit. The

fundamental principle of the Commission, as thus organized, was set forth in the Constitution in these words:

The object of this Commission is to aid and co-operate with the people of the South, without distinction of race or color, in the improvement of their condition upon the basis of industry, education, freedom, and Christian morality. No schools or supply depots shall be maintained from the benefits of which any shall be excluded because of color.—*Art. II. Constitution.*

The officers of the new consolidated organization were—Bishop Matthew Simpson, Philadelphia, President; Rev. Joseph P. Thompson, D. D., N. Y. William Lloyd Garrison, Boston; Charles G. Hammond, Chicago, Vice-Presidents; Francis G. Shaw, New York, Chairman Executive Committee; Rev. Lyman Abbott, General Secretary, New York; J. Miller McKim, Corresponding Secretary, New York; George C. Ward, Esq., Treasurer, New York; Rev. J. R. Shipherd, Washington Secretary, Washington, D. C.; Rev. J. M. Walden, D. D., Western Secretary, Chicago. The headquarters of the Commission were in New York.

The work of the United Commissions belongs to the year 1866, and must be recorded in our next volume. We append, however, the following table, which exhibits, though not quite completely, the operations of the two organizations during the year 1865:

TABLE OF OPERATIONS OF FREEDMEN'S COMMISSION AND OF UNION COMMISSION IN PART. SHOWING NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, PUPILS, AUXILIARIES, MONIES, SUPPLIES, ETC., FOR THE YEAR 1865.

ORGANIZATION.	Number of Schools.	Number of Teachers.	Number of Pupils.	Number of Auxiliaries.	Am't of Money Collected.	Value of Supplies Collected.	Money and Supplies from Abroad.	Value of Supplies Shipped.	Am't of Money Expended.
New England Branch.....	60	150	10,000	88	\$69,842 99	\$60,000 00	\$500 00	\$70,500 00	\$68,921 95
New York N. F. R. A.....	124	248	13,744	836	99,285 97	72,562 19	73,548 48	181,080 79	60,590 41
Penn. Freedmen's Relief Association	92	62	5,000	90	48,524 45	10,500 00	400 00	20,448 48	49,000 00
Maryland Branch*.....	11	11	850	...	8,506 20	...	5,154 05	...	13,491 25
Maryland Union Commission.....	11,000 00	9,000 00	...	20,000 00	10,000 00
Cleveland Branch†.....	75	8,284 20	7,500 00	...	7,500 00	885 03
Michigan Branch (Detroit).....	4	4	200	...	12,826 75	13,871 08
N. Western Freedmen's Aid Com.‡.....	27	158	5,000	221	79,546 05	25,000 00	...	23,000 00	70,000 00
Indiana Freedmen's Aid Com.....	8	9	800	20	8,000 00	6,000 00	...	7,000 00	8,000 00
Western Freedmen's Aid Com.§.....	40	128	5,000	...	68,161 48	68,776 00	...	168,776 00	58,427 74
Pittsburg Freedmen's Aid Com.¶.....	6	18	850
Totals.....	307	773	40,744	880	\$402,923 09	\$367,709 22	\$84,597 48	\$493,255 27	\$323,670 06

* This statement is merely a proximate showing of the teachers paid by the Baltimore Association. There are in Maryland, under the direction of this Branch, but sustained in part by other Associations, and included in their reports, a total as follows: Schools, 60; teachers, 63; pupils enrolled, 6,000; average attendance, 5,000.

† Since January 1st, the amount in the treasury has been increased to \$6,023.45, the expenditures to \$23,662.62, goods to the value of \$48,500 have been shipped, and arrangements have been made for opening schools at Atlanta, Selma, Montgomery, and Talladega.

‡ The present number of teachers employed is 54.

§ The report received shows schools at 28 different points, but not the number at each point. This statement as to the total number of schools is based upon estimates received through other sources. Agents are included among the teachers in this report, and the last monthly report shows but 47 teachers and 24 schools now in actual service. Of the \$63,000 and odd collected, a considerable portion was received from Europe.

¶ No report has been received from the Pittsburg Association. These figures are obtained from a recently published newspaper report.

In all, probably from \$75,000 to \$100,000 Commission than is here accounted for in the more was received and expended by the Union foregoing table.

UNITARIANS. The first National Convention of the Unitarians of the United States, assembled in New York on April 5th, in pursuance to a call from the Committee of Ten (8 ministers and 7 laymen), which had been appointed at the special meeting of the American Unitarian Association, held in Boston, on December 7, 1864. The Convention elected the following officers: President, Gov. John A. Andrew, of Massachusetts; Vice-Presidents, Hon. T. D. Eliot, of New Bedford; Hon. John G. Palfrey, Cambridge, Mass.; Hon. Wayman Crowe, St. Louis; Hon. Ichabod Goodwin, Portsmouth, N. H.; Hon. A. A. Low, Brooklyn; Hon. William C. Bryant, New York; Rev. Orville Dewey, D. D., Sheffield, Mass.; Rev. E. S. Gannett, D. D., Boston; Rev. George W. Hosmer, D. D., Buffalo. Secretaries, Rev. E. E. Hall, Boston; Rev. Carleton A. Staples, Milwaukee; J. A. Frothingham, Esq., Brooklyn. Treasurer, H. P. Kidder, Esq., Boston.

Reports were made to the Convention from the American Unitarian Association, the Western Conference, the Maine Unitarian Conference, the Meadville Theological School, the Unitarian Association of New York, the New Hampshire Association, the Sunday-school Society, the Massachusetts Evangelical Missionary Society. The Committee on Credentials reported 190 congregations, represented by 379 lay delegates, and with few exceptions by their pastors; also delegates from several associations. Rev. Dr. Bellows, chairman of the Committee of Twelve, to whom were referred all doctrinal points, reported the following constitution for adoption by the Convention:

Constitution of the National Unitarian Convention.
—PREAMBLE. Whereas, The great opportunities and demands for Christian labor and consecration increase our sense of the obligation of all disciples of the Lord Jesus Christ to prove their faith by self-denial and by the devotion of their lives and possessions to the service of God and the building up of the kingdom of his Son:

ART. 1. Therefore, the Christian churches of the Unitarian faith here assembled unite themselves in a common body to be known as the National Conference of Unitarian Churches, to the end of reorganizing and stimulating the denomination with which they are connected to the largest exertions in the cause of Christian faith and work.

ART. 2. This National Convention shall be composed of such delegates elected annually, not to exceed three from any church, including its minister, who shall officially be one, as any of our churches may accredit to it by a certificate of their appointment.

ART. 3. The American Unitarian Association, the Western Conference, and such other theological, academic, or humane organizations in our body as the Conference may see fit to invite, shall be entitled to representation by no more than three delegates each.

ART. 4. The Conference shall meet annually at such time as it may designate at its successive annual sessions.

ART. 5. The officers shall consist of a president, six vice-presidents, three secretaries, an honorary, a recording, and corresponding secretary, and a council of ten, half ministers and half laymen, who shall be elected at each meeting, to hold their office for one year and until their successors are appointed.

ART. 6. The Council of Ten shall have charge, during the intervals of the annual sessions, of all business having reference to the interests of the Conference, and intrusted to it by that body, which is hereby declared a purely advisory one.

ART. 7. The National Conference, until further advised by its experience, adopts the existing organizations of the Unitarian body as the instruments of its power, and confines itself to recommending to them such undertakings and methods as it judges to be in the heart of the Unitarian denomination.

ART. 8. The foregoing constitution may be amended at any regular meeting of the Conference, by a vote of not less than two-thirds of the delegates accredited thereto.

After an animated debate, the constitution and the preamble were adopted. Mr. William Cullen Bryant, from the Committee on Patriotic Resolutions, reported the following:

Resolved, That this Convention give solemn thanks to Almighty God for the success with which He has crowned the arms of the United States in the war for the suppression of a most wicked rebellion, for the very near prospect of peace, and for the opening which is made by the extinction of slavery for the diffusion of Christianity in its true spirit, as a religion of love, mercy, and universal liberty.

The words "and universal liberty" were added on the motion of the Rev. J. S. May. The resolution was then adopted by rising.

The Convention resolved to raise, during the coming year, and hereafter annually, the sum of \$100,000 for denominational purposes, and to raise another \$100,000 for the endowment of Antioch College (Yellow Springs, Ohio), which, by a recent amendment of the charter, had passed from the joint control of the Unitarians and the Christian Connection under the sole control of the Unitarians. A great difference of opinion was found to prevail among the members as to the person of Christ and the doctrine of the Unitarian Church, though it led to no open rupture. The following resolutions, which had been offered by A. A. Low, were referred to the Committee of Ten:

That this Convention should claim the assent of all who participate in it to the following fundamental doctrines: 1. Belief in the Holy Scriptures as containing a revelation of God to man and as deduced therefrom. 2. Belief in one God the Father. 3. Belief in one Lord Jesus Christ our Saviour, the Son of God, and His specially appointed messenger and representative to our race, gifted with supernatural powers, approved of God by miracles and signs and wonders which God did by Him. 4. Belief in the Holy Ghost, the Comforter. 5. Belief in the forgiveness of sins, the resurrection from the dead, and life everlasting.

In accordance with a report of the Committee on Nominations, the following were chosen officers of the National Conference, until the next annual meeting: For president, Governor Andrew; vice-presidents, Messrs. Hosmer, Palfrey, Low (of Brooklyn), Goodwin, and Dewey; honorary secretary, Mr. Carlton; corresponding secretary, Mr. Hale; recording secretary, J. H. Frothingham. For members of the council, Messrs. Bellows, Carter, Partridge, Eaton, Clarke (of Boston), Eliot, Low (of Massachusetts), Sawyer, Hopworth, and Mayo.

At the annual meeting of the British and Foreign Unitarian Association, the following motion was offered by Dr. Bache, of Birmingham, for the purpose of defining the doctrinal standpoint of English Unitarians:

That, *whereas*, since the last annual meeting of this association, the terms Christ, Christian, Christianity, have been employed by some Unitarian writers and in some Unitarian publications as consistent either with clearly-implied or distinctly-avowed repudiation of the special and immediate divine origin and authority of the Christian revelation; and *whereas* an ambiguity has thereby been occasioned in the terms which at present define the principles and objects of this Unitarian Association, the committee for the ensuing year be instructed to take measures for the removal of that ambiguity, and so to express the principle and objects of the Association that no reasonable doubt may remain respecting them.

The motion was rejected.

UNITED STATES. The dawn of the year 1865 found the Northern States more vigorously engaged in the prosecution of the war than at any previous time. A new levy of men had been called in December, and the greatest activity prevailed to make up the quota of cities, towns, and counties, before the 15th of February, when a draft was ordered to take place to fill the deficiencies. At the same time there was no cessation of hostilities; the armies kept the field, and vigorously pressed the enemy at every point. The earnestness of all these efforts was inspired by the belief on the part of the Government and people that the end was near, and a complete victory on their side almost within grasp. Equal exertions were made to consummate those civil and political measures supposed to be indispensable upon the success of the Federal arms. The antislavery amendment of the Constitution, which had failed in the House at the previous session of Congress, was reconsidered by that body immediately after it convened in December, and passed in January ensuing. This action of that body was made the occasion for a serenade of President Lincoln and others. On addressing the assemblage on the evening of January 31st, the President said:

He supposed the passage through Congress of the constitutional amendment for the abolishment of slavery throughout the United States was the occasion to which he was indebted for the honor of this call. The occasion was one of congratulation to the country and the whole world. But there is a task yet before us—to go forward and have consummated by the votes of the States that which Congress had so nobly begun yesterday. He had the honor to inform those present that Illinois had already to-day done the work. Maryland was about half through, but he felt proud that Illinois was a little ahead. He thought the measure was a very fitting, if not an indispensable adjunct to the winding up of this great difficulty. He wished the reunion of all the States perfected, and so effected as to remove all cause of disturbance in the future; and to attain this end it was necessary that the original disturbing cause should, if possible, be rooted out.

He thought all would bear him witness that he had never shrunk from doing all that he could to eradicate slavery, by issuing an emancipation proclamation. But that proclamation falls far short of what the amendment will be when fully consummated. A

question might be raised whether the proclamation was legally valid. It might be argued that it only aided those who came into our lines, and that it was inoperative as to those who did not give themselves up; or that it would have no effect upon the children of slaves born hereafter; in fact, it would be urged that it did not meet the evil. But this amendment is a king's cure-all for all the evils. It winds the whole thing up. He would repeat that it was the fitting, if not the indispensable, adjunct to the consummation of the great game we are playing. He could not but congratulate all present, himself, the country, and the whole world, upon this great moral victory. In conclusion, he thanked those present for the call.

The proceedings of the Government relative to peace resulted in an interview at Fortress Monroe between President Lincoln and Secretary Seward, on the one side, and Messrs. A. H. Stephens, Campbell, and Hunter, on the other: they are stated in full in the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA*, vol. iv., for 1864, pp. 710, etc. This interview was followed by an excited meeting at Richmond (*see* CONFEDERATE STATES), and subsequently by the adoption, in the Congress assembled there, of measures for arming the slaves. The views of President Lincoln on putting the slaves into the army were expressed on March 17th to an Indiana regiment, upon the occasion of the presentation of a captured Confederate flag to the Governor of that State. Mr. Lincoln being present, thus addressed the assemblage:

Fellow-citizens: It will be but a very few words that I shall undertake to say. I was born in Kentucky, raised in Indiana, and live in Illinois, and I now am here, where it is my business to be, to care equally for the good people of all the States. I am glad to see an Indiana regiment on this day able to present this captured flag to the Governor of the State of Indiana. I am not disposed, in saying this, to make a distinction between the States, for all have done equally well.

There are but few views or aspects of this great war upon which I have not said or written something whereby my own views might be made known. There is one, the recent attempt of our erring brethren, as they are sometimes called, to employ the negro to fight for them. I have neither written nor made a speech upon that subject, because that was their business and not mine; and if I had a wish upon the subject, I had not the power to introduce it or make it effective.

The great question with them was, whether the negro, being put into the army, will fight for them. I do not know, and therefore cannot decide. They ought to know better than we, and do know. I have in my lifetime heard many arguments why the negro ought to be a slave; but if they fight for those who would keep them in slavery, it will be a better argument than any I have yet heard. He who will fight for that, ought to be a slave. They have concluded, at last, to take one out of four of the slaves and put him in the army; and that one out of four, who will fight to keep the others in slavery, ought to be a slave himself, unless he is killed in a fight. While I have often said that all men ought to be free, yet I would allow those colored persons to be slaves who want to be; and next to them those white men who argue in favor of making other people slaves. I am in favor of giving an opportunity to such white men to try it on for themselves. I will say one thing with regard to the negro being employed to fight for them that I do know. I know he cannot fight and stay at home and make bread too; and as one is about as important as the other to them, I don't care which they do. I am rather in favor of having them try them as soldiers. They lack one vote of doing that, and I wish

I could send my vote over the river, so that I might cast it in favor of allowing the negro to fight. But they cannot fight and work both. We must now see the bottom of the enemy's resources. They will stand out as long as they can, and if the negro will fight for them, they must allow him to fight. They have drawn upon their last branch of resources, and we can now see the bottom. I am glad to see the end so near at hand. I have said now more than I intended to, and will, therefore, bid you good-bye.

Previously, on March 4th, the inauguration of President Lincoln for a second term had taken place. The weather was inclement, but the assemblage was large. The oath of office was administered by Chief Justice Chase, after which the inaugural address was read by the President (*see PUBLIC DOCUMENTS*). On entering upon his second term the President retained all the members of his Cabinet, as follows:

Secretary of State—William H. Seward.
Secretary of the Treasury—Hugh McCulloch.
Secretary of War—Edwin M. Stanton.
Secretary of the Navy—Gideon Welles.
Postmaster-General—William Dennison.
Secretary of the Interior—J. P. Usher.
Attorney-General—James Speed.

On March 8th, in consequence of the mutual explanations which had taken place between the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, the order was rescinded which required passports from all persons entering the United States from Canada. This order had been issued on the 17th of December, 1864, in consequence of the facility with which hostile persons could invade the territory of the United States and escape apprehension. About the same time the President, in compliance with an act of Congress, issued his proclamation requiring all absentees from the army or navy to return to duty within sixty days, or they would be regarded as having voluntarily relinquished and forfeited their rights of citizenship, and be forever incapable of exercising any rights of citizens. On March 14th the President issued an order directing the provost marshals to arrest any persons in the United States who shall have engaged in holding intercourse or trade by sea with the insurgents, if citizens or domiciled aliens, and all non-residents and foreigners who had been engaged in violating the blockade of the Southern ports, and who remained in the country twelve days after the publication of his order.

Meanwhile military affairs were rapidly coming to a crisis. General Grant had informed the President that Richmond would hold out only a few days longer, and the latter went to City Point, to be present at the final events of the war. His despatches of April 2d will be found under "ARMY OPERATIONS." It was now apparent that the war was over, and the North victorious. The Southern States were again to become active members of the Federal Union, and the question arose as to the terms upon which the Southern people should be recognized as in their former position, to resume which they almost universally soon expressed an earnest desire. The proceedings and views

of the President on this subject while at Richmond, after its evacuation, and previous to his return to Washington, are very imperfectly known, as his death followed so soon afterwards. A witness before the joint Committee of Reconstruction at the first session of the Thirty-ninth Congress (Mr. Cook), on April 11, 1866, testified to the propositions submitted by President Lincoln to Judge Campbell, Commissioner to the Fortress Monroe Conference. Mr. Lincoln suggested three points as essential to peace: First, the disbandment of the rebel armies; second, the full submission of the Southern people to the authority of the United States; and third, no abatement by the Executive from his position on the emancipation of the slaves. This was submitted by Judge Campbell, in Richmond, a few days after the evacuation of that city. To these were added paragraphs in which the late President declared that any propositions not inconsistent with the foregoing, would be received and considered in a spirit of kindness and liberality; also that those who should immediately accept these terms would place themselves in a condition to avoid the operation of the confiscation law, the execution of which was optional with the President. A special correspondent of the New York "Times," writing from Washington on April 22d, said:

While President Lincoln was in Richmond, Judge Campbell told him that, in an interview with Davis, Breckinridge, and Benjamin, just before they left, he said that, as there was no hope for the Confederacy, and President Lincoln could not negotiate with them, he (Lincoln) would negotiate with the States, and recognize the right of the Virginia Legislature to control the troops of that State.

He then told Mr. Lincoln that if he would permit that body to convene, it would, doubtless, recall the Virginia troops from the field.

Mr. Lincoln cautioned Judge Campbell against any misunderstanding, and gave him in writing his only terms, which were those tendered in the Hampton Roads interview, to which he added another, that in case the leaders persisted in the war, their property should be relentlessly confiscated.

At City Point General Sherman met and had an interview with the President. General Sherman's views of the terms of reconstruction after this interview may be found under "ARMY OPERATIONS." On April 6th President Lincoln sent the following order to General Weitzel, in command at Richmond:

HEADQUARTERS ARMIES OF THE UNITED STATES, }
 CITY POINT, April 6, 1865. }

To Major-General Weitzel, Richmond, Va.:

It has been intimated to me that the gentlemen who have acted as the Legislature of Virginia, in support of the rebellion, may now desire to assemble at Richmond and take measures to withdraw the Virginia troops and other support from resistance to the General Government. If they attempt it, give them permission and protection, until, if at all, they attempt some action hostile to the United States, in which case you will notify them, give them reasonable time to leave, and at the end of which time arrest any who remain. Allow Judge Campbell to see this, but do not make it public.

Yours, etc.,

A. LINCOLN.

On April 12th the "Whig," a newspaper issued at Richmond, contained the following in its pages:

An address "to the people of Virginia," earnestly requesting the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, members of the Legislature, and various prominent citizens of Virginia, to assemble in Richmond on the 25th inst., is published in to-day's paper. The signatures to this call will secure for it not only the respectful consideration of the persons addressed, but, in the present attitude of affairs, will induce many of them to respond with alacrity to the summons.

It is understood that this invitation has been put forth in pursuance of the plan of proceeding assented to by President Lincoln. At all events, it will be hailed by the great body of the people of Virginia as the first step toward the reinstatement of the "Old Dominion" in the Union.

It is probable that some of the members of the Legislature may decline to come. In every such case, the people of the county or senatorial district should select some influential and intelligent citizen who is willing to take part in this business, and commission him, as far as they can, to represent them at the conference. The views and purposes of the members of the Legislature should be ascertained at once.

Every one can foresee difficulties in the way of formal action in the beginning. Several complex questions are to be met at the threshold, but "where there's a will there's a way," and whatever the difficulties presented the important business must be undertaken.

The following is the address referred to:

To the People of Virginia: The undersigned, members of the Legislature of the State of Virginia, in connection with a number of the citizens of the State whose names are attached to this paper, in view of the evacuation of the city of Richmond by the Confederate Government, and its occupation by the military authorities of the United States, the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, and the suspension of the jurisdiction of the civil power of the State, are of the opinion that an immediate meeting of the General Assembly of the State is called for by the exigencies of the situation.

The consent of the military authorities of the United States to the session of the Legislature in Richmond, in connection with the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, to their free deliberation upon public affairs, and to the ingress and departure of all its members under safe conducts, has been obtained.

The United States authorities will afford transportation from any point under their control to any of the persons before mentioned.

The matters to be submitted to the Legislature are the restoration of peace to the State of Virginia, and the adjustment of questions involving life, liberty, and property, that have arisen in the State as a consequence of the war.

We, therefore, earnestly request the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and members of the Legislature to repair to this city by the 25th April instant.

We understand that full protection to persons and property will be afforded in the State, and we recommend to peaceful citizens to remain at their homes and pursue their usual avocations, with confidence that they will not be interrupted.

We earnestly solicit the attendance in Richmond, on or before the 25th of April instant, of the following persons, citizens of Virginia, to confer with us as to the best means of restoring peace to the State of Virginia. We have procured safe conduct from the military authorities of the United States for them to enter the city and to depart without molestation: Hon. R. M. T. Hunter, A. T. Caperton, William C. Rives, John Letcher, A. H. H. Stuart, R. L. Montague, Fayette McMullen, J. P. Holcombe, Alexander Rives, B. Johnson Barbour, James Barbour, William

L. Goggin, S. B. Baldwin, Thomas S. Gholson, and those other persons for whom passes have been procured, and which have been forwarded to them, etc. etc. Signed by—

J. M. Marshall, Senator, Fauquier; James Nelson, Senator, Marion; James Venable, Senator elect, Petersburg; David I. Burr, of House of Delegates, Richmond City; L. S. Hall, of House of Delegates, Weltzel County; J. J. English, of House of Delegates, Henrico County; William Ambers, of House of Delegates, Chesterfield County; A. M. Kelly, of House of Delegates, Petersburg; H. W. Thomas, Second Auditor of Virginia; St. L. L. Moncure, Chief Clerk Second Auditor's office; Joseph Mayo, Mayor, City of Richmond; Robert Howard, Clerk Hustings Court, Richmond City; Thomas U. Dudley, Sergeant, Richmond City; Littleton Tazewell, Commonwealth's Attorney, Richmond City; William T. Joynes, Judge of Circuit Court, Petersburg; John A. Meredith, Judge of Circuit Court, Richmond; William H. Lyons, Judge of Hustings Court, Richmond; William C. Wickham, Member of Congress, Richmond District; Benjamin S. Ewell, President of William and Mary College; Nat. Tyler, Editor Richmond Enquirer; R. F. Walker, Publisher of Examiner; J. R. Anderson, Richmond; R. R. Howison, Richmond; W. Goddin, Richmond; P. G. Bayly, Richmond; F. J. Smith, Richmond; Franklin Stearnes, Henrico; John Lyon, Petersburg; Thomas B. Fisher, Fauquier; William M. Harrison, Charles City; Cyrus Hall, Ritchie; Thomas W. Garrett, King and Queen; James A. Scott, Richmond.

I concur in the preceding recommendation.

J. A. CAMPBELL.

Approved for publication in the Richmond Whig and in hand-bill form.

G. WEITZEL,

Major-General Commanding.

RICHMOND, VA., April 11, 1865.

The same print of April 15th says: "An informal meeting of citizens and a few members of the Legislature was held on the previous evening. The motive of the gentlemen in coming together was to hear from Judge Campbell the terms upon which President Lincoln had expressed himself as willing that Virginia might return to the Union. A committee was appointed to inform the Legislature and Gov. Smith of President Lincoln's terms, who were to leave the city as soon as passports could be procured."

On the evening of April 11th the President's mansion and other public buildings in Washington were illuminated in consequence of the surrender of Gen. Lee and his army. President Lincoln on that occasion addressed the assemblage chiefly in relation to the restoration of the Union. He said:

By these recent successes, the reinauguration of the national authority, reconstruction, which has had a large share of thought from the first, is pressed much more closely upon our attention. It is fraught with great difficulty. Unlike the case of a war between independent nations, there is no authorized organ for us to treat with. No one man has the authority to give up the rebellion for any other man. We simply must begin with and mould from disorganized and discordant elements. Nor is it a small additional embarrassment that we, the loyal people, differ among ourselves as to the mode, manner, and measure of reconstruction.

As a general rule, I abstain from reading the reports of attacks upon myself, wishing not to be provoked by that to which I cannot properly offer an answer. In spite of this precaution, however, it comes to my knowledge that I am much censured from some supposed agency in setting up and seeking to sustain the new State government of Louisiana. In this I have done just so much and no more than the public knows. In the annual message of December, 1863, and accompanying proclamation, I presented a plan of reconstruction (as the phrase goes), which I promised, if adopted by any State, should be

acceptable to and sustained by the Executive Government of the nation. I distinctly stated that this was not the only plan which might possibly be acceptable; and I also distinctly protested that the Executive claimed no right to say when or whether members should be admitted to seats in Congress from such States. This plan was, in advance, submitted to the then Cabinet, and distinctly approved by every member of it. One of them suggested that I should then, and in that connection, apply the Emancipation Proclamation to the theretofore excepted parts of Virginia and Louisiana; that I should drop the suggestion about apprenticeship for freed people, and that I should omit the protest against my own power, in regard to the admission of members of Congress; but even he approved every part and parcel of the plan which has since been employed or touched by the action of Louisiana. The new Constitution of Louisiana, declaring emancipation for the whole State, practically applies the proclamation to the part previously excepted. It does not adopt apprenticeship for freed people, and it is silent, as it could not well be otherwise, about the admission of members to Congress. So that, as it applies to Louisiana, every member of the Cabinet fully approved the plan. The message went to Congress, and I received many commendations of the plan, written and verbal; and not a single objection to it, from any professed emancipationist, came to my knowledge, until after the news reached Washington that the people of Louisiana had begun to move in accordance with it. From about July, 1862, I had corresponded with different persons, supposed to be interested, seeking a reconstruction of a State government for Louisiana. When the message of 1863, with the plan before mentioned, reached New Orleans, General Banks wrote me that he was confident the people, with his military co-operation, would reconstruct substantially on that plan. I wrote him and some of them to try it. They tried it, and the result is known. Such only has been my agency in getting up the Louisiana government. As to sustaining it, my promise is out, as before stated. But, as bad promises are better broken than kept, I shall treat this as a bad promise, and break it, whenever I shall be convinced that keeping it is adverse to the public interest. But I have not yet been so convinced.

I have been shown a letter on this subject, supposed to be an able one, in which the writer expresses regret that my mind has not seemed to be definitely fixed on the question whether the seceded States, so called, are in the Union or out of it. It would, perhaps, add astonishment to his regret were he to learn that, since I have found professed Union men endeavoring to answer that question, I have purposely forbore any public expression upon it. It appears to me that question has not been, nor yet is, a practically material one, and that any discussion of it, while it thus remains practically immaterial, could have no effect other than the mischievous one of dividing our friends. As yet, whatever it may hereafter become, that question is bad, as the basis of a controversy, and good for nothing at all—a merely pernicious abstraction. We all agree that the seceded States, so called, are out of their proper practical relation with the Union, and that the sole object of the Government, civil and military, in regard to those States, is to again get them into that proper practical relation. I believe it is not only possible, but in fact easier to do this without deciding or even considering whether these States have ever been out of the Union, than with it. Finding themselves safely at home, it would be utterly immaterial whether they had ever been abroad. Let us all join in doing the acts necessary to restoring the proper practical relations between these States and the Union, and each forever after innocently indulge his own opinion whether, in doing the acts, he brought the States from without into the Union, or only gave them proper assistance, they never having been out of it.

The amount of constituency, so to speak, on which the new Louisiana Government rests, would be more satisfactory to all if it contained fifty, thirty, or even twenty thousand, instead of only about twelve thousand, as it does. It is also unsatisfactory to some that the elective franchise is not given to the colored man. I would myself prefer that it were now conferred on the very intelligent, and on those who serve our cause as soldiers. Still the question is not whether the Louisiana government, as it stands, is quite all that is desirable. The questions are: "Will it be wiser to take it as it is, and help to improve it, or to reject and disperse it?" "Can Louisiana be brought into proper practical relation with the Union sooner by sustaining or discarding her new State government?"

Some twelve thousand voters in the heretofore slave State of Louisiana have sworn allegiance to the Union, assumed to be the rightful political power of the State, held elections, organized a State government, adopted a free State constitution, giving the benefit of public schools equally to black and white, and empowering the Legislature to confer the elective franchise upon the colored man. Their Legislature has already voted to ratify the constitutional amendment, recently passed by Congress, abolishing slavery throughout the nation. These twelve thousand persons are thus fully committed to the Union, and to perpetual freedom in the State; committed to the very things and nearly all the things the nation wants, and they ask the nation's recognition and its assistance to make good their commitment. Now, if we reject and spurn them, we do our utmost to disorganize and disperse them. We, in effect, say to the white man, "You are worthless, or worse; we will neither help you, nor be helped by you." To the blacks we say, "This cup of liberty, which these, your old masters, hold to your lips, we will dash from you, and leave you to the chances of gathering the spilled and scattered contents, in some vague and undefined when, where, and how." If this course, discouraging and paralyzing both white and black, has any tendency to bring Louisiana into proper practical relations with the Union, I have, so far, been unable to perceive it. If, on the contrary, we recognize and sustain the new government of Louisiana, the converse of all this is made true. We encourage the hearts and nerve the arms of the twelve thousand to adhere to their work, and argue for it, and proselyte for it, and fight for it, and feed it, and grow it, and ripen it to a complete success. The colored man, too, in seeing all united for him, is inspired with vigilance, and energy, and daring to the same end. Grant that he desires the elective franchise, will he not attain it sooner by saving the already advanced steps toward it than by running backward over them? Concede that the new Government of Louisiana is only to what it should be as the egg is to the fowl, we shall sooner have the fowl by hatching the egg than by smashing it. (Laughter.) Again, if we reject Louisiana, we also reject one vote in favor of the proposed amendment to the national Constitution. To meet this proposition, it has been argued that no more than three-fourths of those States which have not attempted secession are necessary to validly ratify the amendment. I do not commit myself against this further than to say that such a ratification would be questionable, and sure to be persistently questioned; while a ratification by three-fourths of all the States would be unquestioned and unquestionable.

I repeat the question, "Can Louisiana be brought into proper practical relation with the Union sooner by sustaining or by discarding her new State Government?" What has been said of Louisiana will apply generally to other States. And yet so great peculiarities pertain to each State, and such important and sudden changes occur in the same State, and, withal, so new and unprecedented is the whole case, that no exclusive and inflexible plan can safely be

prescribed as to details and collaterals. Such an exclusive and inflexible plan would surely become a new entanglement. Important principles may and must be inflexible. In the present situation, as the phrase goes, it may be my duty to make some new announcement to the people of the South. I am considering, and shall not fail to act when satisfied that action will be proper.

At the same time proclamations were issued relative to closing the Southern ports, in which the Government claimed to exercise the same legal authority over them as over other ports of the United States, and also declaring that in future foreign cruisers would receive in ports of the United States the same treatment which in their ports was given to cruisers of the United States. About the same time, April 13th, an order was issued from the War Department, stopping all drafting and recruiting, curtailing the purchase of military stores, etc.

But the time was now close at hand when the duty of restoring the integrity of the country was to pass into other hands. On April 15th, Vice-President Johnson, then in Washington, received the following letter:

WASHINGTON CITY, D. C., April 15, 1865.

Sir: Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, was shot by an assassin last evening at Ford's Theatre, in this city, and died at the hour of twenty-two minutes after seven o'clock this morning.

About the same time at which the President was shot an assassin entered the sick-chamber of the Hon. William H. Seward, Secretary of State, and stabbed him in several places—in the throat, neck, and face—severely if not mortally wounding him. Other members of the Secretary's family were dangerously wounded by the assassin while making his escape.

By the death of President Lincoln the office of President has devolved under the Constitution upon you. The emergency of the Government demands that you should immediately qualify according to the requirements of the Constitution, and enter upon the duties of President of the United States. If you will please make known your pleasure, such arrangements as you deem proper will be made.

Your obedient servants,

HUGH McCULLOCH, Sec. of the Treasury,

EDWIN M. STANTON, Sec. of War,

GIDEON WELLES, Sec. of the Navy,

W. DENNISON, Postmaster-General,

J. P. USHER, Sec. of the Interior,

JAMES SPEED, Attorney-General.

To Hon. Andrew Johnson, Vice-President of the United States.

Mr. Johnson, in answer, appointed 11 o'clock, A.M., at his rooms at the Kirkwood Hotel, as the time and place when he would take the oath of office. It was duly administered to him by Chief Justice Chase, in presence of the Cabinet and several members of Congress. He then said:

Gentlemen, I must be permitted to say that I have been almost overwhelmed by the announcement of the sad event which has so recently occurred. I feel incompetent to perform duties so important and responsible as those which have been so unexpectedly thrown upon me. As to an indication of any policy which may be pursued by me in the administration of the Government, I have to say that that must be left for development, as the administration progresses. The message or declaration must be made by the acts as they transpire. The only assurance that I can now give of the future, is by reference to the past. The course which I have taken in the past, in con-

nection with this rebellion, must be regarded as a guaranty for the future. My past public life, which has been long and laborious, has been founded, as I in good conscience believe, upon a great principle of right, which lies at the basis of all things. The best energies of my life have been spent in endeavoring to establish and perpetuate the blessings of free government; and I believe that the Government, in passing through its present trials, will settle down upon principles consonant with popular rights, more permanent and enduring than heretofore. I must be permitted to say, if I understood the feelings of my own heart, I have long labored to ameliorate and alleviate the condition of the great mass of the American people. Toil, and an honest advocacy of the great principles of free government, have been my lot. The duties have been mine—the consequences are God's. This has been the foundation of my political creed. I feel that in the end the Government will triumph, and that these great principles will be permanently established.

In conclusion, gentlemen, let me say that I want your encouragement and countenance. I shall ask, and rely, upon you and others, in carrying the Government through its present perils. I feel, in making this request, that it will be heartily responded to by you and all other patriots and lovers of the rights and interests of a free people.

Unparalleled as were the excitement and regret produced by this death, the details of which will be found elsewhere (*see* LINCOLN, ABRAHAM), the authority of the nation, without any formal parade or ceremony, was thus quietly transferred to other hands. The Cabinet of Mr. Lincoln continued unchanged through the year. Much interest was immediately awakened in the public mind to learn the views of the President on the state of the country, and the plan to be pursued in the restoration of the union of the States. Delegations of citizens from several States waited upon him and tendered their hearty support, to whom he said, in most explicit terms, that his past course must be an indication of what his future would be. To a delegation of citizens of New Hampshire he said:

I have now, as always an abiding faith in the ultimate triumph of justice and right, and I shall seek the inspiration and guidance of this faith, in the assured belief that the present struggle will result in the permanent establishment of our Government, and in making us a free, united, and happy people. This Government is now passing through a fiery, and, let us hope, its last ordeal—one that will test its powers of endurance, and will determine whether it can do what its enemies have denied—suppress and punish treason. This is the trial through which we are now passing, and, if we are true to ourselves and the principles upon which the Constitution was framed, who can doubt that the Government will settle down upon a more enduring basis than its best friends have dared to hope for it?

In entering upon the discharge of the grave duties before me, it has been suggested and even urged by friends whose good opinions I value, and whose judgment I respect, that I shall foreshadow the policy that would guide me, in some formal, public manifesto. But who could have foretold the events of the past four years? Who was wise enough to indicate beforehand a line of policy adapted to all the changing emergencies of that period? It is not in the wisdom and foresight of man to prescribe a course of action in advance for such disturbed and perilous conditions as now distract public affairs. I believe I may say that my past life is known to the country.



Amos



Andrew Johnson

PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

especially that part connected with the rebellion. The country must accept, then, my past course as an indication of what my future will be. I think the people understand and appreciate my position.

I know it is easy, gentlemen, for any one who is so disposed, to acquire a reputation for clemency and mercy. But the public good imperatively requires a just discrimination in the exercise of these qualities. What is clemency? What is mercy? It may be considered merciful to relieve an individual from pain and suffering; but to relieve one from the penalty of crime may be productive of national disaster. The American people must be taught to know and understand that treason is a crime. Arson and murder are crimes, the punishment of which is the loss of liberty and life. If, then, it is right in the sight of God to take away human life for such crimes, what punishment, let me ask you, should be inflicted upon him who is guilty of the atrocious crime of assassinating the Chief Magistrate of a great people? I am sure there is no one present who has not the answer ready upon his lips! Him whom we loved has been removed from our midst by the hand of a ruthless assassin, and his blessed spirit has gone to that bourne whence no traveller returns. If his murderer should suffer the severest penalty known to the law, what punishment should be inflicted upon the assassins who have raised their daggers against the life of a nation, against the happiness and lives of thirty millions of people? Treason is a crime, and must be punished as a crime. It must not be regarded as a mere difference of political opinion. It must not be excused as an unsuccessful rebellion, to be overlooked and forgiven. It is a crime before which all other crimes sink into insignificance; and in saying this it must not be considered that I am influenced by angry or revengeful feelings.

Of course, a careful discrimination must be observed, for thousands have been involved in this rebellion who are only technically guilty of the crime of treason. They have been deluded and deceived, and have been made the victims of the more intelligent, artful, and designing men, the instigators of this monstrous rebellion. The number of this latter class is comparatively small. The former may stand acquitted of the crime of treason—the latter never; the full penalty of their crimes should be visited upon them. To the others I would accord amnesty, leniency, and mercy.

To the address of a delegation from Indiana, on April 21st, he replied in part as follows:

As to making a declaration, or manifesto, or message, or what you may please to call it, my past is a better foreshadowing of my future course than any statement on paper that might be made. Who, four years ago, looking down the stream of time, could have delineated that which has transpired since then? Had any one done so, and presented it, he would have been looked upon as insane; or it would have been thought a fable fabulous as the stories of the Arabian Nights—as the wonders of the lamp of Aladdin—and would have been about as readily believed. If we knew so little four years ago of what has passed since then, we know as little what events will arise in the next four years. But as these events arise I shall be controlled in the disposition of them by those rules and principles by which I have been guided heretofore. * * * * * When we come to understand our system of government, though it be complex, we see how beautifully one part acts in harmony with another. Then we see our Government is to be a perpetuity, there being no provision for pulling it down, the Union being its vitalizing power, imparting life to the whole of the States, that move around it like planets around the sun, receiving thence light, and heat, and motion.

Upon this idea of destroying States my position has been heretofore well known, and I see no cause to change it now; and I am glad to hear its reitera-

tion on the present occasion. Some are satisfied with the idea that States are to be lost in territorial and other divisions—are to lose their character as States. But their life-breath has only been suspended, and it is a high constitutional obligation we have to secure each of these States in the possession and enjoyment of a republican form of Government. A State may be in the Government with a peculiar institution, and by the operation of rebellion lose that feature. But it was a State when it went into rebellion, and when it comes out without the institution it is still a State. I hold it as a solemn obligation in any one of these States where the rebel armies have been driven back or expelled—I care not how small the number of Union men, if enough to man the ship of State—I hold it, I say, a high duty to protect and secure to them a republican form of government. This is no new opinion. It is expressed in conformity with my understanding of the genius and theory of our Government. Then, in adjusting and putting the Government upon its legs again, I think the progress of this work must pass into the hands of its friends. If a State is to be nursed until it again gets strength, it must be nursed by its friends, and not smothered by its enemies. Now, permit me to remark that, while I have opposed dissolution and disintegration on the one hand, on the other I have opposed consolidation—or the centralization of power in the hands of a few. Sir, all this has been extorted from me by the remarks you have offered.

To a delegation from Ohio, on the same day, he said:

Gentlemen, all I can say and all I can promise you after referring to my past life is, that in ascertaining what my future will be, in the discharge of my duties in the administration of the Government, all will be done in a proper spirit, I think, and in accordance with my best ability.

To a delegation represented to be for the most part exiles from the South, on April 24th, he said:

The most that I can say is that, entering upon the duties that have devolved upon me under circumstances that are perilous and responsible, and being thrown into the position I now occupy unexpectedly, in consequence of the sad event, the heinous assassination which has taken place—in view of all that is before me and the circumstances that surround me—I cannot but feel that your encouragement and kindness are peculiarly acceptable and appropriate. I do not think you, who have been familiar with my course—you who are from the South, deem it necessary for me to make any professions as to the future on this occasion, nor to express what my course will be upon questions that may arise. If my past life is no indication of what my future will be, my professions were both worthless and empty; and in returning you my sincere thanks for this encouragement and sympathy, I can only reiterate what I have said before, and, in part, what has just been read.

To a delegation of colored persons, who some days previous had waited upon him, and among other things said: "The colored American asks but two things. He asks, after proving his devotion to his country by responding to her call in the hour of her sorest trial, and after demonstrating, upon many hotly-contested battle-fields, his manhood and valor, that he have, first, complete emancipation, and secondly, full equality before American law. Your past history, as connected with the rebellion, gives us full assurance that in your hands our cause shall receive no detriment, and

that our liberty and rights will be fully protected and sustained"—he replied:

I need not state to you my past history. It is well understood by you. In it you will find the guaranty of my future conduct toward your people. Where the colored people know me best, they have confidence in me. No man can charge me with having proved false to the promises I have made to any class of the people in my public life. I fear that leading colored men do not understand and appreciate the fact that they have friends on the south side of the line. They have, and they are as faithful and staunch as any north of the line. It may be a very easy thing, indeed popular, to be an emancipationist north of the line, but a very different thing to be such south of it. South of it, it costs a man effort, property, and perhaps life. You may express these sentiments, together with my thanks, to the people whom you represent.

These extracts present the general views uttered at this time by the President in his replies to the addresses of delegations. Still later, on June 24th, to a delegation from South Carolina he said:

From the Magna Charta we had derived our ideas of freedom of speech, liberty of the press, and unreasonable searches, and that private property should not be taken for public uses without just compensation. He had these notions fixed in his mind, and was therefore opposed to class legislation. Being providentially brought to his present position, he intended to exert the power and influence of the Government so as to place in power the popular heart of this nation. He proceeded on the principle that the great masses are not the mushroom upon a stump which wet weather supplies. He believed that this nation was sent on a great mission to afford an example of freedom and substantial happiness to all the powers of the earth.

The Constitution of the United States, in speaking of persons to be chosen as representatives in Congress, says, that the electors, in each State, shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature. Here we find a resting-place. This was the point at which the rebellion commenced. All the States were in the Union, moving in harmony, but a portion of them rebelled, and, to some extent, suspended and paralyzed the operations of their Government. There is a constitutional obligation resting upon the United States Government to put down rebellion, suppress insurrection, and repel invasion.

The slaves went into the war as slaves, and came out free men of color. The friction of the rebellion has rubbed out the nature and character of slavery. The loyal men who were compelled to bow and submit to the rebellion, should, now that the rebellion is ended, stand equal to loyal men everywhere. Hence the wish of reconstruction, and the trying to get back the State, to the point at which they formerly moved in perfect harmony.

He did not intend to serve any particular clique or interests. He would say to the delegation that slavery is gone as an institution. There was no hope that the people of South Carolina would be admitted into the Senate or House of Representatives until they had afforded evidence, by their conduct, of this truth. The policy, now that the rebellion is suppressed, is not to restore the State government through military rule, but by the people.

Meanwhile many steps were taken for the adjustment of affairs. The orders relative to a reduction of the army, will be found under **ARMY OPERATIONS**. The orders opening the Southern ports to trade, are stated under **COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE**. By a proclamation of

President Johnson, under date of April 24th, the 1st of June was observed as a day of humiliation on account of the death of President Lincoln. The following is an extract:

Therefore, in order to mitigate that grief on earth, which can only be assuaged by communion with Our Father in Heaven, and in compliance with the wishes of Senators and Representatives in Congress communicated to me by resolution adopted at the National Capitol:

I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, do hereby appoint Thursday, the 25th day of May next,* to be observed wherever the United States flag may be respected, as a day of humiliation and mourning, and recommend my fellow-citizens there to assemble in their respective places of worship, there to unite in solemn services to Almighty God, in memory of the good man who has been removed, so that all shall be occupied at the same time in contemplation of his virtues, and sorrow for his sudden and violent end.

On the 2d of May, President Johnson issued another proclamation, offering a reward for certain persons, as follows:

Whereas, it appears from evidence in the bureau of Military Justice, that the atrocious murder of the late President, Abraham Lincoln, and the attempted assassination of the Hon. W. H. Seward, Secretary of State, were incited, concerted, and procured by and between Jefferson Davis, late of Richmond, Va., and Jacob Thompson, Clement C. Clay, Beverly Tucker, George N. Saunders, W. C. Cleary, and other rebels and traitors against the Government of the United States, harbored in Canada:

Now, therefore, to the end that justice may be done, I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, do offer and promise for the arrest of said persons or either of them, within the limits of the United States, so that they can be brought to trial, the following rewards: \$100,000 for the arrest of Jefferson Davis, \$25,000 for the arrest of Jacob Thompson, late of Mississippi, \$25,000 for the arrest of George N. Saunders, \$25,000 for the arrest of Beverly Tucker, and \$10,000 for the arrest of William C. Cleary, late clerk of Clement C. Clay. The Provost Marshal General of the United States is directed to cause a description of said persons with notice of the above rewards to be published.

On May 9th, another proclamation was issued, declaring that the United States would refuse hospitality to such nations as gave hospitality to Confederate cruisers or their officers and men, after a reasonable time shall have elapsed for the proclamation to become known.

On June 22d, the order requiring passports from all travellers entering the United States, was rescinded.

On May 29th, the President issued his proclamation stating the terms by which the people of the Southern States could be restored to their civil rights as citizens of the United States, thus:

Whereas, The President of the United States, on the 8th day of December, A. D. eighteen hundred and sixty-three, and on the 26th day of March, A. D. eighteen hundred and sixty-four, did, with the object to suppress the existing rebellion, to induce all persons to return to their loyalty, and to restore the authority of the United States, issue proclamations offering amnesty and pardon to certain persons who had directly or by implication participated in the said rebellion; and

* Subsequently changed to June 1st, because the 25th was "sacred to a large number of Christians as one of rejoicing for the ascension of our Saviour."

Whereas, Many persons who had so engaged in said rebellion have, since the issuance of said proclamations, failed or neglected to take the benefits offered thereby; and

Whereas, Many persons who have been justly deprived of all claim to amnesty and pardon thereunder, by reason of their participation directly or by implication in said rebellion, and continued in hostility to the Government of the United States since the date of said proclamation, now desire to apply for and obtain amnesty and pardon:

To the end, therefore, that the authority of the Government of the United States may be restored, and that peace, order, and freedom may be reestablished, I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, do proclaim and declare that I hereby grant to all persons who have directly or indirectly participated in the existing rebellion, except as hereinafter excepted, amnesty and pardon, with restoration of all rights of property, except as to slaves, and except in cases where legal proceedings under the laws of the United States providing for the confiscation of property of persons engaged in rebellion have been instituted; but on the condition, nevertheless, that every such person shall take and subscribe the following oath or affirmation, and thenceforward keep and maintain said oath inviolate, and which oath shall be registered for permanent preservation, and shall be of the tenor and effect following, to wit:

I, _____, do solemnly swear, or affirm, in presence of Almighty God, that I will henceforth faithfully support and defend the Constitution of the United States and the Union of the States thereunder, and that I will, in like manner, abide by and faithfully support all laws and proclamations which have been made during the existing rebellion with reference to the emancipation of slaves, so help me God.

The following classes of persons are excepted from the benefits of this proclamation:

1. All who are or shall have been pretended civil or diplomatic officers, or otherwise domestic or foreign agents, of the pretended Confederate Government.

2. All who left judicial stations under the United States to aid the rebellion.

3. All who shall have been military or naval officers of said pretended Confederate Government above the rank of colonel in the army or lieutenant in the navy.

4. All who left seats in the Congress of the United States to aid the rebellion.

5. All who resigned or tendered resignations of their commissions in the army or navy of the United States to evade duty in resisting the rebellion.

6. All who have engaged in any way in treating otherwise than lawfully as prisoners of war persons found in the United States service as officers, soldiers, seamen, or in other capacities.

7. All persons who have been or are absentees from the United States for the purpose of aiding the rebellion.

8. All military and naval officers in the rebel service who were educated by the Government in the Military Academy at West Point or the United States Naval Academy.

9. All persons who held the pretended offices of Governors of States in insurrection against the United States.

10. All persons who left their homes within the jurisdiction and protection of the United States, and passed beyond the Federal military lines into the so-called Confederate States, for the purpose of aiding the rebellion.

11. All persons who have been engaged in the destruction of the commerce of the United States upon the high seas, and all persons who have made raids into the United States from Canada, or been engaged in destroying the commerce of the United States upon the lakes and rivers that separate the British Provinces from the United States.

12. All persons who, at the time when they seek to

obtain the benefits hereof by taking the oath herein prescribed, are in military, naval, or civil confinement or custody, or under bonds of the civil, military, or naval authorities or agents of the United States as prisoners of war, or persons detained for offences of any kind either before or after conviction.

13. All persons who have voluntarily participated in said rebellion, and the estimated value of whose taxable property is over twenty thousand dollars.

14. All persons who have taken the oath of amnesty as prescribed in the President's proclamation of December 8, A. D. 1863, or an oath of allegiance to the Government of the United States since the date of said proclamation, and who have not thenceforward kept and maintained the same inviolate—provided, that special application may be made to the President for pardon by any person belonging to the excepted classes, and such clemency will be liberally extended as may be consistent with the facts of the case and the peace and dignity of the United States.

The Secretary of State will establish rules and regulations for administering and recording the said amnesty oath, so as to insure its benefit to the people, and guard the Government against fraud.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, the twenty-ninth day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five, and of the independence of the United States the eighty-ninth.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

At the same time an order issued from the State Department saying that the oath prescribed in the proclamation might be taken and subscribed before any commissioned officer, civil, military, or naval, in the service of the United States, or any military or civil officer of a loyal State or Territory, who, by the laws thereof, might be qualified for administering oaths. All officers who received such oaths were authorized to give certified copies thereof to persons respectively by whom they were made, and such officers were required to transmit the original to the department where they were deposited. A register thereof is kept in the department, and on application, in proper cases, certificates are issued of such records in the customary form of official certificates. Refusing entirely to recognize the authority of any person holding a civil office in the States while at war against the Federal Government, President Johnson subsequently appointed Provisional Governors for the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Texas, with authority to assemble in the State delegates elected by the people who had taken the amnesty oath, or who had opposed secession, in convention, and amend and alter the State constitution, reappoint or designate local officers, and secure the election of State officers and a Legislature and members of Congress under the amended constitutions. If this reorganization was sustained and approved by the mass of the people, the State civil government became established in unison with the Federal Union. If it was not so sustained, a military force was at hand to lend the necessary support. Such was the plan of the President. It was peacefully acquiesced in by the inhabitants of those States, as stated in other pages of this volume. For

the States of Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana, no Provisional Governors were appointed. The measures taken for their reorganization, during President Lincoln's administration, were regarded by his successor as having placed those States *rectus in curia*. Under these measures, together with numerous pardons by the President, the social and commercial relations between the people of the Northern and Southern States were brought to great harmony in a few months. In a word, the President approved of the restoration of the Southern States into their former position in the Union without any surrender of their constitutional rights of local self-government, and without requiring them, with respect to the blacks, to do any thing more than to acknowledge and respect the freedom which has resulted from the exercise of force during a condition of civil war. At the same time the civil authority was required to be in the hands of men who could take and would observe the amnesty oath, or who had been steadfast Unionists.

But it was soon apparent that a portion of the people were not satisfied with the course of affairs. The first objections were raised against the terms given by Gen. Grant to Lee's army, as being too lenient. The Secretary of War, Stanton, therefore required of Attorney-General Speed an opinion whether the officers of the Confederate army who once resided in Washington and went South and took service, could return under the stipulations of the capitulation and reside at Washington as their home; or other persons who went from Washington to the South and gave support, comfort, and aid to the cause of the enemy; and whether the wearing of Confederate uniforms in public in the Northern States since the capitulation was not a fresh act of hostility. In reply, the Attorney-General considered that the President performed two functions, one civil and the other military. As civil head, he possessed the pardoning power; as Commander-in-chief of the armies, he is the head of its belligerent power. His power to pardon as a civil magistrate cannot be delegated. As commander he can delegate power. Gen. Grant is to be regarded purely as a military officer; he spoke as one possessing no power except belligerent, which was well known to the belligerents with whom he was making the stipulation. The question is if permissions thus to reside have been granted. In the prize cases in 2d Black, the Confederates were decided to be belligerents; and persons in their territory must be treated as enemies, including those who went or remained there after hostilities commenced. "It follows as a matter of course, that residents of the territory in rebellion cannot be regarded as having homes in the loyal States. A man's home and his residence cannot be distinct the one from the other. The rebels were dealt with by Gen. Grant as belligerents. As belligerents, their homes were of necessity in the territory belligerent to the Government of the United States.

The officers and soldiers of Gen. Lee's army, then, who had homes, prior to the rebellion, in the Northern States, took up their residences within the rebel States, and abandoned their homes in the loyal States; and when Gen. Grant gave permission to them, by the stipulation, to return to their homes, it cannot be understood as a permission to return to any part of the loyal States."

Only the officers and soldiers of Lee's army were included in the stipulation, and not civilians. As to the third point, the Attorney-General said it was answered in the first, and added, "It seems to me that such officers, having done wrong in coming into the loyal States, are but adding insult to injury in wearing their uniforms. They have as much right to bear the traitors' flag through the streets of a loyal city as to wear a traitor's garb."

Notwithstanding this opinion of the Attorney-General, the sentiment of the people required that the solemn agreement, which was supposed by all the parties assenting to it, to be binding upon the civil as well as military authorities, should not be repudiated, and it was observed by the President.

It was still further thought that the opportunity should be improved to secure to the emancipated negroes an equality of civil and political rights with the whites. At a public meeting held in Faneuil Hall, Boston, in June, a committee was appointed to consider the proper course to be pursued with regard to the Southern States, and prepare an address to the public. This committee say:

Let us now, fellow-citizens, turn our attention to our rights and duties. Having succeeded in this war, and holding the rebel States in our military occupation, it is our right and duty to secure whatever the public safety and the public faith require.

1. The principle must be put beyond all question, that the Republic has a direct claim upon the allegiance of every citizen, from which no State can absolve him, and to his obedience to the laws of the Republic, any thing in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

2. The public faith is pledged to every person of color in the rebel States, to secure to them and their posterity forever a complete and veritable freedom. Having promised them this freedom, received their aid on the faith of this promise, and, by a successful war and actual military occupation of the country, having obtained the power to secure the result, we are dishonored if we fail to make it good to them.

3. The system of slavery must be abolished and prohibited by a paramount and irreversible law. Throughout the rebel States there must be, in the words of Webster, "impressed upon the soil itself an inability to bear up any but free men."

4. The systems of the States must be truly "republican."

Unless these points are secured, the public faith will be no safety for the public peace or the preservation of our institutions.

The objects to be secured were more precisely stated by the President of the New England Anti-slavery Society, Mr. Phillips, at the annual convention on May 31st. He said:

The real topic for discussion was immediate suffrage for the negro. There was no time to agitate this

question. Discussion before the people would not secure colored suffrage for twenty-five years. The right must be conceded at once to secure the nation from serious trouble and perhaps disaster. The condition of every black man was to-day no better than in 1833, and he did not see how any man could say slavery was abolished and give up his efforts in the antislavery cause. No man could say whether he could own property, protect his wife, testify in court, or exercise any other natural right. The white men of each State claimed the privilege to regulate all this, and the Tennessee Legislature had just enacted a law concerning free colored people. Do they enact laws regarding free white people? All that concerns the colored people is to be regulated by the whites, and what will the whites do when their States are reconstructed without the negro franchise? They would unite with the old Democratic party in the last Congress of Johnson's presidency, and show the friends of liberty who it is that has really been whipped in this last hour of the war.

The views thus expressed met with a response in various parts of the Northern States, particularly those portions on the outer verge of the country. No political bodies during the year expressed dissent to the measures of reconstruction. On the contrary, conventions of both political parties approved of them; but the Republican conventions, at the same time, adopted resolutions demanding "equal and exact justice" for all. It will be seen, by reference to the reorganization proceedings in the respective Southern States, that not only was the emancipation of the slaves within their borders ratified, and measures to secure to them the rights of property, personal freedom, and legal protection adopted, but they were required to declare null and void the ordinances of secession, to repudiate the State debts contracted to carry on the war, and to adopt the amendment of the Federal Constitution respecting slavery. Those who expressed a desire for more concessions on the part of the Southern States, asked for suffrage and eligibility to office for the freedmen; a few wished for a general confiscation of property and a distribution among the negroes, and a general system of free schools for them. But these views were not approved by the President.

The views of the President later in the year were very frankly expressed to a delegation of some fifty or sixty persons from the Southern States, on September 11th. The delegation was presented to President Johnson by Mr. McFarland, of Virginia, who said:

MR. PRESIDENT: The gentlemen accompanying me, and whom I have the honor of introducing to you, constitute a number of the most respectable citizens of nine of the Southern States. They come, sir, for the purpose of manifesting the sincere respect and regard they entertain for you, and to express their sincere determination to coöperate with you in whatever shall tend to promote the interests and welfare of our common country, and to say that they are as earnest now and faithful to their allegiance to the United States and to the Constitution of the Union as in the past, and that they have great confidence in your wisdom to heal the wounds that have been made, and in your disposition to exercise all the leniency which can be commended by a sound and judicious policy. That they are assured, in doing this, of your desire and intention to sustain and

maintain Southern rights in the Union of the United States.

The President, evidently surprised at the imposing appearance of the delegation, with much feeling said:

GENTLEMEN: I can only say, in reply to the remarks of your chairman, that I am highly gratified to receive the assurances he has given me. They are more than I could have expected under the circumstances. I must say I was unprepared to receive so numerous a delegation on this occasion; it was unexpected; I had no idea it was to be so large or represent so many States. When I expressed, as I did, my willingness to see at any time so many of you as chose to do me the honor to call upon me, and stated that I should be gratified at receiving any manifestations of regard you might think proper to make, I was totally unprepared for any thing equal to the present demonstration. I am free to say it excites in my mind feelings and emotions that language is totally inadequate to express. When I look back upon my past actions, and recall a period scarcely more than four short years ago, when I stood battling for principles which many of you opposed and thought were wrong, I was battling for the same principles that actuate me to-day, and which principles, I thank my God, you have come forward on this occasion to manifest a disposition to support. I say now, as I have said on many former occasions, that I entertain no personal resentments, enmities, or animosities, to any living soul south of Mason and Dixon's line, however much he may have differed from me in principle. The stand I then took I claim to have been the only true one. I remember how I stood pleading with my Southern brethren when they stood with their hats in their hands ready to turn their backs upon the United States; how I implored them to stand with me there and maintain our rights and fight our battles under the laws and Constitution of the United States. I think now, as I thought then, and endeavored to induce them to believe, that our true position was under the law and under the Constitution of the Union, with the institution of slavery in it; but if that principle made an issue that rendered a disintegration possible—if that made an issue which should prevent us from transmitting to our children a country as bequeathed to us by our fathers—I had nothing else to do but stand by the Government, be the consequences what they might; I said then, what you all know, that I was for the institutions of the country as guaranteed by the Constitution, but above all things I was for the Union of the States. I remember the taunts, the jeers, the scowls, with which I was treated. I remember the circle that stood around me, and remember the threats and intimidations that were freely uttered by the men who opposed me, and whom I wanted to befriend and guide by the light that led me; but feeling conscious in my own integrity, and that I was right, I heeded not what they might say or do to me, and was inspired and encouraged to do my duty regardless of aught else, and have lived to see the realization of my predictions and the fatal error of those whom I vainly essayed to save from the results I could not but foresee. Gentlemen, we have passed through this rebellion. I say we, for it is we who are responsible for it. Yes, the South made the issue, and I know the nature of the Southern people well enough to know that when they have become convinced of an error they frankly acknowledge it, in a manly, open, direct manner; and now, in the performance of that duty, or, indeed, in any act they undertake to perform, they do it heartily and frankly; and now that they come to me, I understand them as saying that—"We made the issue. We set up the Union of the States against the institution of slavery; we selected as arbitrator the God of battles; the arbitrament was the sword. The issue was fairly and honorably met. Both the

questions presented have been settled against us, and we are prepared to accept the issue." I find on all sides this spirit of candor and honor prevailing. It is said by all. The issue was ours, and the judgment has been given against us; and the decision having been made against us, we feel bound in honor to abide by the arbitrament. In doing this we are doing ourselves no dishonor, and should not feel humiliated or degraded, but rather that we are ennobling ourselves by our action; and we should feel that the Government has treated us magnanimously, and meet the Government upon the terms it has so magnanimously proffered us. So far as I am concerned, personally, I am uninfluenced by any question, whether it affects the North or the South, the East or the West. I stand where I did of old, battling for the Constitution and the Union of these United States. In doing so, I know I opposed some of you gentlemen of the South, when this doctrine of secession was being urged upon the country, and the declaration of your right to break up the Government and disintegrate the Union was made. I stand to-day, as I ever stood, firmly in the opinion that if a monopoly contends against this country the monopoly must go down, and the country must go up. Yes, the issue was made by the South against the Government, and the Government has triumphed; and the South, true to her ancient instincts of frankness and manly honor, comes forth and expresses her willingness to abide the result of the decision in good faith. While I think that the rebellion has been arrested and subdued, and am happy in the consciousness of a duty well performed, I want not only you, but the people of the world to know, that while I dreaded and feared disintegration of the States, I am equally opposed to consolidation or concentration of power here, under whatever guise or name; and if the issue is forced upon us, I shall still endeavor to pursue the same efforts to dissuade from this doctrine of running to extremes. But I say let the same rules be applied. Let the Constitution be our guide. Let the preservation of that and the Union of the States be our principal aim. Let it be our hope that the Government may be perpetual, and that the principles of the Government, founded as they are on right and justice, may be handed down without spot or blemish to our posterity.

As I have before remarked to you, I am gratified to see so many of you here to-day. It manifests a spirit I am pleased to observe. I know it has been said of me that my asperities are sharp, that I had vindictive feelings to gratify, and that I should not fail to avail myself of the opportunities that would present themselves to gratify such despicable feelings. Gentlemen, if my acts will not speak for me and for themselves, then any professions I might now make would be equally useless. But, gentlemen, if I know myself, as I think I do, I know that I am of the Southern people, and I love them and will do all in my power to restore them to that state of happiness and prosperity which they enjoyed before the madness of misguided men, in whom they had reposed their confidence, led them astray to their own undoing. If there is any thing that can be done on my part, on correct principles, on the principles of the Constitution, to promote these ends, be assured it shall be done. Let me assure you, also, that there is no disposition on the part of the Government to deal harshly with the Southern people. There may be speeches published from various quarters that may breathe a different spirit. Do not let them trouble or excite you, but believe that it is, as it is, the great object of the Government to make the union of these United States more complete and perfect than ever, and to maintain it on constitutional principles, if possible, more firmly than it has ever before been. Then why cannot we all come up to the work in a proper spirit? In other words, let us look to the Constitution. The issue has been made and

decided; then, as wise men—as men who see right and are determined to follow it, as fathers and brothers, and as men who love their country in this hour of trial and suffering—why cannot we come up and help to settle the questions of the hour and adjust them according to the principles of honor and of justice? The institution of slavery is gone. The former status of the negro had to be changed, and we, as wise men, must recognize so patent a fact, and adapt ourselves to circumstances as they surround us. I believe when your faith is pledged, when your consent has been given, as I have already said, I believe it will be maintained in good faith, and every pledge or promise fully carried out. All I ask or desire of the South or the North, the East or the West, is to be sustained in carrying out the principles of the Constitution. It is not to be denied that we have been sufferers on both sides. Good men have fallen on both sides, and much misery is being endured as the necessary result of so gigantic a contest. Why, then, cannot we come together, and around the common altar of our country heal the wounds that have been made? Deep wounds have been inflicted. Our country has been scarred all over. Then why cannot we approach each other upon principles which are right in themselves, and which will be productive of good to all? The day is not distant when we shall feel like some family that have had a deep and desperate feud, the various members of which have come together and compared the evils and sufferings they had inflicted upon each other. They had seen the influence of their error and its results, and, governed by a generous spirit of conciliation, they had become mutually forbearing and forgiving, and returned to their old habits of fraternal kindness, and become better friends than ever. Then let us consider that the feud which alienated us has been settled and adjusted to our mutual satisfaction, and that we come together to be bound by firmer bonds of love, respect, and confidence than ever. The North cannot get along without the South, nor the South from the North, the East from the West, nor the West from the East; and I say it is our duty to do all that in our power lies to perpetuate and make stronger the bonds of our Union, seeing that it is for the common good of all that we should be united. I feel this Union, though but the creation of a century, is to be perpetuated for all time, and that it cannot be destroyed except by the all-wise God who created it. Gentlemen, I repeat I sincerely thank you for the respect manifested on this occasion; and for the expressions of approbation and confidence please accept my sincere thanks.

Mr. McFarland rejoined:

MR. PRESIDENT: On behalf of this delegation I return you my sincere thanks for your kind, generous—ay, magnanimous expressions of kindly feeling toward the people of the South.

The more prominent persons engaged in the war against the Union, who were in confinement, were from time to time released on their parole by the order of the President. On October 11th he issued a proclamation declaring that, as the authority of the Federal Government was sufficiently restored in the Southern States to admit of the enlargement from close custody of John A. Campbell, of Alabama; John H. Reagan, of Texas; Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia; George A. Trenholm, of South Carolina, and Charles Clark, of Mississippi; they should be released on giving their respective paroles to appear at such time and place as the President might designate, to answer any charge that he might direct to be preferred against them, and also that they will

respectively abide until further orders, in the States designated, and not depart therefrom.

The views of the President relative to the African race were very fully expressed on October 10th to the 1st colored regiment of the District of Columbia. After thanking them for the service they had rendered the country, and stating that the question of slavery had been settled by the war, he said:

But this is not all, and as you have paid me the compliment to call upon me, I shall take the privilege of saying one or two words as I am before you. I repeat that it is not all. Now when the sword is returned to its scabbard; when your arms are reversed and the olive-branch of peace is extended, as I remarked before, resentment and revenge should subside. Then what is to follow? You do understand, no doubt, and if you do not, you cannot understand too soon, that simple liberty does not mean the privilege of going into the battle-field or into the service of the country as a soldier. It means other things as well. And now when you have laid down your arms there are other objects of equal importance before you. Now that the Government has triumphantly passed through this mighty rebellion, after the most gigantic battles the world ever saw, the problem is before you, and it is best that you should understand it; and therefore I speak simply and plainly. Will you now, when you have returned from the army of the United States and taken the position of the citizen, when you have returned to the avocations of peace, will you give evidence to the world that you are capable and competent to govern yourselves? That is what you will have to do. Liberty is not a mere idea, a mere vagary. It is an idea or it is a reality; and when you come to examine this question of liberty you will not be mistaken in a mere idea for the reality. It does not consist in idleness. Liberty does not consist in being worthless. Liberty does not consist in doing all things as we please; and there can be no liberty without law. In a government of freedom and of liberty there must be law, and there must be obedience and submission to the law without regard to color. Liberty (and may I not call you my countrymen?), liberty consists in the glorious privilege of work; of pursuing the ordinary avocations of peace with industry and with economy; and that being done, all those who have been industrious and economical are permitted to appropriate and enjoy the products of their own labor. This is one of the great blessings of freedom; and hence we might ask the question, and answer it by stating that liberty means freedom to work and enjoy the products of your own labor. You will soon be mustered out of the ranks. It is for you to establish the great fact that you are fit and qualified to be free. Hence freedom is not a mere idea, but is something that exists in fact. Freedom is not simply the privilege to live in idleness; liberty does not mean simply to resort to the low saloons and other places of disreputable character. Freedom and liberty do not mean that the people ought to live in licentiousness; but liberty means simply to be industrious, to be virtuous, to be upright in all our dealings and relations with men; and to those now before me, members of the 1st regiment of colored volunteers from the District of Columbia and the capital of the United States, I have to say that a great deal depends upon yourselves. You must give evidence that you are competent for the rights that the Government has guaranteed to you. Henceforth each and all of you must be measured according to your merit. If one man is more meritorious than another they cannot be equals; and he is the most exalted that is the most meritorious, without regard to color. And the idea of having a law passed in the morning that will make a white man a black man before night, and a black man

a white man before day, is absurd. That is not the standard. It is your own conduct; it is your own merit; it is the development of your own talents and of your own intellectuality and moral qualities. Let this, then, be your course. Adopt a system of morality, abstain from all licentiousness. And let me say one thing here, for I am going to talk plain. I have lived in a Southern State all my life, and know what has too often been the case. There is one thing you should esteem higher and more supreme than almost all others, and that is the solemn contract, with all the penalties, in the association of married life. Men and women should abstain from those actions or habits that too frequently follow a war. Inculcate among your children and among your associations, notwithstanding you are just back from the army of the United States, that virtue, that merit, that intelligence are the standards to be observed, and those which you are determined to maintain during your future lives. This is the way to make white men black and black men white. He that is most meritorious, and virtuous, and intellectual, and well informed, must stand highest, without regard to color. It is the very basis upon which Heaven rests itself. Each individual takes his degree in the sublimer and more exalted regions in proportion to his merits and his virtue. Then I shall say to you on this occasion, in returning to your homes and firesides, after feeling conscious and proud of having faithfully discharged your duty—returning with the determination that you will perform your duty in the future as you have in the past—abstain from all those bickerings, and jealousies, and revengeful feelings, which too often spring up between different races. There is a great problem before us, and I may as well allude to it here in this connection, and that is, whether this race can be incorporated and mixed with the people of the United States, to be made a harmonious and permanent ingredient in the population. This is a problem not yet settled; but we are in the right line to do so. Slavery raised its head against the Government, and the Government raised its strong arm and struck it to the ground. So that part of the problem is settled; the institution of slavery is overthrown. But another part remains to be solved, and that is, can four millions of people, raised as they have been with all the prejudices of the whites, can they take their places in the community and made to work harmoniously and congruously in our system? This is a problem to be considered. Are the digestive powers of the American Government sufficient to receive this element in a new shape and digest it and make it work healthfully upon the system that has incorporated it? This is the question to be determined. Let us make the experiment, and make it in good faith. If that cannot be done there is another problem that is before us. If we have to become a separate and distinct people (although I trust that the system can be made to work harmoniously and that the great problem will be settled without going any further), if it should be so that the two races cannot agree and live in peace and prosperity, and the laws of Providence require that they should be separated—in that event, looking to the far distant future and trusting that it may never come—if it should come, Providence, that works mysteriously, but unerringly and certainly, will point out the way, and the mode, and the manner by which these people are to be separated, and they are to be taken to their lands of inheritance and promise; for such a one is before them. Hence we are making the experiment. Hence let me impress upon you the importance of controlling your passions, developing your intellect, and of applying your physical powers to the industrial interests of the country; and that is the true process by which this question can be settled. Be patient, persevering, and forbearing, and you will help to solve the problem. Make for yourselves a reputation in this cause as you have won for yourselves a reputation in the cause in which you have been en-

gaged. In speaking to the members of this regiment I want them to understand that, so far as I am concerned, I do not assume or pretend that I am stronger than the laws—of course, of nature—or that I am wiser than Providence itself. It is our duty to try and discover what those great laws are which are at the foundation of all things, and, having discovered what they are, conform our actions and our conduct to them, and to the will of God, who ruleth all things. He holds the destinies of nations in the palm of His hand; and He will solve the question and rescue these people from the difficulties that have so long surrounded them. Then let us be patient, industrious, and persevering. Let us develop intellectual and moral worth. I trust what I have said may be understood and appreciated. Go to your homes and lead peaceful, prosperous, and happy lives, in peace with all men. Give utterance to no word that would cause dissensions; but do that which will be creditable to yourselves and to your country. To the officers who have led and so nobly commanded you in the field I also return my thanks for the compliment you have conferred upon me.

But it was early apparent that obstacles existed to a complete restoration of the people of the Southern States to civil rights, beyond the power of the President to set aside. On July 2, 1862, Congress passed an act requiring every person who might subsequently be elected, or appointed to any office of honor or profit under the Government of the United States, either in the civil, military, or naval departments, except the President, to take the following oath before entering on the duties of such office:

I, A B, do solemnly swear (or affirm), that I have never voluntarily borne arms against the United States since I have been a citizen thereof; that I have voluntarily given no aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement to persons engaged in armed hostility thereto; that I have neither sought nor accepted nor attempted to exercise the functions of any office whatever, under any authority or pretended authority, in hostility to the United States; that I have not yielded a voluntary support to any pretended government, authority, power, or constitution within the United States hostile or inimical thereto. And I do further swear (or affirm), that to the best of my knowledge and ability, I will support and defend the Constitution of the United States, against all enemies foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; that I take this obligation freely, without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion, and that I will well and faithfully discharge the duties of the office on which I am about to enter, so help me God.

By this oath, all persons in the Southern States who had either directly or indirectly been engaged in hostilities, were excluded from holding judicial, revenue, legislative, military, or naval Federal offices. By an act of Congress, of January 24, 1865, no person can be admitted as an attorney or counsellor of the Supreme, Circuit, or District Court of the United States, or the Court of Claims, without taking the above-mentioned oath. Several cases arose under this act, known as the lawyers' test oath act, and the question of the constitutionality of the act came before the Supreme Court of the United States, but no decision was rendered during the year. That Court, however, set aside the rule it had adopted, not to call the Southern States for cases during the war, and ordered those States to be called. It still remained, before

restoration could be complete, that the oath should be modified, and that members from the Southern States should be admitted as Senators and Representatives in Congress. These members had been elected in each Southern State except Texas, previous to the commencement of the session, and were mostly in Washington, ready to take their seats. These subjects were properly within the province of Congress, and no decisive action was taken upon them by that body during the year. The question of representation was referred to a joint committee of both Houses in December, together with all the credentials of Southern members. Subsequently, the Secretary of the Treasury and the Postmaster-General appealed to Congress to modify the oath, as they were unable to find Southern persons to fill a large number of offices who could conscientiously take the oath. A committee of the House, of which Mr. Wilson, of Iowa, was chairman, reported against its modification or repeal.

On the 12th of December the Senate of the Federal Congress adopted a resolution calling upon the President for information respecting the condition of affairs in the Southern States. To this request the President made the following reply:

WASHINGTON, December 13, 1865.

To the Senate of the United States:

In reply to the resolution adopted by the Senate on the 12th, I have the honor to state that the rebellion waged by a portion of the people against the properly constituted authorities of the Government of the United States has been suppressed; that the United States are in possession of every State in which the insurrection existed, and that as far as could be done, the courts of the United States have been restored, post-offices reestablished, and steps taken to put into effective operation the revenue laws of the country.

As the result of the measures instituted by the Executive with the view of inducing a resumption of the functions of the State, comprehended in the inquiry of the Senate, the people in North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Tennessee, have reorganized their respective State governments, and are yielding obedience to the laws and Government of the United States with more willingness and greater promptitude than under the circumstances could reasonably have been anticipated. The proposed amendment to the Constitution providing for the abolition of slavery forever within the limits of the country, has been ratified by each one of those States, with the exception of Mississippi, from which no official information has been received; and in nearly all of them measures have been adopted, or are now pending, to confer upon freedmen the privileges which are essential to their comfort, protection, and security.

In Florida and Texas the people are making commendable progress in restoring their State governments, and no doubt is entertained that they will at an early period be in a condition to resume all of their practical relations with the Federal Government. In that portion of the Union lately in rebellion, the aspect of affairs is more promising than, in view of all the circumstances, could well have been expected. The people throughout the entire South evince an audible desire to renew their allegiance to the Government, and to repair the devastations of war by a prompt and cheerful return to peaceful pursuits. An abiding faith is entertained that their actions will conform to their professions and that, in acknowl-

edging the supremacy of the Constitution and the laws of the United States, their loyalty will be unreservedly given to the Government whose leniency they cannot fail to appreciate, and whose fostering care will soon restore them to a condition of prosperity. It is true that in some of the States the demoralizing effects of the war are to be seen in occasional disorders; but these are local in character, not frequent in occurrence, and are rapidly disappearing as the authority of civil government is extended and sustained.

Perplexing questions were naturally to be expected from the great and sudden change in the relations between the two races; but systems are gradually developing themselves under which the freedman will receive the protection to which he is justly entitled, and by means of his labor make himself a useful and independent member of the community in which he has his home.

From all the information in my possession, and from that which I have recently derived from the most reliable authority, I am induced to cherish the belief that sectional animosity is surely and rapidly merging itself into a spirit of nationality, and that representation, connected with a properly adjusted system of taxation, will result in a harmonious restoration of the relations of the States to the national Union.

The report of Carl Schurz is herewith transmitted, as requested by the Senate. No reports from the Hon. John Covode have been received by the President.

The attention of the Senate is invited to the accompanying report of Lieut.-Gen. Grant, who recently made a tour of inspection through several of the States whose inhabitants participated in the rebellion.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

This reply of the President was accompanied by the following letter from Lieut.-Gen. Grant:

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES, }
December 18, 1865. }

To His Excellency A. Johnson, President of the United States.

Sir: In reply to your note of the 16th instant, requesting a report from me giving such information as I may be in possession of, coming within the scope of inquiries made by the Senate of the United States in their resolution of the 12th instant, I have the honor to submit the following with your approval, and also that of the Honorable Secretary of War.

I left Washington on the 27th of last month for the purpose of making a tour of inspection throughout some of the Southern States lately in rebellion, and to see what changes were necessary in the disposition of the military forces of the country, and how these forces could be reduced and expenses curtailed, etc., and to learn, as far as possible, the feelings and intentions of the citizens of the States toward the General Government. The State of Virginia being so accessible to Washington City, and information from this quarter, therefore, being readily obtained, I hastened through the State without conversing or meeting with any of the citizens. In Raleigh, N. C., I spent one day; in Charleston, S. C., two; and in Savannah and Augusta, Ga., each one day. Both in travelling and while stopping I saw much and conversed freely with citizens of those States, as well as with officers of the army who have been stationed among them. The following are the conclusions come to by me:

I am satisfied the mass of thinking men of the South accept the present situation of affairs in good faith. The questions which have hitherto divided the sentiments of the people of the two sections—slavery and State rights, or the right of a State to secede from the Union—they regard as having been settled forever by the highest tribunal of arms that man can resort to. I was pleased to learn from the leading men whom I met that they not only accepted the decision arrived at as final, but now that the

smoke of battle has cleared away, and time has been given for reflection, that this decision has been a fortunate one for the whole country, they receiving the like benefits from it with those who opposed them in the field and in the council. Four years of war, during which the law was executed only at the point of the bayonet throughout the States in rebellion, have left the people, possibly, in that condition not to yield that ready obedience to civil authority the American people have generally been in the habit of yielding. This would render the presence of small garrisons throughout those States necessary until such time as labor returns to its proper channel, and civil authority is fully established. I did not meet any one, either those holding places under the Government or citizens of Southern States, who thought it practicable to withdraw the military from the South at present. The white and black mutually require the protection of the General Government. There is such universal acquiescence in the authority of the General Government throughout the portions of the country visited by me, that the mere presence of a military force, without regard to numbers, is sufficient to maintain order.

The good of the country requires that a force be kept in the interior where there are many freedmen. Elsewhere in the Southern States than at forts on the sea-coast no force is necessary. The soldiers should all be white troops. The reasons for this are obvious. Without mentioning many of them, the presence of black troops, lately slaves, demoralizes labor both by their advice and furnishing in their camps a resort for the freedmen for long distances around. White troops generally excite no opposition, and therefore a smaller number of them can maintain order in a given district. Colored troops must be kept in bodies sufficient to defend themselves. It is not the thinking man who would do violence toward any class of troops sent among them by the General Government, but the ignorant in some places might; and the late slave, too, who might be imbued with the idea that the property of his late master should by right belong to him, at least should have no protection from the colored soldier. There is no danger of a collision being brought on by such causes.

My observations lead me to the conclusion that the citizens of the Southern States are anxious to return to self-government within the Union as soon as possible; that whilst reconstructing they want and require protection from the Government, and is not unmilitary to them as citizens, and if such a course was pointed out they would pursue it in good faith. It is to be regretted there cannot be a greater commingling at this time between the citizens of the two sections, and particularly of those intrusted with the law-making power.

I did not give the operations of the Freedmen's Bureau that attention I would have done if more time had been at my disposal. Conversation, however, on the subject with officers connected with the Bureau, lead me to think that in some of the States its affairs have not been conducted with good judgment or economy, and that the belief widely spread among the freedmen of the Southern States that the lands of their former owners will, at least in part, be divided among them, has come from agents of the Bureau. This belief is seriously interfering with the willingness of the freedmen to make contracts for the coming year. In some form the Freedmen's Bureau is an absolute necessity until the civil law is established and enforced, securing to freedmen their rights and full protection. At present, however, it is independent of the military establishment of the country, and seems to be operated by the different agents of the Bureau, according to their individual notions. Everywhere, General Howard, the able head of the Bureau, has made friends by the just and fair instructions and advice he gave, but the complaint in South Carolina was that when he left,

things went on as before. Many, perhaps a majority of the agents of the Freedmen's Bureau, advised the freedmen that by their own industry they must expect to live. To this end they endeavored to secure employment for them, and to see that both of the contracting parties complied with their engagements. In some cases, I am sorry to say, the freedman's mind does not seem to be disabused of the idea that the freedman has a right to live without care or provision for the future. The effect of this belief in the distribution of the lands is idleness, and accumulation in camps, towns, and cities. In such cases, I think it will be found, that vice and disease will tend to the extermination or great destruction of the colored race. It cannot be expected that the opinions held by men at the South for years can be changed in a day, and therefore the freedmen require for a few years not only laws to protect them, but the fostering care of those who will give them good counsel and on whom they can rely.

The Freedmen's Bureau being separated from the military establishment of the country, requires all the expense of a separate organization. One does not necessarily know what the other is doing, or what orders they are acting under. It seems to me this could be corrected by regarding every officer on duty with the troops in the Southern States as agents of the Freedmen's Bureau, and then have all orders from the head of the bureau sent through the department commanders. This would create a responsibility that would beget uniformity of action throughout the South, and would insure the orders and instructions from the head of the Bureau being carried out, and would relieve from duty and pay a large number of the employes of the Government.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
U. S. GRANT, Lieut.-General."

During the ensuing year, 1866, reports were made by General Schurz and others, presenting a less favorable aspect. These will be noticed hereafter.

On December 18th, the Secretary of State, Mr. Seward, officially announced from the State Department that the amendment of the Federal Constitution abolishing slavery had been adopted. After reciting the amendment, he proceeded to say:

And *whereas*, it appears from official documents on file in this Department, that the amendment to the Constitution of the United States, proposed as aforesaid, has been ratified by the Legislatures of the States of Illinois, Rhode Island, Michigan, Maryland, New York, West Virginia, Ohio, Missouri, Nevada, Indiana, Louisiana, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Vermont, Tennessee, Arkansas, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Maine, Kansas, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Virginia, South Carolina, Alabama, North Carolina, and Georgia—in all twenty-seven States:

And *whereas*, the whole number of States in the United States is thirty-six:

And *whereas*, the before specially named States, whose Legislatures have ratified the said proposed amendment, constitute three-fourths of the whole number of States in the United States:

Now, therefore, be it known, that I, William H. Seward, Secretary of the United States, by virtue and in pursuance of the second section of the act of Congress, approved on the 20th of April, 1818, entitled "An act to provide for the publication of the laws of the United States and for other purposes," do hereby certify that the amendment aforesaid has become valid to all intents and purposes as part of the Constitution of the United States.

Many conventions were held during the year, in both the Northern and Southern States,

by the colored people. The object sought in these assemblages was to improve their condition politically, by the acquisition of the elective franchise, and to stimulate a desire for education, industrial habits, and good morals. The destruction of these people by the war, particularly in the Southern States, was presented in a most alarming aspect by Senator Doolittle in a speech at New Haven, in Connecticut. He said:

Do you not know that the colored population has perished by thousands and hundreds of thousands during the war? We have no accurate data upon which to state the precise number that have perished, but the highest officers in our army state unqualifiedly that in their opinion at least one million have perished. Gov. Aiken, of South Carolina, who has been a Union man, and was one of the largest slaveholders of the South, owning at one time over eight hundred slaves, himself stated to me in Washington the other day, unqualifiedly, that at least a million had perished, and in his opinion a great many more; also, the Hon. Randal Hunt, of the city of New Orleans, states the same opinion; and Captain Haines, of the Union army of Louisiana, who has lived always at the South, states his opinion that at least a million have perished, and these gentlemen tell you the reason on which they found this opinion. Some, of course, have perished in battle; perhaps fifty thousand have perished in battle, or of their wounds, but that has not been the principal source of their destruction. Small-pox and other terrible diseases that follow the march of armies have prevailed among them to a terrible extent, all the way from the Rappahannock to the Rio Grande. The small-pox has swept them away in camp and on plantations, and everywhere by thousands upon thousands. It is also a fact that when these diseases spread among those not accustomed to attend to the diseases among themselves, they have, to a great extent, been neglected by the white people. The masters and those connected with them lost interest in them. They perished by hundreds of thousands. These are the appalling facts, and yet they are true. I have no doubt that when we come to take the census of 1870, two-fifths of the whole colored population will have perished.

The relations of the United States with foreign countries are noticed under the title, DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE, to which the reader is referred; as also to ARMY and NAVY, for the military and naval operations of the Government. Under appropriate titles, all the important subjects forming a part of public affairs will be found.

The system of taxation adopted by the Government originated in haste, and was presented in crude measures which have been modified at every subsequent session of Congress. The results of experience and the investigations of intelligent men, have advanced so far, that the year 1866 will witness the adoption of a very complete system, that will be fully presented in the subsequent volume.

A movement was set on foot to reduce the hours of manual labor for a day's work, from ten or more, to eight hours. It was received with favor and gathered strength with the lapse of time. Nothing decisive had been effected previous to the close of the year.

UNIVERSALISTS. The "Universalist Register" for 1866 contains the following statis-

tics of Universalism in the several States of the Federal Union and of British America:*

States.	Conventions.	Associations.	Societies.	Ministers.
Maine.....	1	6	47	85
New Hampshire.....	1	4	33	21
Vermont.....	1	5	73	85
Massachusetts.....	1	6	105	97
Rhode Island.....	1		5	4
Connecticut.....	1	3	14	18
New York.....	1	16	181	96
Pennsylvania.....	1	6	24	26
New Jersey.....	1		6	
Ohio.....	1	13	91	50
Michigan.....	1	3	22	20
Indiana.....	1	7	25	18
Illinois.....	1	6	26	86
Wisconsin.....	1	3	10	5
Minnesota.....	1		4	6
Iowa.....	1	2	15	19
Missouri.....	1			5
British Provinces..		1	13	8

The United States Universalist Convention met at Middletown, Conn., on September 19, 1865. John T. Gilman, Esq., of Maine, presided. It was stated that during the last two years the denomination have raised, for educational and other purposes, over five hundred thousand dollars. The Convention voted to appoint a board of trustees to raise and use one hundred thousand dollars during the present year for missionary purposes. A majority of the board was selected from New York, and they were instructed to seek an act of incorporation.

URUGUAY. ("The Oriental Republic of Uruguay"), a republic in South America. Provisional President, November, 1865, Venancio Flores. Its area is about 3,375 geographical square miles. The population in 1860 was about 240,965. In 1864 a circular from the Minister of the Exterior, Dr. Juan José Herrera, stated that the population had risen to 350,000, among whom were 150,000 foreigners; that the value of real estate was 140,000,000, and that of cattle 50,000,000 piasters. The imports in 1862 were valued at 12,000,000, and the exports at 10,000,000 piasters.

The close of the year 1864 found the Government of Uruguay at war against the Brazilians, who had invaded the territory of the republic, to aid the insurrection headed by Gen. Venancio Flores. From December 6th to 10th, a fierce engagement took place at Paysandu, which was besieged by Flores, while a Brazilian squadron blockaded the port. The town was reduced to a heap of ruins; but the garrison, only seven hundred strong, held out until January 2, 1865, when the insurgents and Brazilians (numbering about 8,000) succeeded in capturing it by a treacherous stratagem. Gen. Gomez, the commander of the garrison, was shot, and the town for five days abandoned to pillage. From Paysandu the combined force of insurgents and Brazilians marched upon the capital of the republic, Montevideo. A blockade of this city was declared on February 2d, and recognized

by foreign ministers, seven days being granted to those who wished to leave the place. On February 9th the hostilities began. On the same day, President Aguirre resigned his office, and was succeeded by Senator Villalba, who entered into negotiations with the enemy. Plenipotentiaries appointed by him concluded at La Union a treaty of peace with Flores, which was approved by the envoy extraordinary of Brazil. On February 22d Gen. Flores made his entrance into Montevideo, at the head of his troops and one Brazilian brigade. In conformity with the treaty of peace, he assumed the functions of Provisional President. He at once declared the treaties with Brazil, which on December 13, 1864, had been suspended by Aguirre, to be reestablished. On May 4th Flores formed a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, with the Argentine republic and Brazil against Paraguay.*

In November a serious difficulty arose between the Governments of Chili and Uruguay, which led to a rupture of diplomatic relations. The Government of Uruguay desired to observe a strict neutrality in the war between Chili and Spain. When, therefore, on November 2d, the Chilean ambassador at Buenos Ayres, Señor Lastarria, being then in Montevideo, requested permission from the Government for privateers to bring into that port and dispose of whatever prizes they might make among Spanish merchantmen to Uruguay, the Government replied, on the 15th, emphatically prohibiting the sale of any prizes in any of the ports of the republic. The Chilean minister then returned to Buenos Ayres, and under date November 20th, insisted, in a lengthy note, that the Government would just as well maintain a strict neutrality by allowing privateers to sell. Señor Castro replied on the 27th, showing that it was no less the right than the convenience of Montevideo to refuse the demands of the Chilean agent; and Señor Lastarria sent a second, more urgent note, dated December 1st, to which the Government again replied on the 12th instant, expressing much surprise at the language of the Chilean minister. Hereupon Señor Lastarria on the 15th sent back the note of the Montevidean Government, requesting his Excellency Señor Castro to change some offensive phrases which he could not admit. The Montevidean Government then issued the following decree, bearing date December 21st:

Whereas, his Excellency Señor Lastarria, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of Chili, in his dealings with the Government respecting his pretensions for the sale of such Spanish prizes as may be taken by Chilean corsairs, has used language both intemperate and unusual to diplomatic customs, which cannot be defended on the ground of zeal for the interests of his country, since he should never fail in the respect due to a national authority; and moreover that Señor Lastarria's note of the 15th instant, returning that of the Government, is a new and unusual presentation, which the dignity of the Government cannot admit; and finally, that the at-

* The above table embraces only the statistics which were reported to the editor of the "Register." There are a number of associations, societies, and ministers, from which no report was received, and which therefore are not included in the list.

* For the progress of the war, see PARAGUAY.

titude of the Chilean envoy utterly prevents the continuance through him of relations of harmony and friendship between Montevideo and Chili, which it is our purpose to consolidate:

The Provisional Government decrees: 1st. The exequatur of Señor Lastarria is hereby withdrawn. 2d. The Minister of Foreign Affairs will explain to the Chilean Government the motives which have reluctantly called for this measure. 3d. Let the whole correspondence be published, as well as the decree on prizes. (Here follow the signatures of the Governor and four ministers.)

The decree relative to prizes prohibits: 1st. The construction of privateers in any port of the republic. 2d. The sale of prizes by either belligerent. 3d. The delay of Chilean or Spanish war-vessels for more than twenty-four hours in any port. 4th. The conveyance of contraband of war in Montevidean bottoms. 5th. The intervention of Montevidean citizens for either belligerent.

V

VENEZUELA, a republic in South America. President, Ant. Guzman Blanco, elected in 1865 Vice-President; became President in consequence of the resignation of President Juan Crisostomo Falcon. Minister of the United States near the Government of Venezuela, Erastus D. Culver, appointed May, 1862. Minister of Venezuela in Washington, Blas Bruzual. Area, 426,712 square miles. Population in 1858, 1,565,000.

In September, 1864, the State of La Guayana declared itself independent of the Federal Government, on account of several measures adopted by the latter. The Federal Government prepared to prevent the secession by force of arms, and declared the mouth of the Orinoco in a state of blockade. The difficulty was, however, peaceably arranged in October, between commissioners of the Government and the State of La Guayana.

The Federal Congress was opened at Caracas on March 18, 1865. Of twenty States of the Confederation, nineteen voted for the reelection of President Falcon to the presidency. Gen. Falcon entered upon his functions on June 8th. Soon after the President went to Maracaibo, in order to suppress an insurrection instigated by the young General Venancio Pulgar. The latter had, however, been defeated before the arrival of the President, and with difficulty escaped into the neighboring republic. Tranquillity having been fully reestablished, the President returned to Caracas on July 24th, and entered upon the exercise of his presidential functions.

VERMONT. The political campaign for 1865 opened with the meeting of the Democratic State Convention at Burlington, on June 27th. Charles N. Davenport was nominated for Governor, and D. C. Linsley for Lieutenant-Governor; and a series of resolutions was adopted, of which the following are those relating to national affairs:

Resolved, That we have renewed confidence in and reneration for democratic principles. Because those principles were disregarded, we have been afflicted with one of the worst civil wars that the world has ever known, destroying, probably, a half million of our citizens in the prime of life and the vigor of health, and oppressing us and our posterity with a national debt of more than four thousand millions of dollars, and the consequence of taxation to provide for the same; and deploring these and other evils to

the country, which have come upon it in consequence of a disregard of the principles of the National Democratic party, we have to-day renewed our devotion to that party and its principles, as the only basis of national liberty and self-government.

Resolved, That armed resistance to the General Government having ceased in all the States and Territories, civil law should immediately be restored, not only in the States which have been true to the General Government, and which have been arbitrarily and unjustly deprived of it, but throughout the whole country.

Resolved, That this being the military condition of the country, the control of the several States as they existed before the rebellion, should at once be given to the white citizens thereof who have borne true allegiance to the General Government, and those who will now take an oath to hereafter bear true allegiance to the State and national authority.

Resolved, That believing, with the immortal Douglas, that the Government of the country was organized for, and should be controlled by, the white race therein, and that the good of all will best be promoted by confining the right of suffrage to the white citizens thereof, we are unalterably opposed to conferring the right of suffrage upon the ignorant negroes of the country.

Resolved, That in the wise and constitutional policy of President Johnson to restore all the States to their constitutional position, reinvesting them with rights and corresponding duties, and cementing anew the integrity of the Government, we discern a most happy augury that the malignity which strife and collision have engendered may be happily supplanted by the fraternity which enabled our fathers to form the Constitution and create the Union; and if, with Jacksonian firmness, he will maintain his policy against the plottings of treason on the one hand, and the raving and ribaldry of fanaticism on the other, we tender to him our earnest and undivided support.

A motion was made to strike out the word "white" in the fourth resolution, on the ground that it was unnecessary, and would be detrimental to party interests. But after considerable discussion, it was decided to make no change in the language of the resolution.

The Republican call for a Convention invited all freemen of the State who would support the administration of President Johnson, and aid in reestablishing the Federal authority and Government over all the States and Territories of the United States, upon the enduring basis of universal freedom, to meet at Montpelier on June 28th. Paul Dillingham was nominated for Governor, and A. B. Gardner for Lieutenant-Governor. Among the resolutions adopted by the Convention were the following:

Resolved, That looking back to the happy experience of our own State in extending the largest liberty to native or naturalized citizens, of quiet and peaceable behavior, irrespective of color or race, and forward to the inestimable blessings that will flow to the late slave States from a free, industrious, intelligent, virtuous, peaceable, and patriotic population, we do respectfully and earnestly counsel the people of those States that they blot out forever from their statutes all laws pertaining to the late condition of slavery, and to concede to all their native and naturalized citizens, by constitutional guaranty, equality of civil and political rights, leaving to each to reach his proper social position by the character he bears and the merit he fairly wins.

Resolved, That on the failure of any reorganized State to give the guaranty named in the preceding resolution, we insist that Congress shall use all its constitutional powers so as to secure a republican government, both in form and essence, to the people of such State.

The election took place in September, with the following result for Governor:

Governor.	Number of Votes.
Paul Dillingham, Republican.....	27,586
Charles N. Davenport, Democrat.....	8,857

Majority for Dillingham..... 18,729

The Legislature stood as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	30	218	248
Democrats.....	0	11	11
Republican majority....	30	203	232

A special session of the Legislature was held in the early part of March, for the purpose of ratifying the antislavery amendment to the Constitution. The business was accomplished in a single day, and the Legislature then adjourned. The amendment was ratified unanimously in the Senate, and with only two dissenting votes in the House. The regular session of the newly elected Legislature was held at Montpelier on October 12th, when J. W. Stewart was chosen Speaker of the House of Representatives, and Governor Dillingham and the other State officers elect were inaugurated. On the same day Governor Smith delivered his valedictory message. On the 19th a joint convention of both houses elected the following justices of the Supreme Court: Chief Justice, L. P. Poland, of St Johnsbury; Associate Justices, John Pierpont, of Vergennes; James Barrett, of Woodstock; Loyal O. Kellogg, of Rutland; Asahel Peck, of Montpelier; and William O. Wilson, of Bakersfield. Reporter of Supreme Court Decisions, W. G. Veasey, of Rutland. On November 21st Gov. Dillingham appointed Chief Justice Poland United States Senator, in place of Jacob Colamer, who died subsequent to the adjournment of the Legislature. His place on the supreme bench was filled by the appointment of John Pierpont, and Benjamin Steele was appointed fifth Associate Justice. Among the acts passed by this Legislature was one ratifying a decree of the Court of Chancery, which authorized the managers and receivers of the Vermont Central and Vermont and Canada Railroads to borrow \$700,000 on ten years' 8 per cent. bonds. The property and income of

the roads are to be pledged as security for the bonds. A resolution was also adopted affirming that "in the reconstruction of the government of the States lately in rebellion against the Government and authority of the United States, the usual power and legal authority vested in the Federal Government should be exercised to secure equal rights, without respect to color, to all citizens residing in those States, including therein the right of elective franchise." This was ordered to be sent to the President of the United States, and the Governors of the several States.

The receipts into the treasury of the State for the year ending September 1, 1865, were \$2,009,261, and the expenditures, \$1,996,772; excess of receipts over expenditures \$12,489. The funded liabilities amount to \$1,661,179, which sum is reduced by current resources to the extent of \$23,411. The extraordinary receipts and disbursements for the past four years have been:

<i>Receipts.</i>	
Taxes.....	\$3,406,093
State bonds outstanding.....	1,650,000
Reimbursements from United States.....	607,308
Total.....	\$5,663,396

<i>Disbursements.</i>	
Governor's warrants and Auditor's orders approved by the Governor.....	\$1,179,939
Extra pay to soldiers.....	8,275,504
Direct tax paid United States.....	179,407
State bonds paid.....	150,000
Ordinary expenses, including interest on bonds..	878,245
Total.....	\$5,663,396

The expenses incurred by Vermont in support of the late war for the preservation of the Union, are stated by the Adjutant-General at \$3,600,752.52. Of this sum by far the greater part, viz., \$3,386,765.80, comes under the head of State bounty of seven dollars per month, paid to Vermont soldiers during their time of service in the United States army. In addition to this the several towns and municipal corporations expended for bounties \$5,210,897.45, making an aggregate expenditure by the State and the towns, from 1861 to 1865, of \$8,811,649.97.

The surplus number of men furnished by the State over all calls amounted at the close of the rebellion to 679. The total number of troops furnished by her during the war was 30,705, besides 3,800 drafted men and substitutes, making the whole number 34,655. For militia purposes the State of Vermont has been divided into military districts. The militia force includes three brigades, composed of twelve regiments, embracing one hundred and twenty companies, with a regiment of cavalry added, one battalion attached to each brigade, and also a battery of artillery to each. These have been severally efficiently armed and equipped by the Government, and proper armories provided. The amount expended in State aid to soldiers' families for the year ending September 1, 1865, was \$17,584, the number of persons aided was 1,832. The total amount

of aid given during the last four years has been \$73,542. The State agencies in New York, Philadelphia, and Washington, have been closed since the 1st of October, 1865.

Compared with other New England States, Vermont produces, according to the last census, the most horses, sheep, butter, cheese, wool, wheat, oats, hops, and maple sugar. Compared with the other New England States, according to population, it produces in addition to these products the most barley and potatoes. The maple sugar manufactured in this State is now nearly equal in value to its products of wool. At the present price of sugar, this product is likely to be largely increased. The average annual product since the last census was taken has, probably, been much greater than before. But one State, New York, makes more maple sugar, Vermont making nearly four times as much, in proportion to the size of the State. The least of the five States that make more butter, Indiana, is more than three times as large as Vermont, and contains more than four times as many inhabitants. Vermont, nevertheless, was the only State in the Union whose population was not materially increased during the last census decade. But three States—Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont—increased less than ten per cent. The gain of a fractional part of one per cent. barely saved Vermont from a loss. Upwards of one hundred thousand natives of the State may be found in other parts of the country, and notwithstanding the facilities offered for sheep-raising, and other branches of rural economy, she seems destined to remain stationary in population, a feeder to the new States of the far West.

VIRGINIA. The state of affairs in Virginia, previous to the close of the war, was so intimately connected with the Confederate Government, whose headquarters were at Richmond, that a reference to that title is made. The disappearance of the army of Gen. Lee left the State largely desolated, the inhabitants impoverished, the civil authority powerless, and at the mercy of the Federal commanders. The desolations of the Shenandoah Valley, and in the track of the armies near the Rapidan, were at this time thus sketched:

We have also conversed with an intelligent friend, who formerly resided at Edinburg, in Shenandoah County, and who has been compelled to bring his family into a more favored locality, to keep them from starving, and he gives a deplorable picture of the sufferings and privations of these unfortunate people. But a small amount of grain is in possession of the inhabitants, and what little they have it is hardly possible to get ground for want of mills, all having been burned except five or six, in the extent of country of which we speak. In many instances corn has been pounded, baked, and consumed in a rough state, and our informant states that he is familiar with instances where the people have mixed middlings with bran and baked it into bread in order to stretch the food. Cattle, hogs, and sheep, have been swept away, and but few horses remain with which to cultivate the ground and raise a crop the present season. It is hard to realize and believe that such a

state of things exists, but it nevertheless is fearfully true.

Another says:

With the exception of small enclosures of one or two acres, here and there, there is scarcely a fence worthy of the name from the Rapidan to Bull Run; and the fields, once the pride of the farmers' hearts, and shut in by "ten rails and a rider," are now broad commons, with old landmarks obliterated, ditches filled up, quarters, cornhouses, and barns in ruins, while the lone and blackened chimneys of the once happy homestead stand like some grim old sentries on guard until the last.

The once majestic forests of oak, hickory, chestnut, and pine along the line of the Orange and Alexandria Railroad have disappeared and given place to the rude huts and cabins improvised by the armies of Lee and Meade; and instead of whortleberries, chinquapins, and chestnuts, one kicks up canteens, worn-out knapsacks, odd shoes, bread-boxes, suggestive of the inevitable "hard tack," bayonet-scarbards, with here and there a stand of grape, a ten-pounder Parrott shell, and everywhere almost the hollow-base "little Minies," whose whistling tones are so familiar to us all.

The village of Raccoonford is a village no longer. Stevensburg is Stevensburg only on the military maps; and all along the route, crossing and recrossing the railroad, one sees nothing where man's agency is concerned but utter desolation.

The people are returning to their once happy homes, after such hardships as refugees only can know, and are patching up any outbuildings at hand for a temporary residence until the "great house" can be rebuilt and former comforts collected around them.

The negroes in Orange County can be hired for their food and quarters; but this does not pertain in Culpepper and Fauquier, where labor is scarce and in demand, as nearly every negro—man, woman, and child—left home early in the war, with the hope of an improved condition in the crowded streets of Alexandria and Washington. The supply, however, will be equal, and perhaps more than equal, to the demand, when the farmers are once more prepared to cultivate their lands, but just now there is a feeling of oppressive uncertainty hanging over every man's head; and until courts are established, magistrates, sheriffs, surveyors, commissioners, etc., are appointed, this feeling will prevail, and tend materially to retard the development of the agricultural resources of the country, and of that desire to do their duty as good and loyal citizens, which is the sincere and hearty wish of nine-tenths of the people of Virginia, now that the terrible struggle is over, and which has been decided finally against them. The farmers need nearly every article necessary to a successful cultivation of their lands, and with but very limited means for purchasing them, no credit, and an entirely new system of labor to contend with, the problem of success seems to be one of difficult solution; but with industry, skill, and integrity, the prolific soil will soon supply their wants, and in a few years one will scarcely be able to recognize this as the classic battleground of the two celebrated armies of the Potomac and Northern Virginia.

When the evacuation of Richmond was decided upon, orders were issued to destroy all buildings belonging to or rented by the Government, of which there was a large number in the business portion of the city. The orders were too well executed, and an appalling scene of destruction was presented, and the flames were only stayed by the aid furnished on the arrival of Northern troops, many of whom were blacks.

The defences of Richmond, upon which so

much science and skill had been expended, consisted of three lines of works. The first line was about a mile from the city. It consisted of a series of detached earth forts, entirely encircling Richmond. They were within a common range of each other, but not connected by any line of breastworks, and so placed as to command all the roads or other avenues of approach. The forts were pierced for four and in some cases six guns, but none had been mounted; it had evidently been intended that they should be used as a last resort, in the event of the outer lines being carried. The depth from the bottom of the ditch to the top of the earth parapet was about ten or fifteen feet. Rather more than a mile from this line of defence was the second. It was a connected system of works extending from a point about three miles south of Richmond, on the James River, entirely around the northern side of the city, till the line again touched the river three miles north of Richmond. This line was supplemented at various points by additional earth-works commanding the roads leading down to the different pontoon bridges across the James, which were used to cross with supplies to the armies or to the city. The forts which formed the angles of this line of works, and all of which were connected by breastworks, with a ditch in front, were not so large and formidable as the detached forts nearer the city, or those on the third or outer line. The second line was reached only on one occasion by Federal troops, under General Terry, who skirmished up to it, after breaking through a part of the outer line. Four or five miles beyond the second line of defence was the third, which also commenced at the James River, and about opposite to Fort Darling. It was carried continuously around the city, to a point on the James about three miles north of the second line. It was by far the most formidable of all. It was not parallel with the second, but in some places nearer, and at others more distant, advantage having been taken of the undulating surface of the ground. At about the most southerly angle of the line was Fort Johnson. Southeast from this was Fort Harrison, and about three hundred yards distant. About one to three hundred yards distant from each other, were placed similar forts along the whole line. Fort Johnson had three points for heavy guns, the centre one forming the apex of a triangle with the other two, and all being connected with a heavy line of breastworks, with a deep ditch in front. At each of the points at which heavy guns were placed, there was a bomb-proof to protect the men from the fire of artillery and shells. The breastworks were formed by driving timbers well into the ground, and building in front of them an earthen wall some six or seven feet high, and about as many broad, with a ditch in front about six feet deep, and nearly as many wide, thus making about 12 to 14 feet from the bottom of the ditch to the top of the earthen parapet or wall. There

were embrasures for guns, commanding the country in front of the fort, and partially also the ditches in front of the breastworks. About 100 feet in front of the fort was a line of abatis, formed of timber about the thickness of heavy cordwood, firmly embedded in the ground, with sharply pointed ends, and rising a height of about three feet at the sharp end. This pointed timber was planted close together, and was a most formidable barrier to break through, under the fire of heavy guns and rifles blazing away from the fort. In advance of this line of abatis were two similar lines at about 100 feet apart, so that before reaching the ditch, three separate lines of abatis had to be passed or broken through under a heavy fire, besides that between each line numerous shells were placed, and lightly covered with earth, which, on being trod upon, at once exploded. In advance of the third line of abatis were the picket posts, formed of a triangular mound of earth to protect the sentry. When to all this is added that for a mile in front of the fort the forest had been cut down, the difficulties of an attacking column may be imagined, they having to charge for nearly a mile under accurate range of the guns of the fort, over ground which is covered with trees—which have been made to fall in every possible confusion; and if they succeeded in reaching the first line of abatis, having then to overcome the difficulties above explained, before reaching the edge of the ditch where the final struggle would begin.

Upon the occupation of Richmond by General Weitzel, military authority was established. Steps were taken for the reassembling of the State Legislature with the approval of President Lincoln, who was at the time in Richmond (*see UNITED STATES*). No meeting, however, took place. Major-General Halleck then took command of the military force at Richmond, and modified the course of events by refusing to recognize any official authority in the State officers elected during the war. Affairs continued in this state until May 9th, when President Johnson issued the following:

EXECUTIVE CHAMBER, WASHINGTON CITY, May 9, 1865.

Executive Order to reestablish the authority of the United States, and execute the laws within the geographical limits known as the State of Virginia.

Ordered 1. That all acts and proceedings of the political, military, and civil organizations which have been in a state of insurrection and rebellion, within the State of Virginia, against the authority and laws of the United States, and of which Jefferson Davis, John Letcher, and William Smith were late the chiefs, are declared null and void. All persons who shall exercise, claim, pretend, or attempt any political, military, or civil power, authority, jurisdiction, or right, by, through, or under Jefferson Davis, late of the City of Richmond, and his confederates, or under John Letcher or William Smith and their confederates, or under any pretended political, military, or civil commission or authority issued by them or either of them since the 17th of April, 1861, shall be deemed and taken as in rebellion against the United States, and shall be dealt with accordingly.

2. That the Secretary of State proceed to put in force all laws of the United States, the administration

whereof belongs to the Department of State, applicable to the geographical limits aforesaid.

3. That the Secretary of the Treasury proceed, without delay, to nominate for appointment assessors of taxes and collectors of customs and internal revenue, and such other officers of the Treasury Department as are authorized by law, and shall put in execution the revenue laws of the United States within the geographical limits aforesaid. In making appointments, the preference shall be given to qualified loyal persons residing within the districts where their respective duties are to be performed. But if suitable persons shall not be found, residents of the districts, then persons residing in other States or districts shall be appointed.

4. That the Postmaster-General shall proceed to establish post-offices and post routes, and put into execution the postal laws of the United States within the said State, giving to loyal residents the preference of appointment; but if suitable persons are not found, then to appoint agents, etc., from other States.

5. That the District Judge of said district proceed to hold courts within said State, in accordance with the provisions of the acts of Congress. The Attorney-General will instruct the proper officers to libel, and bring to judgment, confiscation, and sale, property subject to confiscation, and enforce the administration of justice within said State, in all matters civil and criminal within the cognizance and jurisdiction of the Federal courts.

6. That the Secretary of War assign such Assistant Provost Marshal General, and such Provost Marshals in each district of said State, as he may deem necessary.

7. The Secretary of the Navy will take possession of all public property belonging to the Navy Department within said geographical limits, and put in operation all acts of Congress in relation to naval affairs having application to the said State.

8. The Secretary of the Interior will also put in force the laws relating to the Department of the Interior.

9. That to carry into effect the guaranty of the Federal Constitution of a republican form of State government, and afford the advantage and security of domestic laws, as well as to complete the reestablishment of the authority of the laws of the United States, and the full and complete restoration of peace within the limits aforesaid, Francis H. Pierpont, Governor of the State of Virginia, will be aided by the Federal Government so far as may be necessary, in the lawful measures which he may take for the extension and administration of the State government throughout the geographical limits of said State.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President:

W. HUNTER, Acting Secretary of State.

This order recognized Francis H. Pierpont, who was originally elected Governor in West Virginia, and upon the organization of a State government for that district under the name of West Virginia, moved the seat of his government to Alexandria, and exercised jurisdiction in a few counties adjacent to Washington. The officers of this government were: Francis H. Pierpont, Governor; L. O. P. Cowper, Lieutenant-Governor; Charles H. Lewis, Secretary of State; W. W. King, Treasurer. During the existence of this government at Alexandria, a Legislature was elected and designated as the Legislature of the State of Virginia. It consisted of members from ten counties. (*See ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1864.*) The Constitution of the State was amended by delegates from these counties,

and adopted in February. It contained a provision that every person who since January 1, 1864, had "voluntarily given aid or assistance in any way to those in rebellion against the Government of the United States," should be disqualified from voting.

Gov. Pierpont, with the other members of his government, arrived in Richmond on May 26th, and was received in a flattering manner. He proceeded to exercise the duties of his office. Regarding his as the "restored State government," he appointed persons in the counties to reorganize them by holding elections for the local officers; in some instances the Governor appointed those officers, in others he authorized those persons to act for the preservation of the peace whom the military officers might appoint. But the difficulties of his situation were such, that he called a special session of the Legislature to meet at Richmond on June 20th. That body duly convened at the appointed time, and the Governor in his message stated that nothing but a pressing exigency had induced him to call the extra session. He then gave a summary of the course of events in West Virginia after secession, and the subsequent removal of his government to Alexandria, and thus stated the results of the division of the State:

In consideration of the division of the State, the number of judges of the Supreme Court is reduced to three. The judiciary of the State remains unchanged, except in the appointment of the judges; they are now nominated by the Executive and confirmed by the Legislature. The time of residence for voters is reduced to one year; persons who held seats in the Confederate Congress, or under the Confederate Government, members of the rebel Legislature, and persons holding office, civil or military, under what is known as the rebel Government of Virginia, except county officers, are disfranchised. Also, persons offering to vote are required first to take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, and the laws made in pursuance thereof, as the supreme law of the land; also, to uphold and support the restored government of Virginia, established by the convention which assembled at Wheeling on the 11th day of June, 1861, and that the person offering to vote has not willingly aided the rebellion since the first of January, 1864. The Legislature has authority to restore persons disfranchised by these provisions, from time to time, as it may deem best. At the last session, it removed the disability from all officers who were called out by the rebel State authority in 1861, and who had not gone into the rebel army after they were disbanded. Thus, State sovereignty—the status of the African race—the armed resistance to the Government of the United States—are disposed of; and we have arrived at the important point of the restoration of our State to all its former relations in the Union. This is a delicate task, and one that demands great wisdom and prudence.

Since coming to Richmond he had conversed with intelligent men of every shade of political opinion and from every portion of the State. He was convinced, he said, that if the test of loyalty prescribed by the Constitution was enforced in the election and qualification of officers, it would render organization impracticable in most of the counties of the State. "It was folly to suppose that a State could be governed

under a republican form of government wherein a large portion of the State, nineteen-twentieths of the people, are disfranchised and cannot hold office. But, fortunately, by the terms of the Constitution, the General Assembly has control of this subject. The restricting clauses of the Constitution were devised in time of war. But we have passed through this great and terrific conflict, waged on both sides with a skill and pertinacity seldom equalled. Men accept the facts developed by the logic of the past four years, declare that they have taken the oath of allegiance to the Government of the United States without mental reservation, and intend to be, and remain, loyal to the Government of their fathers. It would not be in accordance with the spirit of that noble Anglo-Saxon race, from which we boast our common origin, to strike a fallen brother, or impose upon him humiliating terms after a fair surrender." He recommended that the amnesty oath prescribed by the President, or one of a similar character, should be substituted for the one required by the State Constitution; also the passage of an act to legalize the marriage of persons of color; also that the State tax be increased to fifteen cents on the hundred dollars of taxable property; and that a day should be fixed for holding elections for members of the Legislature in counties in which no elections had been held, and for members of Congress.

The subject of disfranchisement was immediately taken up in both Houses, and the result of their action was, to allow all to vote for State officers who had not held office under the Confederacy or its State governments upon taking the amnesty oath. Those who had so held office could neither vote nor hold office. This restriction arose from a clause of the amended Constitution, prescribing an oath—"That I have not, since January 1, 1864, voluntarily given aid, etc." The Legislature therefore submitted to the people the question of the removal of this restriction upon office-holders, to be determined at the ensuing election in October.

This action of the Legislature was followed by the appearance of a large number of candidates for the offices, and considerable interest was awakened. Many of the candidates for Congress, finding that they would be unable to take the oath required by that body, withdrew. Some citizens of Albemarle County addressed a letter to President Johnson, asking if, in his opinion, Congress would probably insist upon the oath required, to whom the following reply was given:

ATTORNEY-GENERAL'S OFFICE, }
WASHINGTON, September 28, 1865. }

Messrs. Wood, John Cochrane, and others, Charlottesville, Virginia:

GENTS.: The President has referred to me your letter, dated Charlottesville, Virginia, September, 1865, and I am instructed by him to say that he has no more means of knowing what Congress may do in regard to the oath about which you inquire than any other citizen. It is his earnest wish that loyal and

true men, to whom no objections can be made, should be elected to Congress.

This is not an official letter, but a simple expression of individual opinion and wish.

I am, gents, very respectfully, your obedient servant,
JAMES SPEED, Attorney-General.

The election was held on October 12th, and the vote polled was the smallest ever given in the State. In the first eight Congressional districts, however, it exceeded 40,000. The constitutional amendment met with very little opposition. Many counties voted unanimously for the removal of the restriction.

The Legislature thus elected assembled at Richmond on December 4th. The Governor addressed the usual message to both Houses, in which he stated that in many sections of the State a fair crop had been gathered, which, with prudence and economy, would furnish food to the people until another harvest; that the debt of the State was \$41,061,316, and the assets, consisting of stock of railroads and loans to them, with back interest, amounted to \$27,709,319; that the bank stocks held by the State were probably all lost; that the investment in the James River Canal could not be relied on for income for many years; that for practical purposes the Literary Fund may be said no longer to exist. The holders of State bonds were pressing for the interest due, amounting to six millions of dollars, and the whole subject demanded most careful consideration. The relations of the State with the railroads were presented in detail; the condition of the public institutions, the freedmen, immigration, legal interest, militia, and all those subjects requiring more immediate attention, were explained with much fulness.

In the House, on the second day of the session, an act was introduced to repeal an act passed May 13, 1862, giving the consent of the Legislature of Virginia to the formation and erection of a new State within the jurisdiction of Virginia, etc. The rules were suspended, and it was passed at once, without a dissenting voice. Mr. Woodson, of Buckingham, said the act of the Legislature authorizing the division of the State, and the annexation of the counties of Jefferson and Berkeley to the new State of West Virginia, had not been ratified by the Congress of the United States, and he wished the consent of the State withdrawn before the ratification took place.

The bill was then sent to the Senate, where the rules were suspended, and it was passed. This act repealed the consent given for the formation of the State of West Virginia, and also the consent for the transfer of certain counties to that State.

For the amendment to the Constitution of the State, it was proposed to strike therefrom the following words: "No person shall hold any office under this Constitution who shall not have taken and subscribed the oath aforesaid. But no person shall vote or hold office under this Constitution who has held office under the

so-called Confederate Government, or under any rebellious State government, or who has been a member of the so-called Confederate Congress, or a member of any State Legislature in rebellion against the authority of the United States, excepting therefrom county officers."

The bill was passed unanimously in the House under a suspension of the rules, and subsequently agreed to by the Senate.

A joint resolution was unanimously passed in the House praying the President of the United States to release Jefferson Davis and all political prisoners. The following is an extract:

We most respectfully recommend to his Excellency, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, to release from confinement Jefferson Davis, and to restore to him his civil rights as a distinguished testimonial to the world of the magnanimity, forbearance, and sagacious wisdom of a great Republic, based on the enlightened freedom of independent States, and cemented by the compact of its illustrious founders. That we further recommend the release of all political prisoners, the restoration of the writ of *habeas corpus*, not only as a solid guaranty of restored peace, but as permitting the States to stand reunited, looking to the Constitution created by our fathers for their protection and safety, with the renewed assurance that Virginia will enter with mutual confidence and reciprocal good faith with her sister States upon her duties under the Constitution enacted and sustained by the spirit and teachings of her illustrious son, George Washington.

The session of the Legislature was extended into the ensuing year, and an immense number of bills of local interest were passed. Bills were also passed legalizing the marriage of negroes; repealing all laws relating to slaves and slavery; admitting them as witnesses in civil cases in which colored persons are interested, and in all criminal cases. Qualifications for suffrage were confined to white males of twenty-one years of age and upwards, who had resided in the State two years, and paid the taxes assessed upon them. For the action of the Legislature relative to West Virginia (*see* that title). The following resolutions relative to reconstruction were adopted, and a committee appointed to present them to President Johnson:

1. *Resolved by the General Assembly of Virginia*, That the people of this Commonwealth, and their representatives here assembled, cordially approve the policy pursued by Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, in the reorganization of the Union. We accept the result of the late contest, and do not desire to renew what has been so conclusively determined; nor do we mean to permit any one subject to our control to attempt its renewal, or to violate any of our obligations to the United States Government. We mean to coöperate in the wise, firm, and just policy adopted by the President, with all the energy and power we can devote to that object.

2. That the above declaration expresses the sentiments and purposes of all our people, and we denounce the efforts of those who represent our views and intentions to be different, as cruel and criminal assaults on our character and our interests. It is one of the misfortunes of our present political condition, that we have among us persons whose interests are temporarily promoted by such false misrepresentations; but we rely on the intelligence and integrity of those who wield the power of the United States Government for our safeguard against such malign influences.

3. That involuntary servitude, except for crime, is abolished, and ought not to be reestablished, and that the negro race among us should be treated with justice, humanity, and good faith, and every means that the wisdom of the Legislature can devise should be used to make them useful and intelligent members of society.

4. That Virginia will not voluntarily consent to change the adjustment of political power as fixed by the Constitution of the United States, and to constrain her to do so in her present prostrate and helpless condition, with no voice in the councils of the nation, would be an unjustifiable breach of faith—and that her earnest thanks are due to the President for the firm stand he has taken against amendments of the Constitution forced through in the present condition of affairs.

An act was also passed subjecting the following described persons to the penalties of vagrancy:

1. All persons who shall unlawfully return into any county or corporation whence they have been legally removed.

2. All persons who, not having wherewith to maintain themselves and their families, live idly and without employment, and refuse to work for the usual and common wages given to other laborers in the like work in the place where they then are.

3. All persons who shall refuse to perform the work which shall be allotted to them by the overseer of the poor as aforesaid.

4. All persons going about from door to door, or placing themselves in streets, highways, or other roads, to beg alms, and all other persons wandering abroad and begging.

5. All persons who shall come from any place without this Commonwealth to any place within it, and shall be found loitering and residing therein, and shall follow no labor, trade, occupation, or business, and can give no reasonable account of themselves or their business in such place.

The overseers of the poor, or the special county police, upon discovering vagrants within their respective counties, were required to make a complaint before a justice of the peace, who, if the charge proved to be true, was required to order such person to be hired out for three months upon the best terms that could be obtained, to be applied to the use of the vagrant and his family, after payment of costs. If a vagrant abandoned the service, or ran away and was recovered, he was required to work an additional month without wages, and if necessary confined with ball and chain, etc.

On January 24, 1866, Major-General Terry issued an order "that no magistrate, civil officer, or other person shall, in any way or manner, apply, or attempt to apply, the provisions of the said statute to any colored person in this department." His objections were thus stated:

The said statute specifies the persons who shall be considered vagrants and be liable to the penalties imposed by it. Among those declared to be vagrants are "all persons who, not having the wherewith to support their families, live idly and without employment, and refuse to work for the usual and common wages given to other laborers in the like work in the place where they then are."

In many counties of this State, meetings of employers have been held, and unjust and wrongful combinations have been entered into for the purpose of depressing the wages of the freedmen below the

real value of their labor, far below the prices formerly paid to masters for labor performed by their slaves.

By reason of these combinations, wages utterly inadequate to the support of themselves and their families have, in many places, become the usual and common wages of the freedmen.

The effect of the statute in question will be, therefore, to compel the freedmen, under penalty of punishment as criminals, to accept and labor for the wages established by these combinations of employers. It places them wholly in the power of their employers, and it is easy to foresee that, even where no such combinations now exist, the temptation to form them offered by the statute will be too strong to be resisted, and that such inadequate wages will become the common and usual wages throughout the State.

The ultimate effect of the statute will be to reduce the freedmen to a condition of servitude worse than that from which they have been emancipated—a condition which will be slavery in all but its name.

The amount of registered stock issued by the State is \$21,996,398; do. of coupon bonds, \$12,973,000. Since January 1, 1865, \$269,822 of interest had been paid on the registered stock. With the exception of some parcels, the property which had been taken and held by the Federal Government as abandoned, was given up to the owners.

At the municipal election in Richmond, on July 28th, the Mayor, Attorney, and Superintendent of the Poor elected were persons who had held commissions in the Confederate army. An order was issued by Maj.-Gen. Turner forbidding an organization of the Common Council. The obnoxious persons declined. No meeting was, however, allowed until it became necessary to prepare for the State election, when a quorum was allowed to meet. By the retirement of certain members the objections of Gens. Terry and Turner were removed, and the Council allowed to enter upon its duties.

The freedmen in the State come under the charge of the Freedmen's Bureau, and with the exception of a few local disturbances, the course of affairs was so similar to that in other Southern States, that it is unnecessary to repeat them.

Desolated as Virginia had been by the war, no State has manifested more prompt and sincere acquiescence in the result. Without reservation or reluctance, the State has assumed all the responsibilities, burdens, and other duties imposed upon her by the new situation. The State government, established by a handful of votes in the border counties, was honestly and cordially sustained; and Governor Pierpont suddenly found himself with a jurisdiction and a population almost as extensive as the largest States in the Union.

VIRGINIA, WEST. This State shared the general prosperity of the northern States, as is evident from the favorable condition of its finances, the treasurer's and auditor's reports showing a large balance in the treasury, notwithstanding that nearly \$2,000,000 had been expended for bounties during the war. During the same time, according to the report of the adjutant-general, 31,884 men were furnished to the Federal armies.

A movement was set on foot in Virginia with

a view to bring about a reunion with West Virginia, and measures looking to that end were taken into consideration by the Virginia Legislature. The subject was referred to a committee, the minority of which, in a report that exhibited the feeling on the question in the minds of a large portion of the people, said substantially, that whatever mortification and regret the people of Virginia had experienced at the dismemberment of the Commonwealth, they had the consolation of knowing that it was by no act of theirs this "ungrateful deed" had been accomplished; that West Virginia had had no cause to complain, and that she could point to no improvement or advantage enjoyed or position attained for which she was not more or less indebted to her "impoverished mother." The report appealed to statistics to sustain the assertion that "for a long series of years, some, if not many of the counties now composing West Virginia, were unable to pay the cost of their organization and representation, but were aided, fostered, and sustained, and made all that they now are, by a people who, in every vicissitude and under all trials, have shown themselves the most generous and magnanimous ever known." The report argued that as West Virginia was now a free and independent State, "in the full and successful exercise of all the functions, organization, and representation in her State Legislature, as well as in the Federal Congress," the proposition was not timely; that "an impoverished people, divested of a large portion of their rights and privileges, ignorant alike of their present position and future condition, should earnestly invite her to share their fallen state, gloomy prospects, and uncertain fate." "If the position and condition of the two States were reversed," the report continued, "then might Virginia, without any loss of self respect or descent from the dignified position she has always sustained, and in accordance with that noble philanthropy, disinterested friendship, and generosity which have always been characteristic of her people, invite back and with outstretched arms receive the wayward daughter." The report concluded by recommending the adoption of the following resolution:

Resolved by the General Assembly of Virginia, That it is inexpedient at this time to legislate upon the subject of a reunion between West Virginia and Virginia; but whenever the people of the former State shall, through the constituted authorities, manifest a disposition therefor, then will Virginia be prepared to consider any overtures which may be made.

Governor Boreman, in his message to the Legislature in January, 1866, said, in relation to the enforcement of the oath of loyalty embodied in the Constitution of the State:

After the war ended and peace was being restored, I entertained the hope that I would be able at this session of the Legislature to recommend the modification of the more stringent laws in regard to the election and qualification of officers; but after what has transpired at the first and only election held since the close of the war in the localities where dis-

loyalty had most prevailed, I cannot make such recommendation. On the contrary, I now think it the duty of the Legislature to so amend these laws that their execution may the more certainly be secured. And to this end I recommend, first, that you provide for a registry of voters as authorized by the Constitution, article 3, section 12; second, that you declare distinctly that all officers of election shall take the oath of office prescribed by the act of November 16, 1863, and, if they fail to do so at any place of voting, that the vote where such failure occurs shall be void and shall not be counted; third, that you require all the county and the principal township officers to qualify before the Circuit Court of the county, or the Judge thereof in vacation. These amendments, it seems to me, will insure the purity of elections, and the due and proper enforcement of the laws. And in order that there may be no failure in the administration of the laws where a person is elected who cannot qualify, and, at the same time, frequent elections may be avoided, it may be proper to amend the law so that vacancies may be filled until the succeeding annual election, instead of holding special elections as now provided by law; and that the vacancies in the principal township offices may be filled, as many county offices now are, by the Circuit Court, or the Judge in vacation.

Referring to the conduct of returned Confederates in the border counties at the fall elections, he condemned severely those who, knowing themselves disqualified, sought positions which they could not fill, in order to retard civil organization, and who, by their example and counsels, induced a general disregard of law in the conduct of the elections. In regard to the colored people the Governor affirmed their inalienable right to protection of person and property, but declared that these would not be secure till negroes were made competent witnesses. He

recommended that the bronze statue of Washington, captured by General Hunter at Lexington, in 1864, be at once restored to the State of Virginia.

A growing interest was felt in the cause of education. "The people," says the State Superintendent, "are clamoring for schools and school houses." The greatest obstacle to the school system was the want of suitable rooms and grounds. The number of children in the entire State between the ages of six and twenty-one was 84,418. In the twenty-two counties in which the school system was in full operation, there were 63,458 children between those ages, of whom 15,972 attended school; there were 133 school houses, of which the average value was \$303, but excluding the eight schools in Wheeling, less than \$63; the number of teachers was 887, at an average salary for those in Wheeling of \$139 per month, and \$43 per month for females, while in the other districts it was only \$34 for males, and \$23 for females—salaries, says the State Superintendent, "totally insufficient to secure the services of first-class teachers." The total amount of the irreducible school fund, on the 1st of October, was \$106,122.78.

An election for members of the Legislature and local officers was held on the 26th of October. The result was that the Legislature stands as follows:

	Senate	House	Joint ballot
Republicans	19	43	67
Democrats	1	8	9
Republican majority ..	18	40	58

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WALDECK, the name of a German principality. Prince, Georg, born January 14, 1831; succeeded his father May 15, 1845. Heir apparent, Prince Friedrich, born January 20, 1865. Area, 466 square miles. Population, in 1864, 59,143, nearly all of whom belong to the Lutheran Church. The Constitution of 1852 provides for a Legislative Assembly of 41 members, separately elected by the nobility, the towns, and the rural districts. Contingent to the Federal army, 866 men. Revenue in 1865, 511,801 thalers.

WAYLAND, FRANCIS, D. D., LL. D., an American Baptist clergyman and author, for thirty years President of Brown University, born in the city of New York, March 11, 1796; died in Providence, Rhode Island, September 26, 1865, of paralysis. His father, a Baptist clergyman of considerable ability, was settled as a pastor, first in New York City, afterwards at Poughkeepsie and Saratoga Springs. The family removed to Poughkeepsie, where Francis was placed at the academy, and pursued his classical studies under the late Daniel H. Barnes. In 1813, when only seventeen years old, he graduated with honor at Union College, and

showed, even at that early age, a marked predilection for metaphysical and economic studies. Immediately after graduating, he entered the office of Dr. Eli Burritt, of Troy; and, after three years of medical study, was licensed to practise his profession. During his medical course, however, he felt called upon to consecrate his life to the Christian ministry. He spent a year in the seminary at Andover, and in 1817 was induced to accept a tutorship in Union College. He continued his theological studies, and mingled with them the study of several branches of literature and science. He remained here four years, taught in nearly every department of college instruction, and acquired much of that diversified culture which distinguished him in after life.

In August, 1821, he was ordained, and settled as the pastor of the First Baptist Church in Boston, and resigned his position in 1826, to accept the professorship of mathematics and natural philosophy in Union College. Soon after he had entered upon his duties here, he was elected President of Brown University, and was inaugurated February, 1827. The circumstances in which he found the college were by

no means favorable. It was scantily endowed, had little apparatus, and a small library. He soon reduced the affairs to order; and Brown University became remarkable for the exemplary behavior of its students and its high standard of instruction. "Its departments of instruction," it is said, "were but imperfectly organized; and, in addition to his own proper work, he taught whatever there was no one else to teach. For several years he held the reins of discipline entirely in his own hands, and, both by day and by night, watched over the students with truly parental care. He did not care especially to make the college popular, as it is called; but he labored most earnestly to render it a school of thorough discipline and of sound education." The result of such assiduous labors and a management so skilful was most happy. The library rose to a respectable rank, and a permanent endowment of \$25,000 was secured for it. Its increasing size required ampler accommodation; and Manning Hall, with its fine library and chapel-rooms, was erected. The new president's house and Rhode Island Hall were erected; and, on Dr. Wayland's earnest appeals, the endowment of the university was considerably increased. Yet, with all these evidences of success, Dr.* Wayland's ideal of a university was not reached. The number of students did not increase, but actually diminished, and the annual expenses had become greater than the annual receipts. He investigated with great care the existing system of collegiate instruction in the United States; and, becoming satisfied that a radical change in some of its features was demanded, gave expression to his views in a little volume published in 1842, entitled "Thoughts on the Present Collegiate System of the United States."

In 1849, despairing of any decided improvement while the existing system was retained, Dr. Wayland resigned the presidency. The corporation, unwilling to release him, asked if he could not be prevailed on to remain in office. In reply, he stated freely the reasons of his resignation, and suggested such changes as he believed essential for the largest usefulness of the university. The experiment was tried, and proved reasonably successful. An endowment fund of \$125,000 was raised by subscription in four months, and the university commenced the year 1850-'51 under the new system. During the second term of that year the number of students increased to 195, and from that time to the date of Dr. Wayland's resignation the average was 249. On the 21st of August, 1855, his resignation was again sent to the corporation; this time not from any discouragement in regard to the condition of the university, for it was enjoying a higher degree of prosperity than at any former period, but from the state of his health. It was accepted with regret, and only from the conviction that it

was indispensable to the preservation of his life. He was accustomed for many years to preach to the students every Sabbath; and his sermons, though not marked by the graces of oratory in their delivery, were replete with sound and vigorous thought. For two or three years he preached with great acceptance in the First Baptist Church in Providence. But his great work, so far as his relations to education were concerned, was the preparation of his textbooks. For eight years after he entered upon the presidency, he taught moral philosophy by lectures and discussions. Having, by this long course of study, settled fully the great principles of the science, he gave his "Elements of Moral Science" to the public in 1835, and for thirty years it has continued to be a standard work.

In 1837 his "Elements of Political Economy" was published, and though meeting with less universal success than his preceding work, as was to be expected from the diversity of views on the subject, and its connection with partisan warfare, it has enjoyed a high degree of popularity. It is marked by the same clearness and precision of thought characteristic of his Moral Science. His "Elements of Intellectual Philosophy," though its substance had been given to many successive classes in the lecture-room, was not published till 1854. Here he was treading upon difficult ground, and, amid conflicting systems, could hardly hope to satisfy all. His aim was to give a clear and impartial as well as comprehensive view of the elements of metaphysics, and he was remarkably successful. His other published works were—"University Sermons" (1838), subsequently enlarged and published under the title of "Salvation by Christ" (1838); "Limitations of Human Responsibility" (1840); "Life of Rev. Adoniram Judson, D. D.," 2 vols. (1853); "Notes on the Principles and Practices of the Baptists" (1856); "Occasional Discourses" (1858); "Sermons to the Churches" (1858); "Letters to the Churches on the Ministry of the Gospel" (1863); "a Memoir of Thomas Chalmers, D. D." (1864). He also held a written discussion with Dr. Richard Fuller in 1844, and the letters of both parties were published in 1845, under the title of "Christianity and Slavery." His labors in the cause of education were not confined to his own university; they were co-extensive with the limits of the world. In his own State, the efforts for educational reform in the public schools found in him a zealous and efficient leader. In the founding of colleges and theological seminaries, in the promotion of a higher and more truly liberal education among clergymen, and in the establishment of training-schools in the mission stations in foreign lands, he was always an efficient helper. The affection and esteem in which he was held by the people of the gallant little State of which for thirty-eight years he had been a resident, were high evidence of his moral worth. Of all her citizens, there was none whom Rhode Island more delighted to honor, none who would have been

* He received the degree of D. D. from Union College in 1827, and from Harvard University in 1829. The latter institution conferred on him the degree of LL. D. in 1852.

more heartily welcome to any gifts she had to bestow. More than once he was urged to allow himself to be nominated for United States Senator; and had he consented, he would have been elected by acclamation. Such honors as he would accept, the State heaped upon him. He was the chosen counsellor in all her educational matters; director and president, if he would serve, in her hospitals, asylums for the insane, and her reformatories; an inspector of her prisons, in which he regularly taught a Bible-class of prisoners, and often preached; president of the Society for Aiding the Poor, and an officer in nearly every social charity of the city, and the counsellor and friend of every one who went to him in perplexity and anxiety. His death was sudden and unexpected. He had overtasked himself in the final revision of his "Elements of Moral Science," while suffering from a heavy cold: on the 26th of September, 1865, he was smitten with paralysis, and survived four days, without return of consciousness.

WILKINS, Hon. WILLIAM, an American statesman and diplomatist, born in Eastern Pennsylvania, in 1779; died at his residence in Homewood, near Pittsburg, June 23, 1865. He removed to Pittsburg in boyhood, where he was educated, and in 1810 was president of the Pittsburg Manufacturing Company, the duties of which office he sustained with ability and judgment. Subsequently, upon the transformation of this institution into the Bank of Pittsburg, he became its president, but in 1819 resigned for the purpose of entering the Legislature. Mr. Wilkins represented the county twice in the Legislature, and whatever diversity of opinion may be entertained as to his political views, it cannot be denied that he exhibited fine powers of debate and great aptitude for the details of business. From this time his public life began. He was a Senator in Congress from 1831 to 1834; a Minister to Russia in 1834; a Representative in the lower House of Congress from 1843 to 1844, and during the latter year was appointed Secretary of War, on the 15th of July, by President Tyler. John C. Calhoun was at that time a member of the Cabinet, as Secretary of State. Mr. Wilkins was on board the U. S. ship Princeton when the "Peacemaker" exploded and Secretary Upshur was killed. Mr. Wilkins also filled most creditably the office of Judge of the U. S. District Court for the Western section of Pennsylvania. In 1847, in conjunction with Mr. Thomas Bakewell and John Harper, he founded the Western Pennsylvania Hospital. Mr. Wilkins was a man of clear and vigorous intellect, and was ever equal to the responsibilities of professional or official station. Frequently engaged with all the ardor of a strong nature in political discussions, he was honorable and fair in his deportment toward his political opponents. For some time previous to his decease his health had been impaired in consequence of a fall.

WISCONSIN. The political canvass of this State commenced in September. On the 6th the Republican Convention met at Madison and nominated a full State ticket, headed by the name of Lucius Fairchild as candidate for Governor. Two reports were made by the Committee on Resolutions. That of the minority declaring that the seceding States should be compelled, as a condition precedent to readmission to their privileges in the Union, to adopt constitutions which "make no discrimination as to right of suffrage on account of color," was laid on the table; and the majority resolutions, reported by Senator Doolittle, were adopted. The following are the most important of those:

Resolved, That while we welcome the cessation of war in the Southern States, we do not close our eyes to the fact that a large portion of the whole population are fresh from acts of hostility toward the Government and toward its institutions, are still unsettled in opinion, and many of them unreconciled to the results of the contest in which, for more than four years, they have been engaged. We rejoice to be assured that the Government will not withdraw from these States the strong arm of military power until it has full and satisfactory evidence of such a spirit of true and permanent loyalty as to make them safe participants in the right of self-government, insure obedience to the Constitution and laws, acquiescence in the emancipation of the slaves, and protection to the freedmen in the right to enjoy the fruits of their labor, as well as security of them against unlawful violence and persecution.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this convention, it is due to equal justice and to the altered condition of things, that the Constitution of the United States should be so amended as to make the representation of each State in the House of Representatives proportionate to the number of legally qualified male electors in such States.

Resolved, That we recognize in the administration of President Johnson substantially the same policy toward the people of the Southern States as that inaugurated by President Lincoln; that while he has fixed terms of reconstruction with the spirit of liberality and kindness, he, nevertheless, has evinced a determination to arrest the abuse of political power, wherever exercised for disloyal purposes; and that we believe he will so control and direct the work of reconstruction as will eventually restore the Union entire, and secure them all the rights to which they are entitled under a free and enlightened Government; and that we pledge to him, in the great work of restoring civil government in those States upon that basis, our hearty and unanimous support.

The Democrats assembled at the same place on the 20th, and nominated for Governor, Brig.-Gen. Harris C. Hobart, and a full ticket of State officers. In an address to the Convention, Gen. Hobart announced that he was opposed to a high tariff, and favored impartial taxation, and the doctrine that Africans should not vote, although he was willing that they should hold property, be witnesses in courts of law, and be educated. He praised warmly President Johnson's reconstruction policy, and declared his belief that a continuation of the present military policy in the South would lead to hostility and possibly to a renewal of the war. Resolutions were adopted endorsing the President's policy of restoring the Union on the

basis of the Federal Constitution, and pledging him unqualified support therein; opposing negro suffrage in the State of Wisconsin, or interference with it in other States; opposing the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*; and favoring the most rigid economy in the expenses of the Government, and a strict equalization of the tax burden.

The chief interest of the election turned on the question of amending the State Constitution by extending the suffrage to negroes, which the Legislature had referred to the popular vote. The failure of the Republican Convention to endorse this policy was supposed to presage its defeat, notwithstanding the party was decidedly in the ascendant in the State.

The election took place on November 7th, with the following result for Governor:

L. Fairchild, Republican.....	53,882
H. C. Hobart, Democrat.....	43,380

Majority for Fairchild..... 10,002

The other Republican candidates for State offices received majorities about as large as this. The election for members of the Legislature resulted as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	23	67	90
Democrats.....	10	38	48
Republican majority.....	13	34	47

The negro suffrage amendment was lost by the decisive vote of 55,591 against it, to 46,588 for it; majority against the amendment, 9,000. The Republican majority for State officers was thus nearly reversed, showing that upwards of ten thousand voters of that party cast their ballots against the measure. But notwithstanding this result, the right of colored men to vote was subsequently established by other means, the Supreme Court of Wisconsin having recently decided that in 1848 the people ratified an amendment conferring the right of suffrage upon this class of the population. It appears that at the election held that year such an amendment was submitted to the people, and a majority voted for it; but, as the Constitution required a "majority of all the votes cast at such election," it was declared by the canvassers that, as a majority of those who had voted for State officers had not voted for the amendment, it had failed. The Supreme Court has decided that this was erroneous, and that the amendment was adopted, and that therefore negroes are entitled to vote in Wisconsin.

The public debt of Wisconsin at the commencement of 1866 amounted to \$2,664,550, which is an increase of about one hundred and fifty thousand dollars over the debt of the previous year. Almost the entire amount was incurred by expenses growing out of the late war, and will doubtless be cancelled when the war claims of the State against the General Government come to be settled. The total number of men furnished by the State to the national armies was 96,118, who enlisted for

periods varying from three months to three years. Reduced to a three years' standard, her contribution to the war for the Union was 78,985 men. The excess of men over all calls exceeded one thousand, and the total number was equal to one-half of the voting population.

Early in 1866 the lands, water-powers, and other property of the "Fox and Wisconsin Rivers Improvement Company" were sold by the trustees on behalf of the State, to meet the State indebtedness and the cost of completing the improvement. The sale produced an amount deemed sufficient for both of these objects, the latter being of more than local interest and importance. The opening or enlargement of any avenue for the traffic of the Northwest, which already chokes every existing outlet, concerns the Eastern States quite as much as the region more immediately interested, and this water-channel between the Mississippi and the lakes promises in a few years to become a most valuable feeder to Eastern trade. A debt was thus extinguished, which has been called a part of the State debt, because the evidences of it were issued by State authority, although the State assumed no other responsibility for it than to pledge the application of the revenue of the works to the payment of the principal and interest. The original plan, adopted by Wisconsin in 1849, for the improvement of the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers, contemplated locks thirty-five feet in width and one hundred and forty feet in length. In 1856 the locks were required to be lengthened to one hundred and sixty feet, and the canals to be enlarged in depth and width. This latter plan is nearly consummated, and from the proceeds of the late sale enough money, it is said, has been realized to prepare for the speedy passage of boats and barges of a moderate size and capacity from the Mississippi to Lake Michigan at Green Bay. An enlargement sufficient to pass any of the Upper Mississippi boats is urged by the Wisconsin journals, as a measure worthy of national encouragement and subsidy.

From official statistics, published by the Secretary of State, it appears that in 1864 there were in Wisconsin eight lines of railroad, with an aggregate length of track in the State of 1,631 miles. The number of through passengers carried during the year was 280,205, and of way passengers 1,622,688½; the total amount of freight carried was 1,892,076 tons, and the proceeds for carrying freight and passengers amounted to \$18,183,568.29. There is no statement of the total expenses of the companies, only from declared dividends. There were seventeen passengers and twenty-one employes reported killed, and eleven passengers and three employes injured, mainly by their own carelessness.

From the annual report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the year ending August 31, 1865, the following statistics are obtained:

Whole number of children over four years and under 20 years of age	883,593
Number of different pupils who attended the public schools	223,987
Number of days' attendance of different pupils in the public schools	14,681,167
Average number of days the schools were taught	184½
Per cent. of attendance of number registered	50
Per cent. of attendance of number registered entitled to school privileges	88
Number of different persons employed as teachers	7,582
Average wages of male teachers per month	\$36 45
Average wages of female teachers per month	\$22 24
State fund apportioned	\$151,316 84
Total amount expended during the year and on hand August 31st	\$1,035,101 88

During the year covered by this report there were 2,222 male teachers and 5,310 female teachers employed in the public schools, and 11,948 more pupils in attendance than in 1864. The whole number of pupils was sixty-six per cent. of the whole number of persons over four and under twenty years of age in the State. The number less than four years of age, who have been registered, is 1,252. The number over twenty years of age, who have attended school, is 1,523. There was raised by tax for school purposes \$2.70 for each child over four and under twenty years of age, and \$4.07 for each child registered as a member of public schools. The number of school houses is 4,338, valued at a million and a half dollars, and accommodating 241,595 pupils. The demand for teachers is at present greater than the supply. Hundreds of persons possessing limited attainments are employed, not because the people are indifferent to their qualifications, but because the school houses would be unoccupied unless these were employed.

The productive portion of the school fund is given as follows:

Amount due on land sold on certificates	\$675,037 11
Amount due on mortgages	239,123 75
Amount due on certificates of State indebtedness	897,000 00
Amount due on State bonds	108,700 00
One quarter of the Normal School fund	146,645 46
Total	\$2,118,506 32

which is less than the amount in former years, the decrease being due, according to the Superintendent, to the worthless security that loans were based upon during the first ten years of the administration of the fund.

WISEMAN, NICHOLAS PATRICK, an English Roman Catholic clergyman, Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster, born in Seville, Spain, August 3, 1802; died at his residence York Place, London, February 15, 1865. His father's family were of English origin, and his mother's Irish. When five years of age he was taken to England by his mother, by whom he was placed in a boarding-school at Waterford, and, subsequently, entered the college at Ushaw, where, for nearly eight years, he applied himself closely to his studies, laying the foundation for that profound and varied erudition which gave him such distinction in after life. In December, 1818, he went to Rome as a student of the English College, then but recently established. At the age of twenty-two years

he was graduated D.D.; in 1825 was appointed to the priesthood, and two years after was chosen Professor of Oriental Languages in the Roman University, at which time he was also Vice-Rector of the English College. On the elevation of Dr. Gradwell to the episcopate, and his consequent return to England, Dr. Wiseman succeeded him as rector of the college in 1828. This appointment, and the passing of the Catholic Relief Act at the time, may be said to have determined the future career of the eminent divine. At this period, notwithstanding the pressure on his time, and the many demands upon his energies, he wrote his *Horæ Syriacæ*, chiefly drawn from Oriental MSS. in the Vatican Library. Returning to England in 1835, he soon became celebrated as a preacher and lecturer, and in Lent of 1836 delivered at St. Mary's, Moorfields, a course of lectures on the principal doctrines and practices of the Catholic Church, which were afterwards printed and passed through many editions. These volumes were speedily followed by his "Treatise on the Holy Eucharist," which occasioned the celebrated controversy with the Rev. Dr. Turner, afterwards Bishop of Ely. This work was quickly followed by Dr. Wiseman's "Lectures on the Connection between Science and Revealed Religion." It has passed into several editions and as many languages, and it is held in such esteem as to form a text-book on the very important subject with which it so ably deals. After this he made another visit to Rome, where he remained for a short time, and, it is said, was mainly instrumental in inducing the then Pope (Gregory XVI.) to increase the Vicars Apostolic in England. Dr. Wiseman, shortly after, returned from the Eternal City as Coadjutor Bishop to Dr. Walsh, of the Midland district. He was also appointed President of St. Mary's College, Oscott. In 1847 he again visited Rome, on matters in reference to the Catholics of England, and, it is believed, to consult with the Pope on the subject of the important changes which were subsequently made. On the death of Bishop Griffiths, in 1848, Dr. Wiseman became Pro-Vicar Apostolic of the "London district," and was soon afterwards nominated coadjutor to Bishop Walsh, on that prelate being translated to London. On the death of Dr. Walsh, in 1849, Dr. Wiseman became Vicar-Apostolic. During the time that elapsed from his second visit to England up to his succession in 1849, great changes in religious opinions had taken place, and within the very centres of the two great Universities of Oxford and Cambridge the preachings and writings of Dr. Wiseman were operating. On the 6th of August, 1850, Dr. Wiseman was summoned to Rome by the present Pope, who, on the 29th of September in that year, issued his apostolic letter reestablishing the English Catholic hierarchy. At the same time his Holiness issued a brief elevating Dr. Wiseman to the archiepiscopal dignity, and, in a private consistory held

the following day, the new archbishop was raised by the Sovereign Pontiff to the dignity of Cardinal, by the title of St. Pudentia. Cardinal Wiseman was the seventh English Cardinal since the Reformation. Violent opposition was shown at first to this action of the Pontiff, but it soon subsided. The Cardinal's talents were of the highest order, and he was acknowledged as one of the first scholars in Europe. He was acquainted with most of the European languages; was well skilled in Hebrew and the Oriental tongues; a great Biblical scholar, a judicious critic, and a proficient in almost every branch of science. His works were numerous. Since his elevation to the cardinalate, three volumes of his contributions to the "Dublin Review" have been published, under the title of "Essays on Various Subjects." He has also written a tale entitled "Tabiola, or the Church of the Catacombs," which has been translated into several languages; "Recollections of the last Four Popes, and of Rome in their Times" (1858); a volume embodying lectures, sermons, and speeches delivered during a tour in Ireland (1859); "Rome and the Catholic Episcopate" (1862); "Essays on Rome, Ancient and Modern;" and a number of other sermons, lectures, etc. In the autumn of 1858 he visited Ireland, where his journeys were so many ovations, and his presence was hailed with affectionate veneration and acclaim.

WORCESTER, JOSEPH EMERSON, LL. D., an American lexicographer, geographer, and statistician, born in Bedford, N. H., August 24, 1784; died at Cambridge, Mass., October 27, 1865. He was the descendant of an old and influential family which had lived at Hollis, N. H., since 1750. His early education was obtained chiefly at Hollis, to which his parents removed soon after his birth, and at Phillips' Academy, Andover, Mass. He graduated at Yale College in 1811, and for several years afterwards taught school in Salem; and while here, prepared the greater part of his "Geographical Dictionary, or Universal Gazetteer," published at Andover in 1817. The following year he published his "Gazetteer of the United States" at the same place. In 1819 he removed to Cambridge, Mass., and the same year published his "Elements of Geography, Ancient and Modern;" in 1820, "Epitome of Geography;" in 1823, "Sketches of the Earth and its Inhabitants;" and in 1826-'28, "Elements of History, Ancient and Modern," "Epitome of History," and "Out-

lines of Scripture Geography." Dr. Worcester's first effort in the field of English lexicography was "Johnson's English Dictionary as improved by Todd, and abridged by Chalmers, with Walker's Pronouncing Dictionary combined," brought out in 1827, from which time he devoted most of his attention to this department of literature. In 1828, while engaged upon his "Comprehensive Pronouncing and Explanatory Dictionary," he was induced by the publisher of "Webster's American Dictionary" to prepare an abridgment of that work. From 1830 to 1881 he visited Europe, where he collected many valuable philological and lexicographical works. Subsequently he published a "Universal and Critical Dictionary of the English Language" (1846); a "Pronouncing, Explanatory, and Synonymous Dictionary" (1855); "A Dictionary of the English Language," his greatest work (1860); "Spelling-Book of the English Language;" and "Remarks on Longevity." He was also the literary editor of the "American Almanac" from 1831 to 1848 inclusive. Dr. Worcester received the degree of LL. D. from Brown University and from Dartmouth College, and was made a member of most of the scientific and literary societies in this country.

WURTEMBERG, a kingdom in Germany. King, Karl, born March 6, 1823; succeeded his father June 25, 1864. The Constitution of September 25, 1829, gives the legislative power conjointly to the king and a Diet (Landtag), consisting of two Chambers. The Upper Chamber consists of the royal princes, the heads of the principal noble families, and a number of members appointed by the king for life (such members not to exceed one-third of the house). The second Chamber consists of 13 members of the nobility; 6 superintendents of the Protestant Church; 1 Roman Catholic Bishop, and two other representatives of Roman Catholic bodies; the chancellor of the University of Tübingen, and 71 deputies of towns and rural districts. The area of the kingdom is 7,840 square miles. The population, in 1864, was 1,748,328, of whom 1,200,863 were Protestants; 2,661 Protestant dissenters; 538,694 Roman Catholics; 4,610 Jews. The capital, Stuttgart, contained, in 1864, 69,084 inhabitants. The revenue for the financial period from 1864 to 1867, was 51,226,785 florins; surplus of revenue over expenditures, 34,077 florins. The army consists of 28,786 men.

Y

YTTRIUM, AND THE SUPPOSED ERBIUM AND TERBIUM. M. O. Popp has investigated (1864) the rare earth, yttria; and he is led to conclude that the supposed bases, *erbia* and *terbia*, contained along with yttria proper and with small portions of the alkalis and lime in this mineral,

are in reality identical with the oxides of cerium and didymium. Carbonate of baryta, providing the cerium be present as a sesqui-oxide, precipitates from solution all the bases except yttria proper. The latter is obtained, after separate precipitation and ignition, in form of a

heavy powder, which, if pure, is of a yellowish white. Yttria is a strong base. Its crystalline hydrated salts have all a pale rose color.

The metal, obtained by reduction from a chloride with sodium, appears when dry as a blackish-gray powder: its equivalent is given by Popp as 84. It oxidizes in water, and more rapidly on boiling. Heated on platinum foil, it burns with an intense light—the color not so pure a white as that afforded by magnesium or aluminium, but inclining to reddish. This metal, in fact, shows much analogy with magnesium, as also do its compounds with those of the latter. The author, of course, concludes that the supposed elements, *erbium* and *terbium*, have no real existence. (Original paper in *Ann. der Chem. und Pharm.*, lv. 179.)

M. Marc Delafontaine, on the contrary, has contributed to the *Archives des Sciences*, etc., Geneva, an account of his researches on the yttria bases—a translation, entitled "On the Metals in Cerite and Gadolinite," appearing in the *Chemical News*, April 7, 1865, etc.,—in

which, while alluding to Popp's results, then just published, he maintains the opposite view. He briefly recounts how M. Gadolin in 1794 extracted the impure earth *yttria* from the peculiar black mineral (Gadolinite) of the Ytterby quarries; while subsequently, out of, or as associated with this earth, Ekeberg, in 1802, separated the metal *glucinum*; Berzelius, in 1815, *cerium*; Mosander in 1839, *lanthanum* and *didymium*; and the same chemist, in 1843, as he supposed, *erbium* and *terbium*. M. Delafontaine considers at length the chemical reactions and physical qualities of compounds accredited to the last two, and of those of yttrium and the other associated metals, besides presenting the spectrum of erbium, terbium, and didymium; and he unhesitatingly decides that erbium and terbium are distinct bodies and true elements. He regards the earthy bases of these two metals as protoxides, their formulæ being thus, ErO and TrO . Calling that of oxygen 16, the equivalents of these metals are found by him as, respectively, 95 and (nearly) 91.

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